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THE JAPAN YEAR BOOK 1939-40

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JAPAN

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FOR PARTICULARS APPLY TO :—

JAPAN TOURIST BUREAU

&

ALL TOURIST AGENCIES

BOARD OF TOURIST INDUSTRY

JAPANESE GOVERNMENT RAILWAYS

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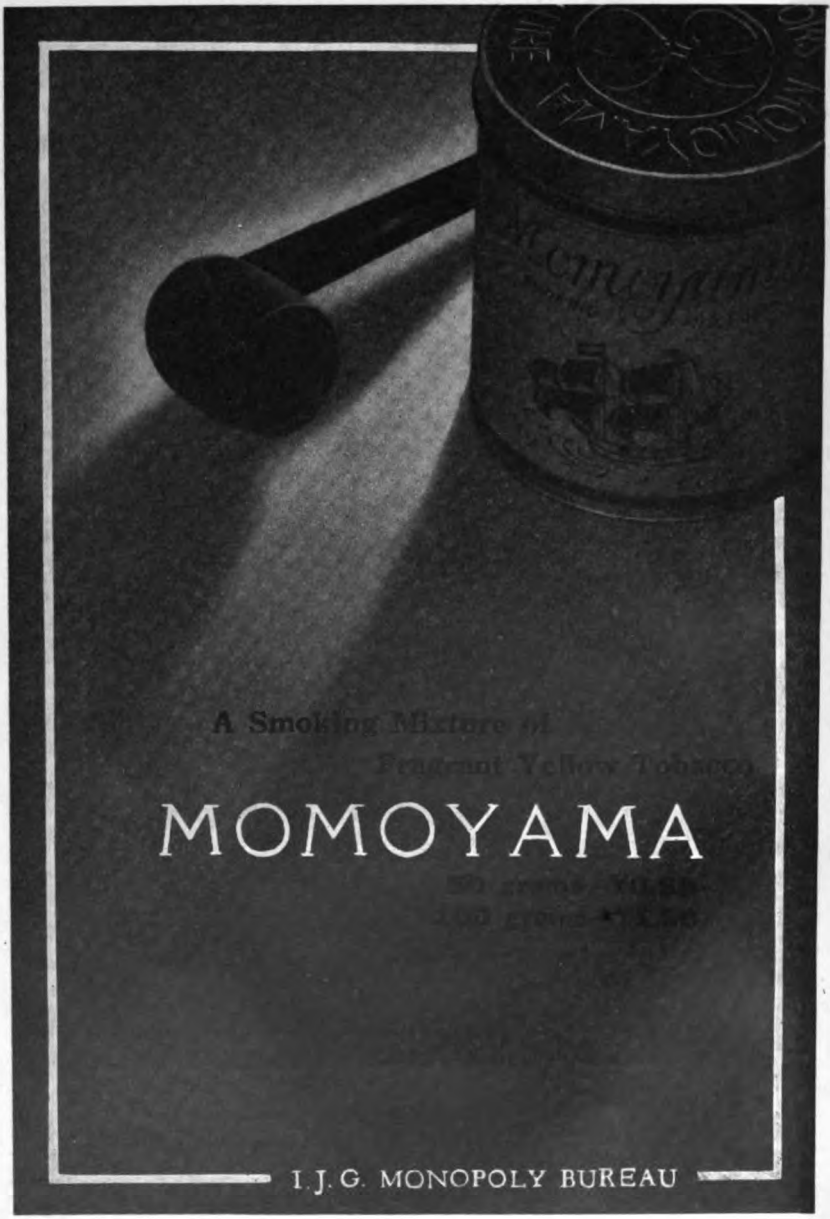

II

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MITSUBISHI CONCERNS

MITSUBISHI COMPANY, LIMITED

Cable Address :—"IWASAKIGEN TOKYO"
President : Baron KOYATA IWASAKI
Vice-President : Mr. HIKOYATA IWASAKI
CAPITAL :—¥ 120,000,000
Head Office :—Marunouchi, Tokyo.

MITSUBISHI JŪKŌGYŌ KABUSHIKI KAISHA

(Mitsubishi Heavy-Industries, Ltd.)
Cable Addresses :—"IWASAKIJUK TOKYO"
"IWASAKIAIR TOKYO"

Shipbuilders; Manufacturers of Engines, Boilers & Machinery for Marine & Land purposes; Designers & Constructors of Aircraft & Aero-engines, Manufacturers of Steel Plates, Casting & Forgings.

CAPITAL :—¥ 120,000,000
Head Office :—Marunouchi, Tokyo.
Shipyards, Docks & Engine Works :—Nagasaki, Kobe, Hiroshima & Yokohama. **Arms Works**: —Nagasaki. **Steel Works** :—Nagasaki. **Aircraft Works** :—Nagoya. **Aero-engine Works** :—Nagoya. **Engineering Works** :—Tokyo.

MITSUBISHI SOKO KABUSHIKI KAISHA

(Mitsubishi Warehouse Co., Ltd.)
Cable Address :—"IWASAKISOK TOKYO"

Landing, Shipping & Forwarding Agents; Stevedores; Wharfingers; Customs Brokers; Warehousemen.

CAPITAL :—¥ 20,000,000
Head Office :—Edobashi, Nihonbashiku, Tokyo.
Branches :—Yokohama, Osaka, Kobe, Moji.

MITSUBISHI SHOJI KAISHA, LIMITED

(Mitsubishi Trading Co., Ltd.)
Cable Address :—"IWASAKISAL TOKYO"

Importers & Exporters, Manufacturers, Commission Merchants, Brokers, Shipowners.

CAPITAL :—¥ 50,000,000
Head Office : Marunouchi, Tokyo.
Branches, Representatives & Agencies :
(Home) Aomori, Fusan, Hakodate, Heijo, Keelung, Keijo, Kobe, Kunsan, Kure, Moji, Nagasaki, Nagoya, Niigata, Osaka, Otaru, Sasebo, Seishin, Sendai, Taihoku, Takao, Tokushima, Yawata, Yokohama, Yokosuka, etc.
(Oversea) Alexandria, Antung, Baghdad, Bangkok, Batavia, Beirut, Berlin, Bombay, Buenos Aires, Calcutta, Cape Town, Casablanca, Dairen, Hankow, Harbin, Hongkong, Hsinking, Johannesburg, Karachi, London, Lyons, Madras, Manila, Melbourne, Mukden, Mutankiang, Nanking, New York, Paris, Rangoon, Rome, San Francisco, Santiago de Chile, Seattle, Shanghai, Singapore, Soerabaya, Sydney, Teheran, Tientsin, Tsinan, Tsingtao, Yingkow, etc.

MITSUBISHI KOGYO KAISHA, LIMITED

(Mitsubishi Mining Co., Ltd.)
Cable Address :—"IWASAKIMIN TOKYO"

Producers and Sellers of Coal, Metals & Other Minerals.

CAPITAL :—¥ 200,000,000
Head Office :—Marunouchi, Tokyo.
Metal Mines :—Makimine, Osarizawa, Sado, Ikuno, Akenobe, Hosokura, Ohira, Teine, Arakawa, Tsunatori, Izushi, Takara, Kintei, Mozan, Kenjiho, Ginryu, Kasei, etc.
Coal Mines :—Takashima, Bibai, Namazuta, Shinnyu, Hojo, Kamiyamada, Oyubari, Iizuka, etc.
Smelting & Refining Works :—Naoshima, Osaka.
Branches & Representatives : Tokyo, Yokohama, Niigata, Shimizu, Fushiki, Tsuruga, Wakamatsu, Moji, Nagasaki, Keijo, Otaru, Muroran, Hakodate, Sapporo, Kushiro, Aomori, Ominato, Funakawa, Sendai, Sakata, Rumoye, etc.
Mining & Metallurgical Laboratory, —Omiya, Saitama-ken.

THE MITSUBISHI BANK, LIMITED

Cable Address :—"IWASAKIBAK TOKYO"

General Banking & Exchange Business.

CAPITAL :—¥ 100,000,000
Head Office : Marunouchi, Tokyo.
Branches : Tokyo, Osaka, Kobe, Kyoto, Nagoya, Otaru, Shanghai, Dairen, London, New York.

MITSUBISHI DENKI KABUSHIKI KAISHA

(Mitsubishi Electric Manufacturing Co., Ltd.)
Cable Address :—"IWASAKILEC TOKYO"

Manufacturers of Generators, Motors, Transformers, Other Electrical Machinery, Air Brake Apparatus, Door Control Engines, etc.

CAPITAL :—¥ 30,000,000
Head Office :—Marunouchi, Tokyo.
Works :—Kobe, Nagasaki, Nagoya.

MITSUBISHI TRUST COMPANY, LTD.

Cable Address :—"IWASAKITRU TOKYO"

General Trust Business.

CAPITAL :—¥ 30,000,000
Head Office :—Marunouchi, Tokyo.
Branch :—Osaka.

MITSUBISHI ESTATE COMPANY, LTD.

Cable Address :—"IWASAKILAD TOKYO"

Owners of Controllers of Estates & Buildings

CAPITAL :—¥ 15,000,000
Head Office :—Marunouchi, Tokyo.

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ESTABLISHED IN 1872

OJI SEISHI KABUSHIKI KAISHA

(THE OJI PAPER MANUFACTURING CO., LTD.)

Chairman of the
Board of Directors
GINJIRO FUJIHARA
President
KIKUJIRO TAKASHIMA

CAPITAL STOCK . . . . Yen 300,000,000

Annual Output:

Paper, all kinds	**900,000 Tons**
Wood Pulp	**850,000 „**

Manufacturers of PAPER & PULP

LIST OF MANUFACTURES:

Cigarette Paper, Carbonizing Tissue, Condenser Paper, Celluloid Tissue, Printing Paper, Newsprint, Book Paper, India Paper, Cover Paper, Art Paper, Simili Paper, Writing Paper, Bond Paper, Ledger Paper, Foolscap, Postcard Paper, Drawing Paper, Blotting Paper, Wrapping Paper, Glassine, Imitation Parchment, Kraft Paper, Match Paper, Coloured Paper, Wall Paper, Strawboard, Manilaboard, Coated Manilaboard, Bleached and Unbleached Sulphite Pulp, Rayon Pulp, Sulphate Pulp, etc.

Main Office: Sanshin Building, Tokyo, Japan

PAPER AND PULP MILLS:

Chosen	Kamedo	Nagoya	Shibakawa
Esutoru	Kanzaki	Nakatsu	Shirutoru
Fuji No. 1	Kokura	Noda	Tomakomai
Fuji No. 2	Kumano	Ochiai	Tomarioru
Fuji No. 3	Kushiro	Odomari	Toyohara
Fushiki	Kyoto	Oji	Yatsushiro
Iwabuchi	Maoka	Sakamoto	Yebetsu
Jujo	Miyakojima	Senju	Yedogawa
		Yodogawa	

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The Kanegafuchi Spinning Co., Ltd.

ESTABLISHED 1889

HEAD OFFICE:
Sumida-machi, Mukojima-ku, Tokyo
Business Headquarters:
Misakicho, Hayashida-ku, Kobe

President: SHINGO TSUDA, Esq.

CAPITAL SUBSCRIBED	Yen	120,000,000.00
CAPITAL PAID-UP	„	75,000,000.00
RESERVES	„	80,439,000.00

—(DECEMBER, 1937)—

Reelers and Throwsters of Raw Silk; Manufacturers of all classes of Pure Silks; Spinners of all kinds of Cotton and Spun Silk Yarns; Manufacturers of all kinds of Cotton Cloths, Spun Silk Fabrics and Woollens. Printing, Dyeing, Bleaching and Finishing Works.

For Home and Foreign Markets

AGENTS:

IN ALL THE IMPORTANT COMMERCIAL CENTRES OF THE WORLD

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Cable Address :
"GLASS TOKYO"

Code Used :
Bentley's Complete
Phrase Code

Registered Trade Mark

ASAHI GLASS CO., LTD.

(Established in 1907)

Capital : .....**¥40,000,000 (Paid up)**

MANUFACTURERS AND EXPORTERS

OF

Window and Sheet Glass, Polished Plate Glass, Figured Glass, Ribbed Glass, Figured and Ribbed Wire Glass, Photo Glass, Safety Glass, Glass Fibre, Soda Ash, Caustic Soda, Sodium Carbonate Anhydrous E. P., Sodium Bicarbonate, Sodium Sesquicarbonate, Calcium Chloride, Fire Bricks, Corhart Electrocast Blocks.

ANNUAL PRODUCTION CAPACITY

Glass Products	**520,000,000 sq. ft.**
Soda Products	**593,600 tons**
Calcium Chloride	**20,000 tons**
Fire Bricks	**23,000 tons**
Corhart Electrocast-Blocks	**11,000 tons**

Head Office : .....Marunouchi, Tokyo, Japan
Branch Offices :.....Tokyo, Osaka, Moji, Nagoya, Otaru
Factories :.....Amagasaki, Yawata, Yokohama
Laboratory : .....Yokohama

EXPORT AGENT :

Mitsubishi Shoji Kaisha, Ltd.

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Nippon Seitetsu Kabushiki Kaisha

Yusen Building, Marunouchi, TOKYO

PRODUCTS: **Pig Iron, Billets, Steel Bars, Structural Steel, Rails, Wire Rods, Sheet Piles, Steel Plates and Sheets, Strips and Tin Plate, Forgings, Slag-Cement, Slag-Bricks, Slag-Ballast, Slag-Wool, Ammonium Sulphate, Benzol, Creosote, Coal-Tar, Pitch, Etc.**

Japan Iron & Steel Manufacturing Company Limited

HEAD OFFICE:

Yusen Building, Marunouchi, Kojimachi-ku, TOKYO

Mills:

Yawata Iron & Steel Works	Yawata-shi, Fukuoka Pref.
Wanishi Iron & Steel Works	Muroran-shi, Hokkaido.
Kamaishi Iron & Steel Works	Kamaishi-shi, Iwate Pref.
Fuji Steel Works	Kawasaki-shi, Kanagawa Pref.
Osaka Steel Works	Osaka-shi, Osaka Pref.
Kenjiho Iron & Steel Works	Kenjiho, Kokaido, Korea.
Hirohata Iron & Steel Works	Shikama-gun, Hyogo Pref.
Seishin Iron & Steel Works	Seishin, Kankyohokudo, Korea.

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THE DENKI KAGAKU KOGYO KABUSHIKI KAISHA

(THE ELECTRO-CHEMICAL INDUSTRY CO., LTD.)

ESTABLISHED IN MAY, 1915

CAPITAL . . . . . Yen 56,000,000

President: SHINTARO OHASHI

Managing Director: TETSUJI KONDO

MAIN PRODUCTS

Calcium Carbide, Calcium Cyanamide, Ammonium Sulphate, Ferro Alloys and other chemical products

HEAD OFFICE:

Yurakucho, Kojimachi-ku, Tokyo

FACTORIES:

Aomi Factory	Aomi, Niigata Pref.
Omuta Factory	Omuta, Fukuoka Pref.

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Teikoku Senryo Seizo K. K.

(Imperial Dyestuffs Mfg. Co., Ltd.)

Kaijo Building, Marunouchi, Tokyo

WORKS:
Fukuyama, Kokura
CODES:
Bentley's, A.B.C. 6th

OSAKA OFFICE:
Sanwa Building
Kawaramachi, Higashi-ku,
OSAKA

CAPITAL ¥5,000,000

President ... ... Y. HARA
Managing Director ... ... H. TAKAHASHI
Executive Directors ... ... S. ENDO & Z. TAKAHASHI

LIST OF PRODUCTS

Sulphur Colours
Basic Colours
Naphtol Colours
Acid Mordant Colours
Vat Colours
Direct Colours
Acid Colours
Chemicals & Intermediates

FUKUYAMA WORKS

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TRADE MARK

Established 1854 MB **Capital ¥10,000,000**

MARUBENI

MARUBENI SHOTEN, LTD.,

36, Hommachi 2 Chome, Higashiku, Osaka

MANUFACTURERS, EXPORTERS & IMPORTERS
Specialist in Textile & Yarns

COTTON, RAYON, SILK, STAPLE FIBER, WOOLLEN PIECE GOODS & YARNS

TEXTILE MACHINERY, ACCESSORIES & PARTS, "MORAL" CASH REGISTER,

CHEMICALS—INDUSTRIAL CHEMICALS, MEDICINES, DYEING MATERIALS, etc.

BUILDING MATERIALS—CEMENT, GALVANISED SHEET, FRAMES, NAILS, WIRE, etc.

PROVISIONS—CANNED & BOTTLED GOODS, TEA, etc.

"KINGLITE" (PHENOL RESIN) INSULATIVE & ACID PROOF RODS, TUBES, PIPES, COCKS, VALVES, PUMPS, etc.

TEXTILE SUNDRIES & GENERAL MERCHANDISE

BRANDS:

KINSEN (Rayon & Silk P. Goods)
LUMINA (Rayon & Silk P. Goods)
LUMINAX (Rayon & Silk P. Goods)
RAYONITE BOW (Yarns)
BENITEX (Piece Goods)
OASIS (Cotton P. Goods)

Cable Address : APPOLICO

Code Used : Schofield's 3 Letter
Paramount 3 Letter
Oriental 3 Letter
Oriental Improved
Bentleys' Complete

Branches :

Bombay, Tientsin, Tokyo, Kobe, Kyoto, Shanghai, Seoul, Osaka, Nagoya, Fukui

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IMPORTS:

RAW COTTON, JUTE, ETC.

EXPORTS:

COTTON, RAYON, WOOLLEN YARN &

PIECE GOODS, STAPLE FIBRE &

YARN, TEXTILES AND

SUNDRY GOODS

CODES:
ABC 6TH, ACME,
BUENTING'S 2ND, BENTLEY'S
COMPLETE & 2ND,
LOMBARD, ORIENTAL,
PARAMOUNT, SCHOFIELD'S
ECLECTIC & 3 LETTER,
UNITED TELEGRAPH

SHOWA

POST:
CENTRAL P. O. BOX 57,
OSAKA, JAPAN

TELEGRAMS:
"SHOWA MENKA OSAKA"

SHOWA MENKA
KABUSHIKI KAISHA.

(SHOWA COTTON CO., LTD.)

GOSHO BUILDING, NAKANOSHIMA,
OSAKA, JAPAN

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NIPPON SEIREN

KABUSHIKI KAISHA, LTD.

157, Komagome-Higashi-Katamachi, Hongo-ku, Tokyo
Tel. Koishikawa (85) 1135, 1136, 1137, 1138

Bichromate of Potash
Granulated Bichromate of Potash
Bichromate of Soda
Bichromate of Ammon
Chromic Acid Anhydride
Chrome Alum
Chrome Green
Chrome Yellow
Silicate of Soda DI
Silicate of Soda TR
Silicate of Soda TT
Amorphous Silicate of Soda
Metasilicate of Soda
Silicate of Potash
Water Softening Agent (Green Purelite)
Quick Cementing Liquid
Water-tightening Liquid for Cementing Materials
Potassium Permanganate
Potassium Chlorate
Caustic Potash
Sulfuric Acid (Contact & Oleum)
Aluminium Sulfate
Sodium Sulfate dehydrated
Metallic Chrome
Metallic Zinc, Electro.
Ferro-Chrome
Ferro-Mangan
Ferro-Silicon
Ferro-Phosphorus
White Phosphorus
Red Phosphorus
Phosphorus Sulfide (Sesqui & Penta)
Phosphide of Lime
Phosphoric Acid & Anhydride
Glycero-Phosphate of Lime
Calcium Hypophosphite
Zinc White
Red Lead
Litharge
Lithopone
Sulfide of Zinc
Blanc Fixe (Pulp & Dry)
Barium Chloride
Barium Carbonate
Barium Nitrate
Nitre
Iodine & Pota. Iodide
Varnish
Size & Drier

FACTORIES:

Head Factory: 1, 1-chome, Komatsugawa, Tokyo.
Tel. Joto (68) 668, 669, 696, 697.

2nd Factory: 3, 1-chome, Komatsugawa, Tokyo.
Tel. Joto (68) 0735.

Osaka Factory: 7, 3-chome, Izuohama-dori, Taisho-ku, Osaka.
Tel. Sakuragawa 2231, 6181.

Kameido Factory: 200, 9-chome, Kameido-machi, Joto-ku, Tokyo.
Tel. Sumida (74) 3072, 3073.

Koriyama Factory: Takaminami, Koriyama City, Fukushima-ken.
Tel. Koriyama 0173, 0863.

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TOKYO OFFICE:
Kogin Bldg.,
Marunouchi Tokyo

ANGAUR & HUHAESU
PHOSPHATE MINES:
Angaur Is., Huhaesu Is.,
South Sea Islands

Nanyo Takushoku Kaisha Ltd.

ESTABLISHED 1937

HEAD OFFICE: Palau I., South Sea Is.

CAPITAL SUBSCRIBED ¥20,000,000
CAPITAL PAID-UP ¥15,273,000

President: Baron RYUTARO FUKAO

ENTERPRISES:

SHIPPING, FISHING INDUSTRY, PHOSPHATE MINING, AGRICULTURAL INDUSTRY, CONSTRUCTION OF TOWN RESIDENTIAL QUARTERS, THE MAKING OF LOANS ON THE MORTGAGE OF VARIOUS INDUSTRIAL ENTERPRISES AND ON OTHER CORPORATIONS

Agents for

THE BANK OF JAPAN

Concerns invested by our Company:—

Toyo Alminium Kabushiki Kaisha
Kyokuyo Hogei Kabushiki Kaisha
Nanyo Alminium Kabushiki Kaisha
Nanko Suisan Kabushiki Kaisha
Nantaku Kogyo Kabushiki Kaisha
Nantaku Pineapple Kabushiki Kaisha
Nippon Shinju Kabushiki Kaisha
Nanyo Kisen Kabushiki Kaisha
Taiyo Shinju Kabushiki Kaisha
Nanpo Sangyo Kabushiki Kaisha
Nanyo Denki Kabushiki Kaisha
Nettai Nosan Kabushiki Kaisha
Honan Sangyo Kabushiki Kaisha
Kabushiki Kaisha Nanyo Simpo Sha

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Taiwan Takushoku Kabushiki Kaisha

(The Taiwan Development Company, Ltd.)

ESTABLISHED 1936

Capital.....¥30,000,000

President: KYOHEI KATO
Vice-President: TADASU HISAMUNE

PLANTATION, AGRICULTURE, FORESTRY, FISHERY, MINING, AND OTHER INDUSTRIES IN FORMOSA AND ABROAD; FINANCING OF EMIGRATION AND ENTERPRISES OVERSEAS

Head Office: TAIHOKU, FORMOSA

Branch Office: TOKYO, TAICHŪ, TAINAN, TAKAO

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Cable Address:
NANHATSU TOKYO

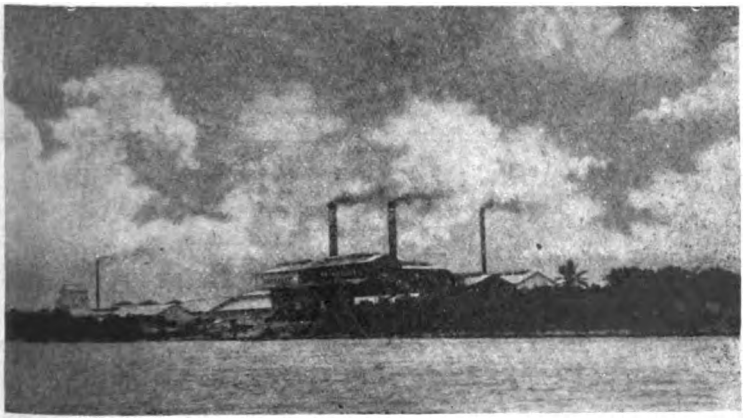
Code Used:
Bentley's Complete
Bentley's 2nd Phrase
A B C
Acme & Private

Nanyo Kohatsu Kabushiki Kaisha

—(ESTABLISHED 1921)—

CAPITAL - - - - - - ¥40,000,000

PRESIDENT: HARUTSUGU MATSUE



LINE OF BUSINESS: EMIGRATION, LAND DEVELOPMENT

MANUFACTURES: SUGAR, PURE ALCOHOL, STARCH, PHOSPHATE, FISHERY, COTTON, DAMAR, COPAL

HEAD OFFICE: SAIPAN, SOUTH SEAS

BRANCH OFFICES: SAIPAN, TENIAN, ROTA, PALAO, PONAPE, PELILIU, TOKOBEI, KUSAIE, SHINNAN Is., NEW GUINEA, CELEBES, HALMAHERA, CERAM, PORTUGUESE-TIMOR, PHILIPPINE BOHOL

FACTORIES: SAIPAN, TENIAN, ROTA, PONAPE

TOKYO OFFICE: 1-CHOME, UCHISAIWAI-CHO, KOJIMACHI-KU, TOKYO

TELEPHONE: GINZA 2191—2198

Reference: MITSUI BANK—YASUDA BANK—BANK OF CHOSEN—DAIICHI GINKO—DAIHYAKU GINKO—NOMURA BANK—BANK OF TAIWAN

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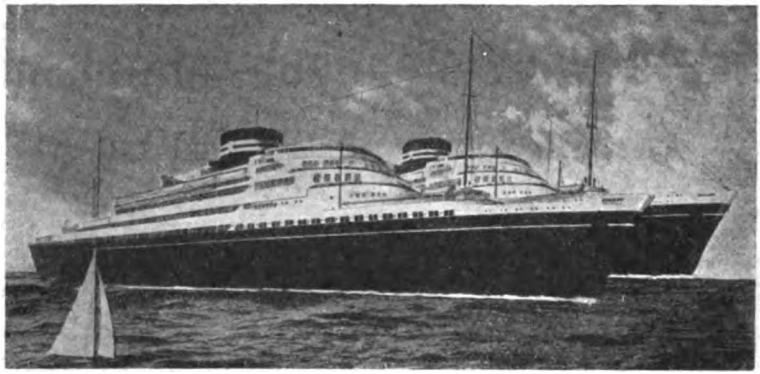
O.S.K.Line



NEW ROUND THE WORLD LINER

M. S. "ARGENTINA MARU"

MAIDEN VOYAGE

From Yokohama ....11th July, 1939

From Kōbe .....15th July, 1939

SISTER BOAT

M. S. "BRASIL MARU"

Commissioned early in 1940

O. S. K. ROUND THE WORLD LUXURY CRUISE

JAPAN · CHINA · MALAY · CEYLON · S. AFRICA · BRASIL · URUGUAY · ARGENTINA · PANAMA · NORTH AMERICA · JAPAN

TAKING ONLY 3 MONTHS

FARE £162 UP

ŌSAKA SYŌSEN KAISYA

HEAD OFFICE • ŌSAKA, JAPAN

BRANCHES & AGENTS ALL OVER THE WORLD

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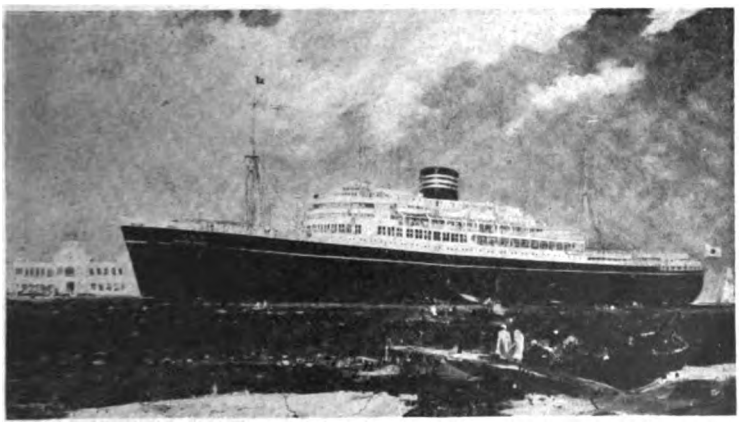
World-wide Passenger and Freight Services

N. Y. K. Positively Leads Seven Seas
With the Swift, Modern Liners
of Its Great Fleet



New Japan-Europe Line Vessel, Nitta Maru—16,500 gross tons
Sister Vessels—Yawata Maru and Kasuga Maru

N. Y. K. LINE

(JAPAN MAIL)

Head Office: TOKYO, JAPAN

Branches & Agents throughout the World

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REGULAR SERVICES:

Japan-East Australia
West Australia-Orient
Japan-New Zealand
Australia-Philippines-Hongkong
Shanghai-North China
Japan-(Shanghai-North China)-Seattle-Vancouver

Japan-(Shanghai-North China-Philippines)-Los Angeles-San Francisco
Portland
Far East-New York
South America
Japan-Persian Gulf
Japan-Philippines

IRREGULAR SERVICES:—All over the World.

YAMASHITA LINE

Vessels under the Company's Management
900,000 Tons D/W

THE YAMASHITA STEAMSHIP CO., LTD.
Head Office: KOBE, JAPAN
Cable Address: "YAMASHITA KOBE"

BRANCHES:—TOKYO, YOKOHAMA, NAGOYA, OSAKA, MOJI, WAKAMATU, YAWATA, OTARU, DAIREN, TSINGTAO, SHANGHAI, MANILA, LONDON, SYDNEY, WELLINGTON (N.Z.), SEATTLE, PORTLAND, NEW YORK, VANCOUVER & BUENOS AIRES.

AGENCIES IN ALL PRINCIPAL PORTS OF THE WORLD

YAMASHITA KISEN KAISHA

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KOKUSAI LINE

KOKUSAI KISEN KAISYA

S. KUROKAWA
PRESIDENT

Owners of Motor and Steam Vessels
Aggregating
300,000 Tons Deadweight

Head Office: **Tokyo, Japan**
Telegraphic Address: **INTERSHIP TOKYO**

PRINCIPAL REGULAR SERVICES

Far East—North Europe—Far East

The new motor vessels in the above service operate from Kobe to Marseilles in 32 days via Suez or from Yokohama to London in 36 days via Panama, carrying a limited number of passengers.

Orient—New York—Orient

The new motor vessels in the above service operate from Yokohama to New York in 24 days via Panama, carrying a limited number of passengers.

New York—Hamburg—New York Japan—Australia—Japan
Japan—Africa—Japan Japan—Bombay—Japan
Etc., Etc., Etc.

BRANCH OFFICES

KOBE:	Kogin Building, Nisi-mati, Kobe Telegraphic Address: KOKUSAISEN KOBE
YOKOHAMA:	Sin-ei Building, Hontyo, Yokohama Telegraphic Address: KOKUSAISEN YOKOHAMA
LONDON:	Holland House, Bury Street, London, E. C. 3 Telegraphic Address: KOKUSAISEN LONDON
NEW YORK:	1 Broadway, New York Telegraphic Address: KOKUSAISEN NEWYORK
LOS ANGELES:	490 Chamber of Commerce Building, Los Angeles, Calif. Telegraphic Address: KOKUSAISEN LOSANGELES

Agencies at all Principal Ports in the World

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TEL. ADDRESS:
KURIBAYASI SYOSEN
MURORAN

TEL. ADDRESS:
KURIBAYASI SYOSEN
MARUNOUCHI TOKYO

KURIBAYASI SYOSEN KAISYA

PRESIDENT. T. KURIBAYASI

CAPITAL..... .....¥10,500,000

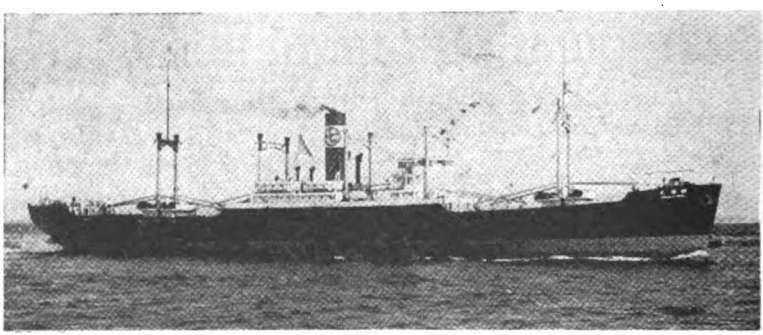
HEAD OFFICE: MURORAN

BRANCH OFFICE: TOKYO, OSAKA, KOBE, JOSIN

22 Vessels with 77,000 GROSS TONNAGE:

Regular Services

Muroran, Kushiro and Karafuto—all important ports of Japan. Hakodate—North Kurile Is., Petropavlovsk



Fleet

"ZUISYO	MARU"	"GOZAN	MARU"
"EISYO	MARU"	"YUBAE	MARU"
"CANADA	MARU"	"HUKI	MARU"
"PANAMA	MARU"	"SINPUKU	MARU"
"TAIRYU	MARU"	"RYUHO	MARU"
"SINGO	MARU"	"SINTO	MARU"
"SUEZ	MARU"	"KOSIN	MARU"
"SINYU	MARU"	"HOKUYO	MARU"
"SINSYO	MARU"	"SIMMEI	MARU"
"TAIEI	MARU"	"HUKUEI	MARU"
"DOVER	MARU"	"SINZUI	MARU"

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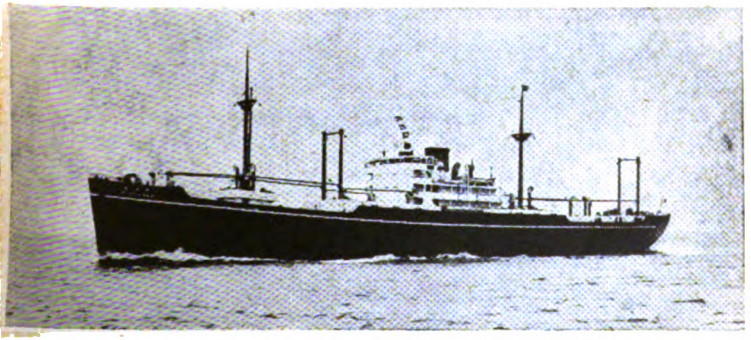
TOYO KISEN KAISHA

(Oriental Steamship Co., Ltd.)

TOKYO, JAPAN

I. TAKAHASHI, *President*



FLEET

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M.V.	"Ryoyo Maru"		S.S.	"Fukuyo Maru"	
M.V.	"Tenyo Maru"		S.S.	"Reiyo Maru"	
M.V.	"Zenyo Maru"		S.S.	"Biyo Maru"	
M.V.	"Keiyo Maru"		S.S.	"Hayo Maru"	
S.S.	"Senyo Maru"		S.S.	"Woyo Maru"	
S.S.	"Manyo Maru"		S.S.	"Juyo Maru"	
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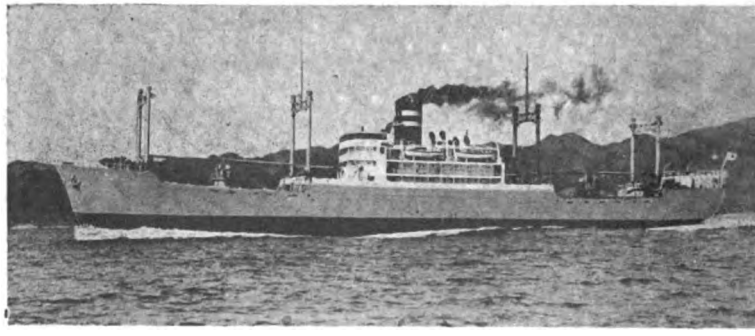

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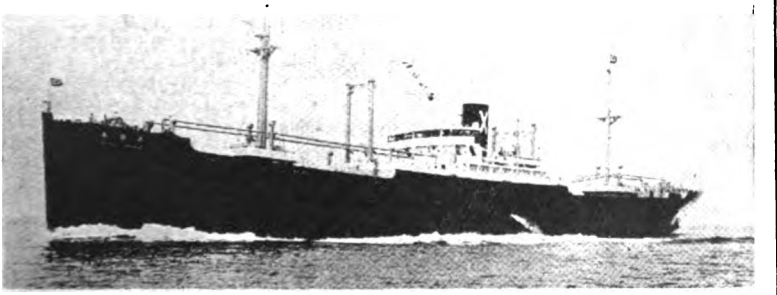

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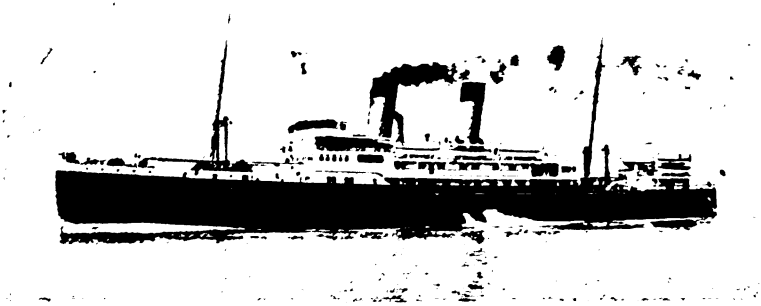

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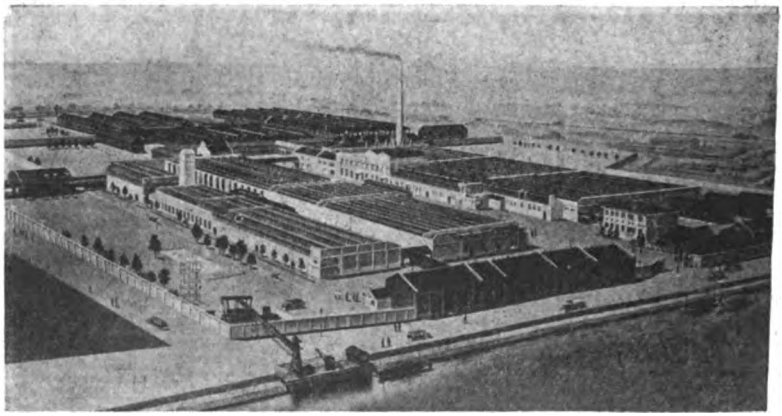

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1939-40

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THE
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Preface

In the compilation of The Japan Year Book, 1939-40, care has been taken to preserve the features which characterized the preceding editions, while adding a new chapter on China. All the chapters have been gone over thoroughly and revised so as to bring the material up to date and to insure greater balance as between the various sections. In this attempt some sections and even chapters have had to be entirely or partially re-written.

Both in selection and classification of material the original plan used in the previous editions of the Year Book has been followed as the most convenient one to present this country as it is before the reader.

The Map of Japan issued with the Year Book has been changed into a combined Map of Japan and Manchoukuo to facilitate reference to places coming under review.

It is with pleasure that the editor acknowledges with thanks the assistance he has received from many friends, especially from officials of the Government, for material used in the compilation of this book.

Tokyo, September, 1939 *The Editor*

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JAPANESE WEIGHTS AND MEASURES

Weights

Kan (Kwan)=1,000 mommé = { 8.26733 lb. (Avoir.) / 10.04711 lb. (Troy) } =3.75000 kilogrammes

Mommé = { 0.13228 oz. (Avoir.) / 0.12057 oz. (Troy) } =3.75000 grammes

Kin=160 mommé = { 1.32277 lb. (Avoir.) / 1.60754 lb. (Troy) } =0.60000 kilogamme

Koku (fish)=40 kan

Metric system,

Kilogramme= 2.20459 pounds (Avoir.)=0.26667 kan
Gramme =15.43210 grains (Avoir.)=0.26667 mommé
Ton =1,000 kilogrammes=2,204.6 pounds
Gross Ton =1,016.064 kilogrammes=2,240 pounds

Measures of Length

Ri=36 cho=2,160 ken =2.44030 miles=3.92727 kilometres
Ken=6 shaku =5.96516 feet=1.81818 metres
Shaku=10 sun =0.99419 foot=0.30303 metre
Shaku (cloth measure)=1.25 shaku
Tan (a roll of cloth) =about 35 shaku

Metric system,

Kilometre=0.62137 mile=3,280 feet 10 inches=9.16667 cho

Measures of Surface

Square ri=1,296 cho=5.95505 sq. miles=15.42347 sq. kilometres
Cho (chobu)=10 tan=3,000 tsubo=2.45064 acres=99.17355 ares
Tsubo (bu)=3.95369 sq. yards=3.30579 centiares
Ko (Formosa)=2,934 tsubo

Metric system,

Hectare=10,000 m²=2.471 acres=1.00833 cho
Are=100 m²=119.6 sq. yards=30.25000 bu
Sq. kilometre=0.386 sq. mile=247.10 acres=0.06484 sq. ri.

Measures of Capacity

Koku=10 to=100 sho=1,000 go= { 4.96005 bushels (U.S.A.) / 5.11902 ,, (U.S.A.) / 47.95389 gallons (U.S.A.) / 39.6804 ,, (British) } =1.80391 hl.

Koku (capacity of vessels)=10th of a ton
Koku (timber) =about 1 cubic foot×10
Shakujimé (timber) =about 1 cubic foot×12
Taba (fagot, etc.) =about 3×6×6 feet

Metric system,

Hectolitre { 2 bush., 3.35 pecks (Dry) / 26.42 gal. (Liquid) } =5.54352 sho

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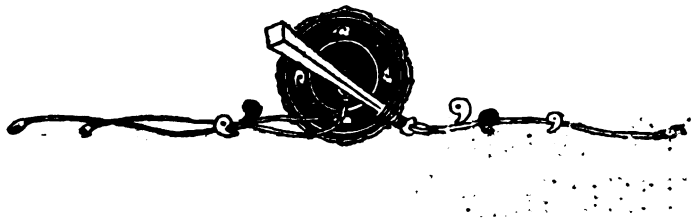

THE IMPERIAL COURT

At the heart of the Japanese nation and at the head of the Japanese State is the Emperor,[1] known to the people as the Tenshi, the Son of Heaven, or Tenno, Heavenly King. Though the ancient title Mikado persists in foreign countries, it has lost currency in Japan itself except in poetry or on very formal occasions.

The Imperial Dynasty of Japan is the oldest reigning family in the world, Japanese history dating its earthly origin from 660 B. C. The present Emperor is the 124th of the line.

H.I.M. THE EMPEROR

His Imperial Majesty HIROHITO, Emperor of Japan, 1st son of the late Emperor Taisho, was born in the Aoyama Palace, Tokyo, on April 29, 1901, and shortly afterwards was entrusted for bringing up to the family of Count Kawamura (Sumiyoshi),[2] a retired Admiral. Upon the Count's death in 1903, the Imperial Prince entered the Imperial Palace, with Marquis Kido (Takamasa) and later Mr. Kinsaku Maruo, chamberlain at the Aoyama Palace, in charge of his affairs. At the age of 7, he entered the elementary department of the Peers' School. In 1912, the year of his father's accession to the Throne, he was appointed Second Lieutenant in the Army and Sublieutenant, 2nd Class in the Navy and decorated with the Grand Cordon of the Chrysanthemum.

On completion of the elementary course in the Peers' School in 1914, he continued the study of various subjects in a special school instituted for the purpose under Admiral Togo. Promotion to the ranks of Lieutenant in the Army and Sublieutenant, 1st Class in the Navy came the same year; to Captain and Lieutenant in 1916, and to Major and Lieutenant-Commander in 1920. Ending his special studies in 1921, His Majesty toured Europe, the first Crown Prince to do so.

Because of the Emperor Taisho's illness, he was appointed Regent on November 25, 1921. Two years later, his ranks in the defence services were raised to those of Lieutenant-Colonel and Commander. Marriage to Princess Nagako took place on January 26, 1924. In 1925, he was promoted to the ranks of Colonel in the Army and Captain in the Navy. On the demise of the Emperor Taisho, December 25, 1926, he succeeded to the Throne, and the new era was named Showa, meaning Light and Peace. Formal enthronement took place in Kyoto on November 10, 1928; and the grand ceremony of making offerings to the Imperial Ancestors was held on November 14 and 15.

H.I.M. THE EMPRESS

Her Imperial Majesty NAGAKO, Empress of Japan, was born on March 6, 1903, 3rd child and 1st daughter of the late Imperial Prince[1] Kuni (Kuniyoshi), in his residence at 1, Roppongi-machi, Azabu-ku, Tokyo. She entered the elementary department of the Peers' School for Girls in April, 1909, and advanced to the higher course in March, 1915. Shortly after becoming Crown Princess-elect on January 17, 1918, she left the Peers' School for Girls and engaged in special study at home. Imperial sanction was given for marriage to the Crown Prince in June of the same year, and their betrothal took place on September 28, 1922. At that time she was decorated with the 1st Order of Merit. She was proclaimed Crown Princess on the day of the marriage,

1 For the powers of the Emperor, see Chapter IV, and Articles I—XVII of the Constitution (Appendix).

2 The personal names of members of the Imperial Family and Peers are parenthesized.

1 Prince (Shinno or O) means Prince of the Blood except when the name is followed by the word Peer in brackets, thus [Peer]. For the difference between Shinno and O see the Imperial House Law, Chapter VII, Art. XXXI (Appendix).

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January 26, 1924, and Empress on December 25, 1926.

H.I.M. THE EMPRESS DOWAGER

Her Imperial Majesty SADAKO, the Empress Dowager, was born on June 25, 1884, 4th daughter of the late Prince Kujo (Michitaka) [Peer]. She entered the Peers' School for Girls in 1890 and advanced to the higher course six years later, leaving in 1899. Her marriage to Crown Prince Yoshihito, later the Emperor Taisho, took place on May 10, 1900. She was proclaimed Crown Princess on that day; Empress on July 30, 1912, and Empress Dowager on December 25, 1926. Her Majesty now resides in the Omiya Palace, Akasaka-ku, Tokyo.

H.I.H. THE CROWN PRINCE

H. I. H. Prince TSUGU (Akihito) was born on December 23, 1933, and is Heir-Apparent.

OTHER CHILDREN OF THE EMPEROR

H. I. H. Princess TERU (Shigéko) was born on December 6, 1925, and entered the elementary department of the Peers' School for Girls in 1932, and advanced to the middle school course in 1936.

H. I. H. Princess TAKA (Kazuko) was born on September 30, 1929, and entered the elementary department of the Peers' School for Girls in 1936.

H. I. H. Princess YORI (Atsuko) was born on March 7, 1931, and entered the elementary department of the Peers' School for Girls in 1937.

H. I. H. Prince YOSHI (Masahito) was born on November 28, 1935.

H. I. H. Princess SUGA (Takako) was born on March 2, 1939.

BROTHERS OF THE EMPEROR

H. I. H. Prince CHICHIBU (Yasuhito), Colonel in the Infantry, was born on June, 25, 1902, 2nd son of the late Emperor Taisho. The name Atsu was given to him at first. In 1909, he entered the Peers' School and on completion of the second year of the middle course in 1917 was enrolled in the Central Military Preparatory School. This course he finished in 1920, when he joined the 3rd Infantry Regiment, Azabu-ku, Tokyo, as a first private. Later in the same year, he entered the Military Academy, completing the regular course in 1922.

On attaining his majority in 1922, he took the name Chichibu and by Imperial order founded a new house. He was decorated with the Supreme Order of the Chrysanthemum in the same year and promoted to the rank of Second Lieutenant, attached to the 3rd Infantry Regiment. After becoming Lieutenant in May, 1925, he went abroad, studying at Oxford University until the illness of the Emperor Taisho compelled his return to Japan in January, 1927. While in England, he was decorated by the late King George V with the Grand Cross of the Royal Victorian Order.

Marriage to Miss Sétsuko Matsudaira, born on September 9, 1909, niece of Viscount Morio Matsudaira and 1st daughter of Mr. Tsunéo Matsudaira (at present Minister of the Imperial Household), took place on September 28, 1928. The Imperial Prince was promoted to the rank of Captain in 1930 and to that of Major in 1935. After a course in the Military Staff College and a term as Company Commander in the 3rd Infantry Regiment, he was attached to the General Staff, then removed to Hirosaki as Battalion Commander in the 31st Infantry Regiment on August 1, 1935. The Prince and Princess left Yokohama on March 18, for London where they represented the Throne at the Coronation of King George VI of Great Britain, which was held on May 12, 1937, and returned to Tokyo on October 15 by way of Canada. He was promoted to the rank of Colonel on August 1, 1939. His residence is at Omotécho, Akasaka-ku, Tokyo.

H. I. H. Prince TAKAMATSU (Nobuhito), Lieutenant-Commander in the Navy, 3rd son of the late Emperor Taisho, was born on January 3, 1905. At first he was named Teru. He entered the Peers' School in 1911 and left in 1920 to enroll in the Naval College. On graduation four years later, he was granted the name of Takamatsu and founded a new house to revive that of the late Imperial Prince Arisugawa, which had become extinct.

In 1925, on appointment as Sublieutenant, 2nd Class in the Navy, he was ordered to take up duties aboard the battleship Fuso. At the same time, he was decorated with the Supreme Order of the Chrysanthemum. Promotion to the rank of Sublieutenant, 1st Class came in 1927.

On February 4, 1930, he married Miss Kikuko Tokugawa, 2nd daughter of the late Prince Tokugawa (Yoshihisa)[Peer], who was born on December 26, 1911. The mother of the Princess was the 1st daughter of the late Imperial Prince Arisugawa, whose house Imperial Prince Takamatsu revived. In April of the same year, the Imperial Prince and his consort started on a tour of the world, partly to return the courtesies shown

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by the late King George V of England in sending a mission to Japan to present the Order of the Garter to the Emperor. They returned to Japan in June, 1931, and took up residence in a new house at Takanawa, Shiba-ku, Tokyo. The Imperial Prince, now a Lieutenant-Commander, is attached to the office of the Naval General Staff.

H. I. H. Prince MIKASA (Takahito), Lieutenant in the Cavalry, 4th son of the late Emperor Taisho, was born on December 2, 1915, and was named Sumi. He entered the Peers' School in 1922 and left it in 1932 to enter the Military Academy. On graduation from the Academy in June, 1936, he was attached to the 15th Cavalry Regiment. On attaining his majority in 1935, he was granted the name of Mikasa and founded a new house. The residence is the Aoyama Higashi Palace located in the grounds of the Aoyama Palace.

OTHER PRINCES

KAN-IN. The present and 6th head of the House is H. I. H. Prince Kan-in (Kotohito), Field Marshal, who was born on November 10, 1865, the 16th son of the late Imperial Prince Fushimi (Kuniié), and adopted in 1867 by the Emperor Komei, the immediate predecessor of the Emperor Meiji. Ordered to France in 1882 for military studies, he remained there until 1891. After participation in the wars with China and Russia, his rise in the Army was rapid, and in 1912 he was appointed General and member of the High Military Council. In 1916, he was ordered to Russia for returning courtesies to the Russian Grand Duke's visit. The Imperial Prince became a Field Marshal in 1919, accompanied the Crown Prince to Europe in 1921 and headed the commission in charge of the Enthronement in 1928. In December, 1931, he was appointed Chief of the General Staff.

His consort, H. I. H. Princess Kan-in (Chiéko), whom he married in 1891, was born on June 20, 1872, 2nd daughter of the late Prince Sanjo (Sanétomi) [Peer].

The heir is H. I. H. Prince Kan-in (Haruhito), Major in the Cavalry, the 2nd son, who was born on August 3, 1902. He was graduated from the Odawara Middle School in 1921, appointed Lieutenant in 1927, promoted to the rank of Captain in 1932 and in the same year, following a course in the Military Staff College, appointed a member of the Directors of the Research Section of the Cavalry School. On July 14, 1928, he married Princess Ichijo (Naoko), 4th daughter of the late Prince Ichijo (Sanétéru) [Peer], who was born on November 7, 1908.

The House of Kan-in was founded in 1718 by Prince Naohito, a son of the Emperor Higashiyama. The residence is at Nagata-cho, Kojimachi-ku, Tokyo.

HIGASHI-FUSHIMI. H. I. H. Princess Higashi-Fushimi (Kanéko), consort of the late Imperial Prince Higashi-Fushimi (Yorihito), was born on August 29, 1876, 1st daughter of the late Prince Iwakura (Tomosada) [Peer]. The residence is at Tokiwamatsu-cho, Shibuya-ku, Tokyo.

FUSHIMI. The 23rd head of the House is H. I. H. Prince Fushimi (Hiroyasu), Admiral of the Fleet, who was born on October 16, 1875, 1st son of the late Imperial Prince Fushimi (Sadanaru). Ordered to Germany in 1889, he studied there for five years. He was appointed Admiral in 1922, a member of the High Military Council in 1925, Chief of the Naval General Staff in February, 1932, and Admiral of the Fleet in April of the same year.

His consort, H. I. H. Princess Fushimi (Tsunéko), was born on September 23, 1882, 9th daughter of the late Prince Tokugawa (Yoshinobu) [Peer]. She died on August 18, 1939.

The 1st son and heir, H. I. H. Prince Fushimi (Hiroyoshi), Captain in the Navy, died on October 18, 1938. His consort Tokiko, 3rd daughter of the late Prince Ichijo (Sanétéru) [Peer], was born on June 20, 1902. Their 1st son H. I. H. Prince Fushimi (Hiroaki), was born on January 26, 1932. Their first daughter, H. I. H. Princess Fushimi (Mitsuko), was born on July 28, 1929. The third daughter, H. I. H. Princess Fushimi (Ayako) was born on February 11, 1934.

The House of Fushimi was founded by a great-grandchild of the Emperor Gofushimi. The residence is at Kioi-cho, Kojimachi-ku, Tokyo.

YAMASHINA. The 3rd head of the House, H. I. H. Prince Yamashina (Takéhiko), Lieutenant-Commander in the Navy (1st reserve service), was born on February 13, 1898, 1st son of the late Prince Yamashina (Kikumaro). He was appointed Sublieutenant, 2nd Class in the Navy in August, 1919, and on July 19, 1922, married Princess Kaya (Sakiko), who died in the great earthquake the following year. His residence is at Fujimi-cho, Kojimachi-ku, Tokyo.

The House of Yamashina was founded in 1864 by the late Prince Yamashina (Akira), 1st son of H. I. H. Prince Fushimi (Kuniié), who had earlier entered the priesthood and taken the name Kanshuji.

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KAYA. The 2nd head of the House, H. I. H. Prince Kaya (Tsunénori), Colonel in the Cavalry, was born on January 27, 1900, 1st son of the founder, the late Prince Kaya (Kuninori). He was appointed Second Lieutenant in the Cavalry in 1920 and is now Colonel and a member of the Faculty of the Staff College. On March 9, 1934, he left Tokyo, with his consort, for a tour round the world and returned to Tokyo on September 18 of the same year.

On May 3, 1921, he married Toshiko, who was born on May 16, 1903, 5th daughter of the late Prince Kujo (Michizané) [Peer]. They have six children: H. I. H. Prince Kaya (Kuninaga), born on April 21, 1922; H. I. H. Prince Kaya (Harunori), born on July 3, 1926; H. I. H. Prince Kaya (Akinori), born on August 17, 1929; H. I. H. Prince Kaya (Fuminori), born on July 12, 1931, H. I. H. Prince Kaya (Munenori), born on November 24, 1935 and H. I. H. Princess Kaya (Michiko), born on July 29, 1923.

H. I. H. Princess Kaya (Yoshiko), consort of the late Imperial Prince Kaya (Kuninori), was born on December 7, 1865, 1st daughter of the late Marquis Daigo (Tadayori).

The House of Kaya was founded in 1892 by the late Prince Kaya (Kuninori), 2nd son of the late Imperial Prince Kuni (Asahiko). The residence is at Sanbancho, Kojimachi-ku, Tokyo.

KUNI. H. I. H. Prince Kuni (Asaakira), Commander in the Navy, 3rd of the line, was born on February 2, 1901, 1st son of the late Imperial Prince Kuni (Kuniyosh). His consort, H. I. H. Princess Kuni (Tomoko), whom he married on January 26, 1925, was born on May 18, 1907, 3rd daughter of H. I. H. Prince Fushimi (Hiroyasu). They have four children: H. I. H. Prince Kuni (Kuniaki), born on March 25, 1929; H. I. H. Princess Kuni (Masako), born on December 8, 1926; H. I. H. Princess Kuni (Asako), born on October 23, 1927; the third daughter, H. I. H. Princess Kuni (Michiko) was born on September 4, 1933; and the fourth daughter H. I. H. Princess Kuni (Hidéko) was born on July 21, 1937.

H. I. H. Princess Kuni (Chikako), consort of the late Imperial Prince Kuni (Kuniyoshi), mother of H. I. M. the Empress, was born on October 19, 1879, 7th daughter of the late Prince Shimazu (Tadayoshi) [Peer].

H. I. H. Princess Kuni (Shizuko), consort of the late Prince Kuni (Taka) was born on September 25, 1884, 1st daughter of the late Viscount Minasé (Takasuké). There are three children: H. I. H. Prince Kuni (Iéhiko), born on March 17, 1920; H. I. H. Prince Kuni (Norihiko), born on November 19, 1922, and H. I. H. Princess Kuni (Kuniko), born on May 18, 1917, and was married to Prince Nijo (Sukemoto) [Peer] on April 2, 1939.

The House of Kuni was founded in 1875 by the late Imperial Prince Kuni (Asahiko), 4th son of the late Imperial Prince Fushimi (Kuniié). The residence is at Miyashiro-cho, Shibuya-ku, Tokyo.

NASHIMOTO. H. I. H. Prince Nashimoto (Morimasa), Field Marshal, and Chief Priest of the Grand Shrines of Isé, was born on March 9, 1874, 4th son of the late Imperial Prince Kuni (Asahiko); ordered to inherit the Nashimotos, December 2, 1885; entered Central Military Preparatory School, 1886; graduated from Military Academy, May 27, 1898; Second Lieutenant, January, 1899; Captain, March 1901; sent to Europe for study, 1903; returned home and immediately sent to the front at the Russo-Japanese War, 1904; again in Europe for study, August, 1906—July, 1909; Lieutenant-General and Commander of the 16th Division, August, 1917; High Military Councillor, November, 1919; General, August, 1923; Field Marshal, August, 8, 1932; appointed Chief Priest of the Grand Shrines of Isé, October, 1937.

His consort, H. I. H. Princess Nashimoto (Itsuko), whom he married on November 28, 1900, was born on February 2, 1882, 2nd daughter of the late Marquis Nabéshima (Naohiro). The residence is at Mitaké-cho, Shibuya-ku, Tokyo.

ASAKA. H. I. H. Prince Asaka (Yasuhiko), General, was born on October 2, 1887, 8th son of the late Imperial Prince Kuni (Asahiko). He founded the House of Asaka in 1906, was appointed Second Lieutenant in the Army in 1908, studied in Europe from 1922 to 1925 and is now a member of the High Military Council. The prince was promoted to the rank of General on August 1, 1939.

There are two children: H. I. H. Prince Asaka (Takahiko), Captain in the Infantry, 1st son, born on October 8, 1912 and married Chikako, 5th daughter of Count Tōdō (Takatsugu) on December 16, 1938; and H. I. H. Princess Asaka (Kiyoko), 2nd daughter, born on August 2, 1919. The residence is at Shirokané Dai-machi, Shiba-ku, Tokyo.

HIGASHI-KUNI. H. I. H. Prince Higashi-Kuni (Naruhiko), General, was born on December 3, 1887, 9th son of the late Imperial Prince Kuni (Asahiko). He founded the House of

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Higashi-Kuni in 1906, was appointed Second Lieutenant in the Infantry in 1908, studied in France from 1920 to 1927, was given command of the 3rd Infantry Regiment of the Imperial Guard Division in 1928, was promoted to command of the Nagoya Brigade in 1930, Commander of the Fourth Division in 1934; High Military Councillor, 1935, Head of the Military Aviation Bureau, 1937, and again High Military Councillor, 1939. The prince was promoted to the rank of General in August, 1939.

H. I. H. Princess Higashi-Kuni (Toshiko), his consort, whom he married on May 18, 1915, was born on May 11, 1896, 9th daughter of the Emperor Meiji. There are three sons: H. I. H. Prince Higashi-Kuni (Morihiro), Lieutenant in the Artillery, 1st son, born on May 6, 1916; H. I. H. Prince Higashi-Kuni (Akitsuné), 3rd son, born on May 13, 1920, and H. I. H. Prince Higashi-Kuni (Toshihiko), 4th son, born on March 24, 1929. The residence is at Ichibéi-cho, Azabu-ku, Tokyo.

KITASHIRAKAWA. H. I. H. Prince Kitashirakawa (Nagahisa), Captain in the Artillery, 4th of the line, was born on February 19, 1910, only son of the late Imperial Prince Kitashirakawa (Naruhisa), who died in Paris in 1923. He is now a student in the Staff College. His consort, H. I. H. Princess Sachiko, whom he married on April 26, 1935, was born on August 26, 1916, second daughter of Baron Yoshikuni Tokugawa. H. I. H. Prince Kitashirakawa (Michihisa), their first son, was born on May 2, 1937.

H. I. H. Princess Kitashirakawa (Fusako), consort of the late Prince Kitashirakawa (Naruhisa), 3rd of the line, was born on January 28, 1890, 7th daughter of the Emperor Meiji. One of her three daughters remains in the House: H. I. H. Princess Kitashirakawa (Taéko), 3rd daughter, born on April 15, 1920.

The House of Kitashirakawa was founded in 1870 by the late Imperial Prince Kitashirakawa (Tomonari), 8th son of the late Imperial Prince Fushimi (Kuniié). The residence is at Takanawa Minami-cho, Shiba-ku, Tokyo.

TAKEDA. H. I. H. Prince Takéda (Tsunéyoshi), Captain in the Cavalry, 2nd of the line, was born on March 4, 1909, only son of the late Imperial Prince Takéda (Tsunéhisa). He married Miss Mitsuko, 2nd daughter of Prince Sanjo (Kintéru) [Peer], on May 12, 1934.

H. I. H. Princess Takéda (Masako), consort of the late Imperial Prince Takéda (Tsunéhisa), was born on September 30, 1888, 6th daughter of the Emperor Meiji.

The House of Takéda was founded in 1906 by Prince Takéda (Tsunéhisa), 1st son of the late Prince Kitashirakawa (Yoshihisa). The residence is at Takanawa Minami-cho, Shiba-ku, Tokyo.

Korean Royalty

Treatment equal to that accorded members of the Imperial House is given to members of the Royal House of Chosen, and a Civil List of ¥1,800,000 for their maintenance is included in the budget of the Chosen Government-General.

H. H. Prince RI (Gin), Major-General in the Infantry, head of the House of Shotoku-kyu since the death in 1926 of his brother, Prince Ri (Séki), former Emperor, was born on October 20, 1897, 7th son of the late Grand Prince Ri (Kei). He studied at the Peers' School in Tokyo and the Military Academy in preparation for a military career. He was promoted to the rank of Major-General on July 15, 1938, and appointed Commander of the Second Infantry Guard Brigade, Imperial Guard Division, on August 1, 1939.

H. H. Princess Ri (Masako), whom the Prince married in 1920, was born on November 4, 1901, 1st daughter of H. I. H. Prince Nashimoto (Morimasa). On promotion to the rank of Captain in 1923, the Prince was attached for a time to the Headquarters of the General Staff and in 1927-28 he and Princess Ri made a year's tour of Europe. They have a son Ri (Kyu) who was born on December 29, 1931.

H. H. Princess In, consort of the late Prince Ri (Séki), was born on September 19, 1894, 1st daughter of Marquis In Taku-éi.

In Keijo, the capital of Chosen, the residence of this branch of the Royal House of Chosen is the Garyudo, and in Tokyo its residence is at Kioi-cho, Kojimachi-ku.

H. H. Prince RI (Ken), Captain in the Cavalry, heir of the retired Prince Ri (Ko), was born on October 28, 1909. On graduation from the Military Academy in 1930, he was appointed Lieutenant in the Cavalry, and was promoted to the rank of Captain on August 1, 1936. He was appointed Commander of the 2nd Infantry Regiment, Imperial Guard Division on December 10, 1938.

H. H. Princess RI (Yoshiko), whom Prince Ri (Ken) married in 1931, was born on October 6, 1911, 1st daughter of Captain Yutaka Matsudaira, of the Navy. Their first son, Ri (Chu), was

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born on August 14, 1932, second son Ri (Ki) was born on March 4, 1935, and the first daughter Ri (Haruko) was born on December 19, 1938.

H. H. Prince Ri (Ko), 5th son of the late Grand Prince Ri (Kei), father of Prince Ri (Ken), was born on March 30, 1877. His consort, H. H. Princess Kin, whom he married in 1893, was born on December 22, 1880, 1st daughter of the late Baron Kin Shi-éi.

H. H. Prince Ri (Gu), Captain in the Artillery, 2nd son of Prince Ri (Ko), was born on November 15, 1912, and in 1917 was made successor to the late Prince Ri (Shun), who had died heirless.

H. H. Princess Ri (Sanshu), whom Prince Ri (Gu) married on May 3, 1935, was born on November 11, 1914, granddaughter of Marquis Boku-Ei-ko. They have one child Prince Ri (Sei) who was born on April 23, 1936.

H. H. Princess Ri, consort of the late Prince Ri (Ki), was born on July 10, 1883.

H. H. Princess Kin, consort of the late Prince Ri (Shun), was born on July 8, 1878, 1st daughter of Kin Zai-tei.

Former Princes

In accordance with the Imperial Household Law, Princes of the Imperial Family may be created peers, either by order of the Emperor or at their own wishes, with family names to be granted by the Emperor. The following table shows those living who have renounced membership in the Imperial Family :

Name	Princely Father	Year of Change
Marquis Komatsu (Téruhisa)	Late Kitashirakawa (Yoshihisa)	1910
Marquis Yamashina (Yoshimaro)	,, Yamashina (Kikumaro)	1920
Marquis Kwacho (Hironobu)	Fushimi (Hiroyasu)	1926
Marquis Tsukuba (Fujimaro)	Late Yamashina (Kikumaro)	1928
Count Katsuragi (Shigémaro)	,, ,, ,,	1929
Count Higashi-Fushimi (Kunihidé)	,, Kuni (Kuniyoshi)	1931
Marquis Otowa (Tadahiko)	Asaka (Yasuhiko)	1936
Count Fushimi (Hirohidé)	Fushimi (Hiroyasu)	1936

Former Princesses

The following table shows Princesses of the Imperial Family and the Royal House of Chosen who have married into the families of Peers :

Name	Princely Father	Consort	Year of Marriage
Ayako	Late Kuni (Asahiko)	Late Viscount Takénouchi (Korétada)	1892
Éiko	,, ,, ,,	Viscount Higashizono (Motoharu)	1899
Teiko	,, Fushimi (Sadanaru)	Marquis Yama-uchi (Toyokagé)	1901
Sadako	,, Kitashirakawa (Yoshihisa)	Count Arima (Yoriyasu)	1903
Mitsuko	,, ,, ,,	Count Kanroji (Osanaga)	1904
Suzuko	,, Kuni (Asahiko)	Count Mibu (Motoyoshi)	1906
Takéko	,, Kitashirakawa (Yoshihisa)	Viscount Hoshina (Masaaki)	1911
Shigéko	Kan-in (Kotohito)	Kuroda (Nagamichi), heir of Marquis	1914
Yukiko	Late Kaya (Kuninori)	Machijiri (Kazumoto), heir of Viscount	1915
Hiroko	,, Kitashirakawa (Yoshihisa)	Count Futara (Yoshinori)	1915
Yukiko	Kan-in (Kotohito)	Viscount Ando (Nobuaki)	1915
Yasuko	Late Yamashina (Kikumaro)	Asano (Nagatakė), heir of Marquis	1920
Satoko	,, Kuni (Kuniyoshi)	Count Otani (Kocho)	1924
Nobuko	,, ,, ,,	Sanjo-nishi (Kin-osa), heir of Viscount	1924
Noriko	Nashimoto (Morimasa)	Count Hirohashi (Tadamitsu)	1926
Hanako	Kan-in (Kotohito)	Marquis Kwacho (Hironobu)	1926
Tokukei	Late Ri (Kei)	Count So (Takéyuki)	1931
Kikuko	Asaka (Yasuhiko)	Nabéshima (Naoyasu), heir of Marquis	1931
Minéko	Late Kitashirakawa (Naruhisa)	Tachibana (Tanékatsu), heir of Viscount	1933
Ayako	,, Takéda (Tsunéhisa)	Sano (Tsunémitsu) heir of Count	1934
Sawako	,, Kitashirakawa (Naruhisa)	Viscount Higashizono (Motobumi)	1935
Kuniko	,, Kuni (Taka)	Prince Nijo (Sukemoto)	1939

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Palaces, Gardens, etc.

Imperial Palace The residence of the Emperor covers an area of about 531 acres in Kojimachi-ku, Tokyo. Originally built in 1457 by a provincial general, Dokan Ota, who named it Yédo Castle, it became the headquarters of the Tokugawa Shogunate in the 16th century and was greatly extended. With the transfer of the capital from Kyoto to Tokyo in 1869, the second year of the Meiji Restoration, it was selected as the Imperial Residence and renamed Tokyo Castle. Much of it was destroyed in the great fire of 1873. The present palace, built between 1880 and 1888, cost ¥3,968,000. On completion, the name was changed to Kyujo, or Imperial Palace.

Other Palaces (1) Kyoto Palace. Situated in Kamikyo-ku, Kyoto it was the Imperial Residence for 1,075 years, from 794 A. D., when the capital was moved from Nara to Kyoto, until 1869, when the seat of government was transferred to Tokyo. In accordance with the Accession Law, the ceremony of ascension to the Throne is always held here. The grounds cover about 229 acres.

(2) Aoyama Palace. Situated in Akasaka-ku, Tokyo, the palace was formerly the residence of the Lord of Tamba, but in 1873 the late Empress Dowager Eisho made it her home. Within its grounds is the residence of the Imperial Prince Mikasa.

(3) Omiya Palace. Also within the grounds of the Aoyama Palace, it is the residence of the Empress Dowager, mother of the reigning Emperor.

(4) Shinjuku Imperial Garden. At Naito-Shinjuku-machi, Yotsuya-ku, Tokyo, the garden was originally the site of the residence of the Lord of the Takato, Shinano, but in 1879 it came under the control of the Imperial Household Department and in 1906 was given its present name. Here are held the spring and autumn Imperial garden parties.

(5) Akasaka Detached Palace. On part of the former property of the Lord of Kii, in Akasaka-ku, Tokyo, it was made a detached palace in 1872 and became a temporary residence of the Imperial Family from 1873 to 1889 during the construction of the present Imperial palace. Royal and princely visitors from abroad are guests here while in Tokyo.

(6) Hama Detached Palace. Situated in Tsukiji, Kyobashi-ku, Tokyo, its grounds were used by the Shoguns in feudal times for falconry and are now the scene of Imperial duck-hunting parties.

(7) Kasumigaséki Detached Palace. Formerly the residence of the late Imperial Prince Arisugawa, it is located behind the Foreign Office in Kojimachi-ku, Tokyo.

(8) Nijo Detached Palace. Originally Nijo Castle, in Nakagyo-ku, Kyoto, it was made a detached palace in 1884.

(9) Katsura Detached Palace. Located at Katsura, Ukyo-ku, Kyoto, it was formerly the residence of Prince Katsura [Katsura-no-miya] and became a detached palace in 1883.

(10) Shugakuin Detached Palace. Widely known for its beautiful garden, it was built by the Tokugawa Shogunate in the reign of the Emperor Gomizunoo at what is now Shugakuin, Sakyo-ku, Kyoto, and was made a detached palace in 1883.

(11) Hakoné Detached Palace. On Lake Ashi in the Hakoné region, it was seriously damaged in the 1923 earthquake and has been left unrepaired.

(12) Muko Detached Palace. At Suma, Kobé, it became a detached palace in 1908.

(13) Hayama Imperial Villa. Because of its proximity to Tokyo, at Hayama-machi, Kanagawa prefecture, it is a favourite retreat, especially in the winter. Here the Emperor Taisho died in 1926.

(14) Taté-ishi Rest-House. It is located at Nishiura-mura, Miuragun, Kanagawa prefecture.

(15) Numazu Imperial Villa. The palace is at Agehara-machi, Numazu, on Suruga Bay, Shizuoka prefecture.

(16) Nikko Imperial Villa. Nikko-machi, Tochigi prefecture, is the location.

(17) Tamozawa Imperial Villa. This also is at Nikko-machi, Tochigi prefecture.

(18) Shiobara Imperial Villa. The palace is at Shiobara-machi, Tochigi prefecture, a district noted for its maples.

(19) Ikao Imperial Estate. This estate or preserve is at Ikao-machi, a mountain resort in Gumma prefecture.

(20) Nasu Imperial Villa. Mountain views are the main attraction of Nasumura, Nasu-gun, Tochigi prefecture, where the palace is situated.

(21) Nagara River Preserve. This preserve for ayu lies in Gujo-gun, Mugi-gun and Inaba-gun, Gifu prefecture.

(22) Yédo River Preserve. There are two parts, one in Higashi-Katsushika-gun, Chiba prefecture, and the other in Minami-Saitama-gun and Kita-Katsushika-gun, Saitama prefecture. The preserve abounds in water-hens, herons, snipes, quails, white swans, wild geese,

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ducks, plovers, pheasants, water-rails, etc.

(23) Jintsu River Preserve. This preserve for trout, salmon and other fish is located in Nei-gun and Kami-Niikawa-gun, Toyama prefecture.

In 1930, the Nagoya Detached Palace was donated to Nagoya city; and the Odawara Imperial Villa and Shizuoka Imperial Villa were abolished, part of the latter being granted to Shizuoka city. In 1931, the Atami Imperial Villa and Kamakura Imperial Villa were abolished and the former was sold to the city of Atami.

Miyanoshita Imperial Villa was abolished, December, 1933, and given to H. I. H. Imperial Prince Takamatsu.

Imperial Household Finance

The Civil List is appropriated by the National Treasury and no approval of the Diet is necessary except when an increase in it is required. At present, it amounts to ¥4,500,000. The Board of Imperial Auditors is located in the Imperial Household Department and its present Director-General is Mr. Michio Kinoshita. Prince Saionji, Baron Ikki and Count Makino are financial advisers to the Imperial Household.

The total Imperial Household expenditure is estimated at approximately ¥20,000,000 annually and is met by the Civil List, and by receipts from the Imperial forests, Imperial estates and other Imperial property.

The Naidaijin-fu

The Naidaijin, Grand Keeper of the Imperial Seals, who has been so called from olden times, is a dignitary of the Imperial Household with the function of keeping the Imperial and State Seals and of administering matters regarding Imperial decrees and documents of the Imperial Household. He is a State functionary of the Shinnin rank, or one appointed directly by the Emperor, and is assisted by three secretaries in the execution of his duty.

Present Grand Keeper of the Imperial Seals is Mr. Kurahéi Yuasa.

The Imperial Household Department

The Imperial Household Department is divided into eleven principal subsidiary offices, namely, the Secretariat of the Minister, the Board of Chamberlains, the Board of Ceremonies, the Imperial Family and Peerage Board, the Imperial Mausolea Bureau, the Imperial Archives Bureau, the Court Physicians Bureau, the Bureau of the Imperial Table, the Imperial Treasury Bureau, the Maintenance and Works Bureau, and the Imperial Stables Bureau, and is charged with the conduct of affairs pertaining to the Imperial Household. There are, in addition to those above mentioned, such other institutions as follows coming under the supervision of the Minister of the Imperial Household:

The Office of H. I. M. the Empress' Household,
The Office of H. I. M. the Empress Dowager's Household,
The Board of the Imperial Auditors,
The Imperial Forests and Estates Board,
The Imperial Poetry Bureau,
The Imperial Museums (at Tokyo and Nara),
The Peers' School,
The Peers' School for Girls,
The Temporary Board for the Compilation of the History of the Emperor Meiji.
The Kyoto Office of the Imperial Household.

Since 1884, it has been placed outside the pale of the administrative system, so that the Minister is in no way affected by any Cabinet change.

The present and preceding Ministers of the Imperial Household Department are:

Name	Time of Appointment
Late Prince Hirobumi Ito	Dec., 1885
Late Marquis Hisamoto Hijikata	Sept., 1887
Viscount Mitsuaki Tanaka	Feb., 1898
Late Prince Tomosada Iwakura	June, 1909
Viscount Chiaki Watanabé	April, 1910
Baron Takatada Hatano	April, 1914
Late Baron Yujiro Nakamura	June, 1920
Count Nobuaki Makino	Feb., 1921
Baron Kitokuro Ikki	Mar., 1925
Kurahéi Yuasa	Mar., 1933
Tsunéo Matsudaira	Mar., 1936

The Peerage

The modern system of the Peerage, with its five grades of Prince, Marquis, Count, Viscount and Baron, dates from 1884, but prior to this there was a well-established aristocracy. Up to the time of the Meiji Restoration, there were two groups, the Court Nobles, called Kugé, most of whom were descendants of younger sons of Emperors, and the Feudal Lords, called Daimyo or Tonosama, most of whom had attained their standing through military prowess. With the Restoration, these were amalgamated

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under the name of Kwazoku (Peerage), meaning the "Flowers of the Nation". In 1884, an Imperial edict was issued establishing the five grades of the present Peerage, and to the members of the Kwazoku were added subjects who had assisted in the work of the Restoration. In the first list there were 11 Princes, 24 Marquises, 76 Counts, 376 Viscounts and 382 Barons.

When Chosen was annexed in 1910, 67 Koreans of distinction were selected to become Peers, 6 Marquises, 3 Counts, 22 Viscounts and 45 Barons.

The families of the Peerage stood as follows on June 30, 1938:

Grade	Number of Families.	Korean Peers
Prince	19	—
Marquis	41	7
Count	109	3
Viscount	376	17
Baron	408	32
Total	953	59

Decorations

To recognize and reward persons who render distinguished and meritorious service to the State, orders of merit and decorations were created in 1875 and supplemented in later years. The orders of merit, of which there are nine—the Grand Order and numerical orders from 1st to 8th—are only nominal and serve to indicate the class of decoration to which a holder is entitled. The decorations themselves are of 9 kinds:

Supreme Order of the Chrysanthemum There are two kinds, the Collar of the Supreme Order of the Chrysanthemum and the Grand Cordon of the Supreme Order of the Chrysanthemum, both reserved for those given the Grand Order of Merit. The first, the highest Japanese decoration, is a gold chain or collar from which is hung a small badge representing a chrysanthemum, to which is fastened a large sunburst flanked with chrysanthemum flowers and leaves. The second is marked by the same badges, but worn at the left hip at the bottom of a cordon or ribbon of red with purple edges hung from the right shoulder.

Rising Sun and Paulownia This is a single decoration, combining the devices of two lesser orders, known as the Grand Cordon of the Imperial Order of the Rising Sun with Paulownia Flowers which is awarded only to holders of the 1st Class Order of Merit. From a cordon of red with two white stripes, worn over the right shoulder and resting on the left hip, are suspended a small badge showing paulownia flowers and leaves and a larger badge, below it, of a double-rayed rising sun flanked with paulownia flowers.

Rising Sun There are six classes, from the Grand Cordon of the Rising Sun, to which holders of the 1st Class Order of Merit are eligible, to the 6th Class Order of the Rising Sun, which holders of the 6th Class Order of Merit may receive.

Paulownia Two classes exist, sometimes referred to as the 7th and 8th classes of the Order of the Rising Sun. The Order of the Blue Paulownia is for holders of the 7th Order of Merit, and the Order of the White Paulownia for holders of the 8th Class Order of Merit.

Sacred Treasure Known as the Imperial Order of the Sacred Treasure. Of this order there are eight classes. The badge represents the Mirror and Gem of the Imperial Regalia, and the cordon is of light blue with two orange stripes.

Precious Crown Its full name is the Imperial Order of the Precious Crown. The eight classes of this order are bestowed on women only, who were barred from receiving any other decoration until 1919, when they were also made eligible for the Order of the Sacred Treasure. The badge shows the Precious Crown, with cherry blossoms and bamboo, and the cordon is of yellow with two scarlet stripes.

Golden Kite Purely a military order, known as the Imperial Military Order of the Golden Kite, this has seven classes. The cordon is green with two white stripes. It carries a life annuity, fixed in 1916 at ¥1,500 for the 1st Class; ¥1,000, 2nd Class; ¥700, 3rd Class; ¥500, 4th Class; ¥350, 5th Class; ¥250, 6th Class, and ¥150, 7th Class. This is granted to the family for one year following the recipient's death, and, if he has died within five years of being decorated, until the end of that period.

Holders of any decorations who are sentenced to death, penal servitude or imprisonment for more than three years are deprived of decorations, accompanying diplomas and, if any, annuities. They may also be ordered to surrender them if guilty of acts of dishonour, depending on the circumstances.

Cultural Decoration Creation of the cultural order to be awarded to those who have made outstanding contributions to science, arts, literature or other fields of culture was announced on February 11, 1937. There are no grades

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or classes in the decoration. The devise consists of three replicas of the Sacred Jewels, symbolizing philanthropy and virtue, placed in the centre of a white tachibana blossom, (a kind of mandarin orange, Citrus tachibana Tanaka), and the decoration is suspended from a light purple ribbon worn around the collar.

Medals of Honour The Medal with Red Riband is conferred on persons who risk their lives in rescuing others; the Medal with Green Riband on those who distinguish themselves for filial piety, feminine virtues, devotion to the aged and loyalty to masters; the Medal with Blue Riband on those who aid public and private undertakings by important discoveries or inventions; the Medal with Dark Navy Blue Riband on those who contribute money or property for public welfare; and the Medal with Yellow Riband, divided into two classes, gold and silver, on persons who help undertakings connected with coast defence. Cups of gold or wood or monetary gifts are sometimes granted simultaneously to the recipients.

Court Rank

Court rank is specially conferred on persons who distinguish themselves in service to the State, peers and their heirs, officials and army and navy officers. There are 16 grades, from the senior grade of the first rank to the junior grade of the eighth rank, and all affairs pertaining to them are administered by the Imperial Family and Peerage Board in the Imperial Household Department in accordance with the Court Rank Act, promulgated in 1926.

There were 282,257 holders of Court rank at the end of 1937, divided as follows:

	Senior	Junior
First	—	—
Second	28	76
Third	492	880
Fourth	2,032	5,127
Fifth	10,105	13,754
Sixth	16,740	21,191
Seventh	40,490	71,577
Eighth	97,688	2,077

Stick Granted to the Aged

In the 12th century, Toshinari Fujiwara, a Court noble, was granted on the celebration of his 90th birthday a stick for use at Court by the Emperor Gotoba. This honour, known as Kyuchuzué or Hatozué because the stick has a pigeon top, is today bestowed on Court dignitaries and officials and officers of high rank who have attained the age of 80 in recognition of signal service to the Court and the State, though it is marked by a monetary gift in lieu of an actual stick. Living holders follow:

Prince Saionji (Kimmochi)
Count Kiyoura (Kéigo)
Baron Kuratomi (Yuzaburo)
Viscount Kanéko (Kentaro)
Viscount Ishiguro (Tadanori)
Baron Yamamoto (Tatsuo)
Mr. Ikunosuké Fujisawa
Baron Kojiro Uchiyama
General Goro Shiba

Court Artists

For the promotion and encouragement of fine arts, representative artists are chosen by a special committee in the Court and their appointment as Court artists is made by the Minister of the Imperial Household. The artists may produce objects of art for the Court or present opinions upon Imperial enquiries on questions pertaining to arts. The present Court artists are as follows:

Sculptor	Choun Yamazaki
Painters	Séiho Takéuchi
	Gyokudo Kawai
	Taikan Yokoyama
	Yukihiko Yasuda
	Kansétsu Hashimoto
	Kéigétsu Kikuchi
	Éisaku Wada
	Saburosuké Okada
	Takéji Fujishima
Metal Carver	Kamézo Shimizu
Metal Worker	Shushin Katori
Ceramist	Hazan Itaya

State Funerals

There had been no special provision for the State Funeral for honoured personages, although it had been held several times since the 16th year of Meiji, or 1883. The Government, however, issued the State Funeral Ordinance as an Imperial Order in 1926. According to the Ordinance, the State Funeral is held with distinguished rituals, its expenses being borne by the National Treasury. There are two kinds of State Funeral, i.e. the one for Imperial Personages and the other for the subjects. The former is still divided into two; the first one is called the Grand Funeral and is for the Emperor, the Empress Dowager, the Empress Dowager and the Empress, while the second one is called the Imperial Funeral and is

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for the Crown Prince, the Crown Princess, the Emperor's grandson and his consort, the Regent Imperial Prince or Emperor's daughters or children. Both the Grand and Imperial Funerals are held under special ritual according to the Provisions of the Imperial House Funeral Ordinance.

The State Funeral for the subjects is held in honour of those who contributed distinguished services to the country by the special order of the Emperor and the ritual and order of the Funeral is fixed by the Premier with the Imperial sanction.

State Funerals have been accorded to the following since the beginning of the Meiji Era :

Okubo (Toshimichi)	1869
Prince Iwakura (Tomomi) [Peer]	1883
Prince Shimazu (Hisamitsu) [Peer]	1887
Prince Sanjo (Sanétomi) [Peer]	1891
Prince Arisugawa (Taruhito)	1895
Prince Kitashirakawa (Yoshihisa)	1895
Prince Mori (Motonori) [Peer]	1896
Prince Shimazu (Tadayoshi) [Peer]	1897
Prince Komatsu (Akihiko)	1903
Prince Ito (Hirobumi) [Peer]	1909
Prince Arisugawa (Takéhito)	1913
Prince Oyama (Iwao) [Peer]	1916
Grand Prince Ri (Kei)	1919
Prince Yamagata (Aritomo) [Peer]	1922
Prince Fushimi (Sadanaru)	1923
Marquis Matsukata (Masayoshi)	1924
Prince Ri (Séki)	1926
Marquis Togo (Héihachiro)	1934

Imperial Interest in Social Work

On various occasions of great importance in the Imperial Household, grants of money are made from the Privy Purse for social welfare, instances of which follow :

Year	Occasion	Purpose or Recipient	Amount in Yen
1897	Empress Dowager Eisho's Funeral	—Charity	400,000
1912	Emperor Meiji's Funeral	—Charity	1,000,000
1914	Empress Dowager Shoken's Funeral	—Charity	600,000
1915	Emperor Taisho's Enthronement	—Charity	1,000,000
1924	Prince Regent's Wedding	—Promotion of social works	1,000,000
	,,	—Encouragement for the poor to send children to school	1,000,000
1925	Emperor Taisho's Silver Wedding	—Young Men's and Women's Ass'ns	750,000
	,,	—Cultural bodies in the Colonies	250,000
1927	Emperor Taisho's Funeral	—Charity	1,500,000
1928	Demise of Princess Hisa, the Emperor's daughter	—Protection of the young	50,000
1929	Emperor's Enthronement	—Charity	1,500,000
1934	Birth of the Crown Prince, Akihito	—Protection of mothers and the young	750,000

Since 1879, it has been the custom of the Imperial House to make monetary contributions when there are floods, fires, railway accidents, violent winds, shipwrecks, earthquakes, famines, volcanic eruptions, mine explosions, etc. Immediately after the great earthquake and fire of 1923, a grant of ¥10,000,000 was made for relief.

A fund of ¥1,500,000 in 1911 for extension of medical treatment to the poor was used to found the Saiséi-kai, the Imperial Charity Association, which continues active today. Additional money for this work was included in the grant of ¥3,000,000 in 1932 for relief of the poor, and it was extended to the Colonies by a grant of ¥300,000 to the Overseas Ministry.

With the ¥1,000,000 granted on the occasion of the wedding of the present Emperor, Viscount Kiyoura, Premier at the time, established the Kéifuku-kai, Beatitude Association, for promotion of social work done by private bodies. On every Kigénsétsu, the anniversary of the foundation of the country, which takes place on February 11, Imperial grants are made directly to public and private social welfare organizations. At first limited to such organizations as the Japan Red Cross Society, the Women's Patriotic Association, the Imperial Association for the Support of Soldiers, the Salvation Army, the Fukuden-kai (Charity Association) Orphanage and the Tokyo Asylum, these grants have been greatly increased since 1921 and now go even to superior private bodies in Chosen, Taiwan, Karafuto, the Kwantung Leased Territory and the South Sea Islands. In 1939, the number of the recipients of the Imperial donation reached 807 organizations, the money amounting to about ¥200,000.

In 1932, a grant of ¥1,500,000 was made

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to the Association for the Promotion of Learning through the Education Minister.

Since the days of the Emperor Meiji, it has been customary for the Emperor, while travelling in the provinces to supervise the grand military and naval manoeuvres or on observation tours, to send representatives to various welfare organizations to present money or other gifts.

Also since the beginning of the Meiji Era, the Emperor, the Empress, the Empress Dowager and the Imperial Princes and Princesses have frequently visited charity hospitals, schools for the blind and dumb and other social welfare institutions. Many such organizations have Princes and Princesses of the Blood as presidents. The present Empress Dowager is particularly interested in the relief of lepers and in 1930 granted funds to all bodies engaged in this work.

In April, 1939, H. I. M. the Empress granted funds to the sum of ¥500,000 for the prevention of tuberculosis and the treatment of the patients.

Court Rituals

GRAND RITUALS. The Grand Rituals are those conducted by the Emperor personally, with Princes and Princesses of the Blood, Court dignitaries and officials and officers of high rank in attendance. Brief descriptions follow :

Genshisai, the celebration of the auspicious origin of the Imperial Throne at the beginning of the year, is performed on January 3 by the Emperor at the Three Shrines in the grounds of the Imperial Palace, the Kashikodokoro, where the Sacred Mirror is installed, the Koréiden, the shrine of the Imperial Ancestors, and the Shinden, the sanctuary of Shinto deities.

Kigénsétsusai, to celebrate the ascension to the Throne of the Emperor Jimmu, is performed by the Emperor at the Three Shrines on February 11. In the evening sacred music and dances are given in a pavilion in front of the Koréiden.

Shunki-Koréisai, for the worship of preceding Emperors and Empresses and Princes and Princesses of Imperial lineage, takes place in the Koréiden on the day of the vernal equinox.

Shunki-Shindensai, performed on the same day in the Shinden, is to offer thanks to the Gods of Heaven and Earth for their blessings and to petition for their continuance.

Jimmu-Tennosai, which takes place in the Koreiden, marks the anniversary of the demise of the founder of the country, the Emperor Jimmu, on April 3. To his mausoleum is dispatched on the same day a Court official representing the Emperor to make offerings. At fixed intervals, the Emperor personally conducts the rite at the mausoleum.

Shûki-Koréisai and Shûki-Shindensai are identical in form and purpose with the vernal equinox rituals but take place on the day of the autumn equinox.

Kannamé-no-Matsuri, the ritual of offering thanks for the harvest and new rice to the soul of the Imperial Ancestress, Amaterasu-Omikami, which takes place in the Grand Shrines of Isé on October 16 and 17, is duplicated in the Kashiko-dokoro at the Imperial Palace on October 17.

Niinamé-no-Matsuri, conducted between November 23 and 24, is marked by the Emperor partaking of new rice after offering it to the Imperial Ancestress, Amaterasu-Omikami, and all the Gods of Heaven and Earth. The same ritual, when performed at the Emperor's enthronement, is called Daijo-sai.

Taisho-Tennosai marks the anniversary of the demise of the Emperor Taisho, the Emperor's father, and is celebrated in the Koreiden on December 25. In the evening, sacred music and dances are performed in a pavilion in front of the shrine. A court official representing the Emperor is sent on the same day to the mausoleum of the Emperor Taisho to make offerings, a rite which the Emperor himself performs at fixed intervals.

ORDINARY RITUALS. These are Court rituals which the Emperor does not conduct personally, but which he attends with the Princes and Princesses of the Blood, Court dignitaries and officials and officers of high rank.

Saitansai, held at dawn on January 1 at the Three Shrines, is for worship of the Imperial Ancestors and the Gods, offering thanks to them for the grace of Heaven and supplicating for its continuance.

Koméi-Tennosai marks the anniversary of the demise of the Emperor Komei, great-grandfather of the Emperor, and is held in the Koreiden on January 30. The rite of presenting offerings at his mausoleum is performed on the same day.

Kinensai, held on February 17 in the Three Shrines is the ritual of praying for a bountiful harvest and for the continued prosperity and well-being of the Imperial House and the nation. A Court official representing the Emperor is dispatched on the same day to the Grand Shrines of Isé to make offerings,

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and offerings are also presented at various other shrines.

Ninko-Tennosai, marking the anniversary of the demise of the Emperor Ninko, great-great-grandfather of the Emperor, is performed on February 21 in the Koreiden. Offerings are made and a ritual conducted at his mausoleum on the same day.

Tenchōsétsusai, held in the Three Shrines on April 29, the birthday of the Emperor, is the ritual of praying for the longevity of His Majesty.

Meiji-Tennosai is observed in the Koreiden on July 30 to mark the anniversary of the demise of the Emperor Meiji, grandfather of the Emperor. Offerings are made and a ritual performed at his mausoleum on the same day.

Meijisétsusai is held on November 3 to praise the great achievements of the Emperor Meiji, to remember his high virtues, to invigorate and develop the spirit of the national revival in the Meiji Era and to pray for increased national prosperity.

Kashikodokoro-Mikagura, a sacred dance, is held in the Kashikodokoro in the middle of December. As no definite date is fixed, an auspicious day is named every year by Imperial order.

OTHER RITUALS. The Imperial Court also observes several rituals not specified in the Court Ritual Act :

Shunsai, Tenth-day Ceremony, is held on the 1st, 11th and 21st of every month except January 1, the Emperor observes the ceremony for the Gods more elaborately than on the usual days.

Futsukasai and Mikkasai are performed on January 2 and 3, with the New Year's Day Ceremony. These are observed with specially elaborate rituals.

Joyasai, New Year's Eve Ceremony. At the end of the year the Emperor gives thanks to the Gods for their benevolence throughout the year and prays for blessings in the coming year.

Yo-ori, the rite for purification of the person of the Emperor, is held in the Phoenix Hall of the Imperial Palace on June 30 and December 31.

O-harai, held on the same days as Yo-ori, is a similar rite for the purification of all officials and officers from sins committed unconsciously.

SPECIAL CEREMONIES. Two special ceremonies at the Imperial Court are worthy of note :

Kosho-Hajimé, or the ceremony of delivering lectures in the Court at the beginning of the New Year, takes place in the presence of the Emperor and Empress, Princes and Princesses of the Blood and Court dignitaries in the Phoenix Hall. Usually three lecturers are chosen, with three others held in reserve, from the nation's most erudite scholars of Japanese classics, Chinese classics and Western learning to lecture on subjects related to their specialties.

Utakai-Hajimé, or the Imperial New Year Poetry Party, is usually held in the middle of January in the presence of the Emperor and Empress, Princes and Princesses of the Blood and high Court dignitaries. Though long in existence, it became one of the most important annual ceremonies in 1869. A few months in advance, the Imperial Household Minister announces the theme for the waka, or tanka, poems of 31 syllables, to be submitted. For the honour of having a poem read in the ceremony, anyone may compete. In addition to those by subjects, poems by the Emperor and Empress and other members of the Imperial Family are read.

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CHAPTER I

GEOGRAPHY

Position and Extent

The Japanese Empire, wholly within the Asiatic half of the North Pacific, consists of Japan proper and various colonies. At the time of the Meiji Restoration, 1868, there were the four large continental islands of Honshu, or Hondo, usually known as the Mainland, Kyushu, Shikoku and Hokkaido, or Yezo, and 4,068 adjacent islands of smaller size. Russia ceded the long chain of islands called the Chishima, or the Kuriles, in 1875. The Ogasawara-jima, or Bonin Islands, were formally annexed in 1877, and the Ryukyu, or Loochoo Islands, in 1879, though both groups had been earlier under Japanese control. All these areas today constitute Japan proper.

The Colonies The first colony, Taiwan, or Formosa, with the adjacent islands called the Bokoto, or Pescadores, was ceded by China in 1895 following the Sino-Japanese War. The Russo-Japanese War brought Karafuto, or the southern half of the island of Saghalien, and, in Manchuria, the Kwantung Leased Territory and the South Manchuria Railway Zone. Chosen or Korea, was annexed in 1910. The mandated Caroline, Mariana and Marshall Islands, former German possessions in the South Seas, were received by Japan at the Versailles Peace Conference, 1919. With the exception of the Aleutians, the northern half of Saghalien, the Philippines, North Borneo, Hawaii and a few small scattered islands, including Guam, the Empire spreads over all the islands in the Pacific north of the equator.

The most northern part of the Empire, the island of Araito in the Chishima, touches 50° 55′ N. Lat. The southern extreme is in the mandated Caroline Islands, 1° 01′ N. Lat. To the west, the Bokoto extend to 119° 18′ E. Long., and to the east, the mandated Marshall Islands reach 172° 10′ E. Long.

Length and Width If the South Sea Islands, the Kwantung Leased Territory the South Manchuria Railway Zone and the continental peninsula of Chosen are omitted, the Empire is a semi-circle of islands extending in latitude from 21° 45′ N. to 50° 55′ N., approximately 3,380 kilometres, and in longitude from 119° 18′ E. to 156° 30′ E., with a maximum width of about 320 kilometres.

Area

The Home Ministry's revised investigation puts the total area of the Empire at the end of 1936, at 681,323.30 square kilometres, distributed as shown in the following table :

	Area in sq. km.
Grand Total	**681,323.30**
Japan proper	382,545.42
Honshu	230,532.32
Shikoku	18,772.83
Kyushu	42,078.99
Hokkaido	88,775.04
Ryukyu	2,386.24
Chosen	220,794.34
Taiwan	35,834.35
Bokoto	126.86
Karafuto	36,090.30
Kwantung Leased Territory	3,462.45
South Sea Mandated Islands	2,148.80
S. M. R. Zone	320.78

Of 675,391.27 square kilometres, exclusive of the three territories last named, Japan proper occupies 56.6 per cent of the total area, while Chosen occupies 32.6 per cent, Taiwan 5.3 per cent, and Karafuto 5.3 per cent each.

The area of each prefecture in Japan proper arranged in the order of size follows :

AREA OF PREFECTURES
(In sq. km.)

			%
1.	Hokkaido	88,775.04	23.2
2.	Iwaté	15,235.31	4.0
3.	Fukushima	13,781.61	3.6
4.	Nagano	13,626.13	3.6
5.	Niigata	12,578.05	3.3
6.	Akita	11,663.86	3.0
7.	Gifu	10,494.70	2.7
8.	Aomori	9,630.92	2.5
9.	Yamagata	9,325.76	2.4
10.	Kagoshima	9,103.81	2.4
11.	Hiroshima	8,436.52	2.2
12.	Hyogo	8,322.85	2.2
13.	Shizuoka	7,769.91	2.0
14.	Miyazaki	7,738.85	2.0
15.	Kumamoto	7,437.75	1.9
16.	Miyagi	7,273.75	1.9

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			%
17.	Kochi	7,103.62	1.8
18.	Okayama	7,046.48	1.8
19.	Shimané	6,624.60	1.7
20.	Tochigi	6,436.59	1.7
21.	Gumma	6,335.87	1.7
22.	Oita	6,333.87	1.7
23.	Ibaraki	6,090.99	1.6
24.	Yamaguchi	6,082.11	1.6
25.	Mié	5,765.28	1.5
26.	Ehimé	5,667.26	1.5
27.	Aichi	5,081.14	1.3
28.	Chiba	5,062.09	1.3
29.	Fukuoka	4,939.70	1.3
30.	Wakayama	4,723.48	1.2
31.	Kyoto	4,621.20	1.2
32.	Yamanashi	4,465.87	1.2
33.	Fukui	4,264.48	1.1
34.	Toyama	4,257.42	1.1
35.	Ishikawa	4,192.42	1.1
36.	Tokushima	4,143.22	1.1
37.	Nagasaki	4,075.98	1.1
38.	Shiga	4,050.93	1.0
39.	Saitama	3,802.68	1.0
40.	Nara	3,688.60	1.0
41.	Tottori	3,489.48	0.9
42.	Saga	2,449.03	0.6
43.	Okinawa	2,386.24	0.6
44.	Kanagawa	2,352.81	0.6
45.	Tokyo	2,144.80	0.6
46.	Kagawa	1,858.73	0.5
47.	Osaka	1,813.63	0.5
	Total	382,545.42	100.0

Geological Formation

The Japanese islands lie at the east end of the Eurasia Continent, spreading more than 3,800 kilometres on the Pacific. They are arranged in the form of a festoon or a breakwater for the Continent against the Pacific waves. The numerous islands may be divided into four groups or bows: the Nippon Bow, the Chishima Bow, the Ryukyu Bow and the Ogasawara or Bonin Bow. The Nippon Bow is composed of the Main Island and the small islands around it. The Main Island itself draws an arc, its convex surface projecting into the Pacific and its concave surface facing the Japan Sea, because the whole Nippon Bow was pushed out to the ocean by a mountain-making process from the side of the Japan Sea. The Nippon Bow again is composed of two mountain systems, with the Fuji volcanic range as the dividing line: they are the Northern range, or the Karafuto mountain system, and the Southern range, or the Kwenlun mountain system.

Recent excavations seem to show that it almost impossible to find the oldest rocks in the formation of the Japanese Islands, but it was formerly assumed that gneiss and crystalline schist, which belong to the oldest geological eras, were found in Japan.

Gneiss Distribution Gneiss is distributed mostly in the Nippon Bow and Chosen and cannot be found in the Ryukyu and the Chishima Bows. It runs through the centre of the southern half of the Nippon Bow, while in the northern half it may be found in the plateau of Abukuma. In Chosen it is spread over a wide area. Crystalline schist runs generally along the outside of the gneiss system. In the southern part of the Nippon Bow, it starts at the Akaishi range and runs through the Kii range to Shikoku, where it develops in a wide area, taking the place of gneiss; then it crosses the strait to Kyushu and sinks under the Aso volcanic chain to appear again at Nagasaki. In Taiwan it forms the eastern part of the Taiwan mountain range. In the northern half of the Nippon Bow, it appears in the Kanto range and may be found in the Ezo mountain system of Hokkaido and in Karafuto.

Palæozoic Layer The Japanese palæozoic layer is largely aqueous rock, composed mainly of slate, sandstone, silica stone, limestone, grit stone and graywacke, with a compound of such igneous stones as granite and diorite. It is widely distributed and has much to do with the geological formation of Japan. But at the Palæozoic Era the Japanese land lay deep in the waters and did not treasure up coal as did the Palæozoic layer of the Continent. The oldest stratum of the Main Island which has been proved with a fossil is the Carboniferous layer, and any decision on older layers must remain uncertain until similar proof is available. The Palæozoic layer forms the bones of the big mountain ranges developing at the circumference of the Archæan stratum of the southern part of the Nippon Bow and is distributed in the Akaishi, Kii, Shikoku and Kyushu mountain ranges. Traces are also visible in the Hida range, Hida plateau, Tamba plateau, Chugoku range and Tsukushi range. In the northern half, it runs through the Kanto, Ashio, Hachimizo, Abukuma and Kitakami ranges to the Ezo range and Karafuto. It can also be seen in Taiwan and Chosen in wide areas.

Mesozoic Stratum The Mesozoic stratum of Japan is composed of stones similar to those of the earlier stratum. Fossils are sufficiently numerous to assure the era in which it was formed. It appears in the Kii range, the southern

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part of Shikoku, the Kyushu range and the Taiwan range. In Chosen, it is found in the Keisho district. In the Chugoku district, the western part of the Main Island, it comes to the surface, leading to the belief that the plains of this district were formed in this era.

Neozoic Stratum The Neozoic stratum is composed mainly of aqueous rock and volcanic stones. In this era, the transformation of land and sea was incessant, and volcanic activities were most vigorous, creating most of the present volcanic chains. Through the tertiary and quaternary periods, andesite and basalt were emitted in great volume. Most of the coalfields, oil-fields and metal mines of Japan were formed in the tertiary period. In the diluvial day of the quaternary period, volcanic explosions followed one after another, and the hills by the rivers and the higher plains of the Kanto took their present form. In the alluvial, or the most recent day of the same era, the lowest and the newest stratum at rivers, lakes and the sea shore, or sand-banks and sand hills, came into existnce. According to the investigation of the Geological Research Office, the areas of rocks of different geological eras in Japan proper are as follows :

	Sq. km.	%
Archæan stratum	14,189	3.50
Palæozoic ,,	53,149	12.74
Mesozoic ,,	29,844	7.15
Neozoic ,,	196,079	49.87
Tertiary vomitted rocks	44,157	10.58
Quaternary ,, ,,	79,970	19.16
Total	417,388	100.00

Block Movements According to this investigation, two-thirds of the land is of the Neozoic stratum, showing that Japan must have been upheaved upon the surface of the sea in the most recent geological era, and the large volume of vomitted rocks speaks of violent volcanic activities.

In the Palæozoic Era, the islands were all hidden under shallow waters. Even the Hida and Akaishi mountain peaks, which form the ridge of the Mainland, are composed of the sediment on the sea-bottom in those days. At the end of this era, the highest mountain ranges began to expose their heads above the waters. It was a golden age for the Mollusca and fishes, the Amphibia coming to existence at the end of it. In the vegetable kingdom, Cryptogams grew in great forests which disappeared with the end of the era.

At the Jurassic period of the Mesozoic Era, China and most of Chosen appeared upon the surface of the sea, but the land of Japan was still covered with waters, except for the great mountain ranges, which began to show their complete figures. It was the age in which the cycad, the gingko and the Coniferæ grew in abundance and toward the end of which the latifoliate trees came into existence. In the animal kingdom, the reptiles made great progress, and queer gigantic animals lived everywhere in the sea, in the air and on the land.

When the Neozoic Era dawned, Japan became a stage of great block movements of earth, and it was severed from the continent, taking the form of a chain of countless islands. The present location was assumed, although the northern part was a little later than the southern half. The line which connects the islands runs from south to north because the pressure of the block movement was from west to east. As the movements gradually ceased and the dividing lines of land and sea became stationary, the present animals and vegetables began to grow, and finally primitive men appeared.

Relationship with Continent The close connection of the islands with the Continent is supported by considerable evidence. It is asserted by most scholars that they are continental islands, which are usually located near a continent, from which they were severed in the latest geological era. It is clear that the mountain ranges of Japan have a close connection with the Kwenlun mountain system. The north range of the Chinese mountains, after sinking into the sea, appears again in the northern part of Kyushu and reaches the central part of the Main Island, running through the Chugoku district, and the eastern end of the China mountain system reappears in southern Kyushu, from where it reaches to the Akaishi range through Shikoku Island and Kii province. It is also known that the sea between the Japanese Islands and the Continent is but 200 metres deep at the maximum from Taiwan to Chosen. That is, if the waters fell by this distance, the East China Sea, the Yellow Sea and the Gulf of Chihli would be dried up, and Kyushu, Shikoku, the Mainland, Hokkaido and Karafuto would be connected by land. In a sharp comparison, the sea to the east and south of the islands suddenly becomes as deep as 4,000 metres and even more in some places. These facts prove that the Japanese Islands were once a part of the Continent of Asia.

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Japanese animals belong to those species which are included in the old northern division in the animal distribution of the world, and Japanese plants have very close relations with those on the Continent of Asia and are quite different from those of the American Continent. Finally, paleontology gives us proof in fossil teeth of the elephant. In the layers which belong to the tertiary period or the diluvial day of the quaternary period, these fossils are often found, and some are of the same kind as those excavated in the southern districts of China. We may thus conclude that the Islands of Japan were connected with the Continent of Asia in a prehistoric but comparatively new geological era.

Natural Features

The mountains of Japan are divided into two great systems, one to the north and the other to the south. The Karafuto system, framing Northern Japan, is composed of the Yezo, Kitakami, Abukuma, Kanto and Echigo ranges, arranged from north to south, roughly speaking. Southern Japan is framed by two branches of the Kwenlun system, which has its origin in China. One branch first appears in the northern part of Kyushu as the Tsukushi range and then runs to the east, forming the Chugoku range, the Tamba plateau, the Hida plateau and the Kiso range. The other branch appears in the southern part of Kyushu, forming the Kyushu range, from which it runs east, becoming the Shikoku, Kii, Suzuka and Akaishi ranges.

Japanese mountains have characteristic fine creases, cut by the rainfall, which is specially heavy in this country. The Kyushu, Shikoku and Akaishi ranges were formed by the creasing process; such mountains as Fuji, Nasu, Chokai and Kirishima resulted from volcanic activities, and the Kongo, Kasagi, Suzuka and Mahiru mountain ranges were born in dislocative earthquakes. As for age, the mountains of the Chugoku and Abukuma ranges, with their dull curves, are the oldest; the Shikoku range, the Japan Alps and the Ohu range, or the range in the northeastern Mainland, are rugged and young, and the plains of the Kanto district and Gifu and Aichi prefectures are very young. The combination of these mountains and plains of diverse ages is peculiar to Japan.

Volcanic chains According to the Geological Research Office, the total number of volcanoes in Japan is 192, of which 58 are active. They may be grouped in 11 chains:

(1) The north Japan inner, or Chokai, volcanic chain, which starts at the southwestern offing of Hokkaido, or O-shima and Ko-jima, and runs through Iwaki-yama, Kampuzan, Moriyoshi-yama Chokai-san, ending with Gatsusan.

(2) The south Japan inner, or Hakusan, volcanic chain, extending from Hakusan along the Japan Sea to the west through Daisen, Mitsubé-yama, Aono-yama and other smaller volcanoes and then to the Goto Islands of Kyushu.

(3) The Hokkaido volcanic chain, which links such mountains as Hakodaté-yama, Komaga-daké, Tarumayé-daké and some islands in the peninsular part of western Hokkaido.

(4) The north Japan central, or Nasu, volcanic chain, including Osoré-yama, Hakkoda-san, Towada Lake, Iwaté-yama, Komaga-daké, Kurigoma, Numasawa, Arao, Funagata, Za-oh, Bantai, Azuma, Adatara, Nasu, Nantai, Shirané, Akagi, Haruna, Tsuno-otoshi and Arafuna, which are mostly active volcanoes.

(5) The Hida volcanic chain, composed of the seven volcanoes of Heradaké, Taté-yama, Ko-tombi, Washibadaké, Iwo-daké, Norikura-daké and On-také.

(6) The Mikasa volcanic chain, to the west of the Hida volcanic chain, beginning with Horaiji-san, of Aichi prefecture, and running westward to O-hara-yama, Mikasa-yama, Miminari-yama, Futakami-san and Kabuto-yama of Hyogo prefecture.

(7) The Seto, or Inland Sea, volcanic chain, embracing the old volcanic mountains along the coasts of the Inland Sea and extending to Kyushu, including such mountains as Futako, Kokonoyé, Yufu, Onsen and Tara. The volcanoes are all dormant.

(8) The Ryukyu volcanic chain, starting with the Aso volcano, taking in Kirishima, Sakurajima and Kaimon and extending to the Ryukyu Islands, where it connects Iwojima, Kuchino-Irabé-jima, Kuchinosé, Nakano-jima, Suwanosé, Waruiwa-jima, Tori-shima and Aguni-shima.

(9) The amphibolite andesite volcanic chain, which connects Aono-yama of Shimané prefecture and Tokusa of Yamaguchi, appears then in Kinpo-zan and Shiguma-daké near Tokuyama, and Himé-jima of Suo; meets with the Inland Sea chain and runs to Yufu, Kokonoé and a part of Aso, and extends as far as Luzon Island, sinking to the bottom of the ocean west of the Ryukyu Islands on the way and then running along the eastern coast of Taiwan.

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(10) The Fuji volcanic chain, which cuts across the heart of the Main Island from the coast of the Japan Sea to that of the Pacific Ocean, and continues to the Izu, Bonin, Sulphur, Mariana and Caroline Islands, including such mountains as Myoko, Togakushi-yama, Tateshina-yama, Yatsuga-daké, Fuji-san, Hakoné and Amagi on the Main Island.

(11) The Chishima volcanic chain, which comes into Hokkaido from the Chishima, runs along the Ézo mountain system, suddenly turns to the north and seems to disappear in Karafuto.

The Japanese volcanic mountains are composed of four kinds of rocks : pyroxene andesite, amphibolite andesite, bronzite andesite and basalt. Fuji, Iwaki, Chokai, Gatsu-san, Nasu, Hakkoda, Iwaté, Bantai, Akagi and Haruna are of pyroxene andesite. In southern Japan, the Kirishima volcanic range is composed of the same rock, which is, indeed, the most widely distributed in the Japanese volcanoes. Amphibolite andesite is discovered in the mountains which belong to the inner volcanic chains—Hakusan, Dai-sen and Mitsubé-yama. It shows itself in Taté-yama, Norikura and Ontaké also, but is most evident in the Kyushu volcanoes. Bronzite andesite is limited to the district of Kinki, near Osaka, and the volcanic mountains and islands in and along the Inland Sea. Basalt is distributed in Chugoku and the northern Kyushu districts, exposing itself at the Basalt Cave of Toyooka, Hyogo prefecture, Ōné-shima, Hamada, Hagi, the Aburatani Gulf and Fukué of the Goto Islands.

Seas and Coast-line

With the exception of the northern frontiers of Chosen and Karafuto, every part of the Empire is surrounded by water. To the east is the Pacific, washing the Chishima, Hokkaido, Honshu, Shikoku, Kyushu, the Ryukyu, Taiwan and the mandated islands north of the equator. Between the Chishima and Karafuto is the Sea of Okhotsk, and between Karafuto and the continent the Gulf of Tartary, known to the Japanese as the Mamiya Straits. The Sea of Japan lies between Honshu and the eastern shore of Chosen. To the west of Chosen is the Yellow Sea, or Hwanghai, opening into the Eastern China Sea, or Tunghai, which touches Kyushu, the Ryukyu and Taiwan. Purely Japanese is the famous Inland Sea, enclosed by Honshu, Shikoku and Kyushu.

The Depths The greatest depth yet discovered in these surrounding seas is 9,439 metres, sounded by the warship Manshu in 1926 between Honshu and Ogasawara Is. 30° 49′ N. Lat. and 142° 18′ E. Long. Previously the record was the 8,517 metres of the Tuscarora Deep, named for the American warship which made a survey in 1874, sometimes called the Kurile-Japanese Trench, which lies along the Chishima for about 644 kilometres. The other seas are shallower than the Pacific. The Sea of Okhotsk, which is estimated to have an area of 1,527,007.73 square kilometres, has a mean depth of 838 metres. The Sea of Japan, estimated to extend over 1,007,307.41 square kilometres, has a maximum depth of 3,440 metres and a mean depth of 1,350 metres. The Eastern China Sea, except near the Ryukyu and Taiwan, is less deep. With a length of about 354 kilometres and a maximum width of 77 kilometres, the Inland Sea covers 3,430.43 square kilometres and reaches its greatest depth at 124 metres.

The Currents Two ocean currents with important climatic effects are the Kuroshio, meaning black current, which sailors know as the Japan stream, and the Oyashio, meaning main current, which foreigners often call the Kurile stream. The first is warm and the second cold. Arising from the North Equatorial Current north of the Philippines, the Kuroshio flows along the eastern side of Taiwan and the southern islands of the Ryukyu to about 26° N. Lat., where it splits, the main part moving to the eastern coasts of Kyushu, Shikoku and Honshu and then bearing eastward past the Aleutian Islands to the North American coast, and the offshoot flowing to the west of Kyushu and into the Sea of Japan. Varying in width from 160 to 805 kilometres, depending on the position and the season of the year, it is usually from 5° to 15° C. warmer than the rest of the ocean. The Oyashio originates in the Arctic, washes the eastern shores of the Chishima, Hokkaido and Honshu, meeting the Kuroshio at Kinkazan. From the Sea of Okhotsk, another cold current enters the Sea of Japan through the Gulf of Tartary and flows along the Chosen Coast.

Tides Tides in the Japanese Empire show wide variation. High on the shores of the Yellow Sea and the Eastern China Sea, they reach from 10.4 to 10.7 metres at Jinsen, or Chemulpo, Chosen, and 5.5 metres at Miiké, Omuta, on Tsukushi Bay, Kyushu, but in the Sea of Japan they average little more than 0.6 metre. Along the Sea of Okhotsk, they range from 1.2 to 1.5 metres ; along the Pacific coast, from

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1.9 to 2.7 metres, and in the Inland Sea, from 1.8 to 4 metres.

Coast-line The coast-line is exceptionally long, being 52,231.787 kilometres for the whole Empire, exclusive of the Kwantung L. T. and the mandated South Sea Islands. For Japan proper, it is 30,605.458 kilometres, which means a kilometre to every 12.43 square kilometres of area, and for Chosen 18,203.726 kilometres, a kilometre to every 12.12 square kilometres. The shores of the Sea of Japan are comparatively regular, but those on the Pacific are indented with a large number of gulfs, bays and inlets, many of which afford excellent anchorages. Japan proper has more than 1,400 harbours, about half of which are utilized for trading. The best harbours of Chosen are on the Yellow Sea and the Chosen Channel. Hokkaido, Karafuto and Taiwan are less fortunate in capacious shelters for ships.

Mountains

In Japan proper, there are 250 mountains with peaks higher than 2,000 metres above sea level, the highest being the celebrated Mount Fuji, which lifts its white cap sublimely 3,773 metres above the beautiful Suruga Gulf. Chosen has 51 and Formosa 130 mountains in the same category, but the latter has five peaks higher than Mount Fuji, Niitaka-yama being the highest mountain in the Japanese Empire with its height of 3,950 metres. The highest mountains in Japan proper are converged in the central part of the Main Island in the prefectures of Nagano, Toyama, Yamanashi, Shizuoka and Gifu, but there are, of course, many other mountains famous geographically and historically in other parts of the country.

MOUNTAINS

(Above 2,500 metres)

Name	Location	Height (m.)
Japan Proper		
Fuji	Shizuoka	3,773
Kita	Yamanashi	3,192
Manodaké	Shizuoka	3,189
Yarigadaké	Nagano	3,180
Akaishi	Nagano	3,120
Okuhotaka	Nagano	3,103
Higashimata	Nagano	3,095
Shirané	Nagano	3,093
Ontaké	Nagano	3,093
Hotaka	Nagano	3,090
Arakawa	Shizuoka	3,083
Shiomi	Shizuoka	3,047
Senjo	Yamanashi	3,033
Minamidaké	Nagano	3,032
Kitahotaka	Gifu	3,032
Nootori	Shizuoka	3,026
Norikura	Gifu	3,026
Hijiri	Shizuoka	3,011
Tsurugi	Toyama	2,998
Tatéyama	Toyama	2,992
Suisho	Toyama	2,977
Komagadaké	Yamanashi	2,966
Marishiten	Gifu	2,959
Shirouma	Toyama	2,933
Yakushi	Toyama	2,926
Goro	Toyama	2,924
Mae-Hotaka	Gifu	2,908
Yari	Toyama	2,903
Akadaké	Nagano	2,900
Kasa	Gifu	2,897
Kashima-Yari	Toyama	2,890
Wakaréyama	Toyama	2,885
Mitsudaké	Nagano	2,873
Jodo	Toyama	2,872
Mamaoya	Gifu	2,868
Komori	Shizuoka	2,865
Akaushi	Toyama	2,864
Karaki	Nagano	2,864
Rengé	Nagano	2,860
Sugoroku	Nagano	2,860
Mamako	Gifu	2,858
Misawa	Nagano	2,846
Minami	Nagano	2,842
Ho-o	Yamanashi	2,841
Washiwa	Toyama	2,841
Nakanomata	Toyama	2,840
Nakadaké	Toyama	2,839
Subari	Nagano	2,838
Mitsumata	Nagano	2,835
Yoko	Nagano	2,830
Misumi	Nagano	2,830
Masago	Nagano	2,826
Ébisu	Gifu	2,823
Osawa	Shizuoka	2,819
Nukido	Gifu	2,812
Kogochi	Nagano	2,805
Kamikochi	Nagano	2,803
Rengé	Toyama	2,799
Choko	Yamanashi	2,799
Onidaké	Nagano	2,799
Asahi	Nagano	2,786
Gongen	Nagano	2,786
Takaminé	Yamanashi	2,779
Rengé	Niigata	2,769
Akaiwa	Nagano	2,769
Tsubakuro	Nagano	2,763
Yakushi	Yamanashi	2,762
Jonen	Nagano	2,757
Tatésawa	Nagano	2,754
Yotsutaké	Gifu	2,744
Iwo	Nagano	2,742
Shogigashira	Nagano	2,727
Kotaro	Yamanashi	2,725
Kiso	Nagano	2,721
Minamimasago	Nagano	2,710

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Name	Location	Height (m.)
Akazawa	Nagano	2,706
Hoéisan	Shizuoka	2,702
Shiasan	Nagano	2,700
Kitaarakawa	Shizuoka	2,698
Jijii	Nagano	2,697
Karamatsu	Nagano	2,696
Narusawa	Nagano	2,667
Chogataké	Nagano	2,664
Kitanomata	Toyama	2,661
Kamigataké	Toyama	2,661
Kitami	Nagano	2,658
Iwagoyazawa	Nagano	2,657
Néishi	Nagano	2,646
Karasawa	Nagano	2,632
Hakusan	Ishikawa	2,631
Zarugataké	Shizuoka	2,629
Gakidaké	Nagano	2,627
Minamizawa	Nagano	2,625
Washitaké	Toyama	2,625
Éboshitaké	Nagano	2,621
Fudosan	Nagano	2,621
Senninyama	Toyama	2,617
Tobiyama	Toyama	2,614
Otakiyama	Nagano	2,614
Koéhyaku	Nagano	2,613
Yukikura	Toyama	2,611
Nokogiri	Nagano	2,605
Dainichi	Toyama	2,605
Chausu	Nagano	2,600
Kimpo	Yamanashi	2,599
Fudo	Toyama	2,595
Kokushi	Yamanashi	2,592
Hikari	Nagano	2,591
Tsuji	Yamanashi	2,585
Shirané	Tochigi	2,577
Nagabéi	Nagano	2,565
Okaramatsu	Yamanashi	2,555
Itotake	Nagano	2,554
Nanakura	Nagano	2,550
Asama	Gumma	2,542
Kurohi	Nagano	2,540
Tatéshina	Nagano	2,530
Ushikubi	Toyama	2,527
Amikasa	Yamanashi	2,524
Nittadaké	Shizuoka	2,524
Maékaké	Nagano	2,520
Kohikagé	Nagano	2,505
Minoto	Nagano	2,500
Chosen		
Hakuto	Kankyonando	2,744
Kanbo-san	Kankyohokudo	2,541
Hokusuihaku	Kankyonando	2,522
Shonichi	Kankyonando	2,506
Taiwan		
Niitaka	Taichushu	3,950
Tsugitaka	Taichushu	3,931
Shukoan	Karenkocho	3,833
Maboras	Taichushu	3,806
Nankotaizan	Karenkocho	3,797
Chuosenzan	Karenkocho	3,715

Name	Location	Height (m.)
Kanzan	Kantocho	3,667
Taisuikutsu	Taichushu	3,645
Kiraishuzan	Karenkocho	3,605
Tōguntaisan	Taichushu	3,605
Daisétsu	Taichushu	3,600
Taihasenzan	Shinchikushu	3,573
Sétsupō	Takaoshu	3,569
Takushatai	Taichushu	3,488
Tōrantaizan	Taichushu	3,465
Gōkanzan	Taichushu	3,394
Nangyoku	Takaoshu	3,391
To-zan	Shinchikushu	3,390
Shinkan	Karenkocho	3,381
Hitsuroku	Karenkocho	3,379
Tantaizan	Karenkocho	3,371
Hakkotaizan	Taichushu	3,349
Nansoto	Karenkocho	3,333
Nōkōzannanpō	Karenkocho	3,333
Pinanshuzan	Takaoshu	3,305
Kantakumanzan	Taichushu	3,304
Kashipanan	Karenkocho	3,294
Guntaizan	Taichushu	3,292
Tarokotaizan	Karenkocho	3,292
Koséki	Takaoshu	3,255
Nōkō	Karenkocho	3,252
Byobu	Karenkocho	3,234
Taibu	Taitocho	3,232
Senzan	Karenkocho	3,222
Batotsunofu	Taihokushu	3,221
Hainotonan	Taitocho	3,175
Mabiisan	Taihokushu	3,167
Hakuséki	Karenkocho	3,138
Wanoshin	Takaoshu	3,132
Antogun	Karenkocho	3,089
Rantaizan	Taichushu	3,076
Kanmon	Karenkocho	3,052
Taisékiko	Karenkocho	3,048
Kosétsu	Taichushu	3,043
Bokyo	Taichushu	3,028
Unsui	Kantocho	3,010
Burakusan	Kantocho	2,992
Ronbutan	Karenkocho	2,948
Sékisui	Tainanshu	2,895
Kokolbo	Karenkocho	2,883
Héigan	Taichushu	2,879
Sékisan	Takaoshu	2,877
Sentogan	Takaoshu	2,862
Rokurin	Taichushu	2,859
Hattsuséki	Taichushu	2,841
Manmen	Takaoshu	2,840
Nantaibu	Kantocho	2,831
Muto	Takaoshu	2,822
Toho	Taichushu	2,809
Surabatan	Takaoshu	2,747
Kinajii	Shinchikushu	2,713
Sékisan	Taichushu	2,694
Sansui	Karenkocho	2,692
Rokujotai	Shinchikushu	2,684
Taito	Taichushu	2,663
Takai	Taihokushu	2,657
Kéinan	Takaoshu	2,642

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Name	Location	Height (m.)
Sui	Tainanshu	2,627
Futako	Karenkocho	2,577
Kodama	Tainanshu	2,568
Rinparapara	Takaoshu	2,555
Matsuyama	Taichushu	2,551
Gunko	Taichushu	2,532
Tozan	Tainanshu	2,520
Mubéyama	Karenkocho	2,514
Shukusan	Taichushu	2,504

OTHER FAMOUS MOUNTAINS

(Below 2,500 m.)

Ohu district	
Osoré-yama[1]	700
Iwaki-yama	1,625
Hakkoda-yama	1,585
Moriyoshi-yama	1,454
Iwaté-yama	2,041
Komaga-také	1,637
Chokai-san	2,230
Gassan	1,924
Zao-san	1,841
Funagata-yama	1,500
Azuma-san	2,024
Adachitaro-yama	1,700
Bandai-san	1,819
Otakiné-yama	1,193
Kanto district	
Nasu-san	1,917
Taishaku-san	2,060
Nantai-san	2,484
Akagi-san	1,828
Haruna-san	1,448
Myogi-san	1,104
Mikuni-yama	1,828
Kobushi-také	2,483
Tanzawa-yama	1,567
Hakoné-yama	1,439
Nokogiri-yama	329
Tsukuba-yama	876
Kinki district (Kyoto, Osaka)	
Oé-yama	833
Ibuki-yama	1,377
Hira-také	1,174
Kurama-yama	670
Hiéi-san	848
Atago-yama	924
Rokko-san	932
Ikoma-yama	642
Kongo-san	1,112
Sanjo-také	1,720
Odaigahara-san	1,695
Shaka-také	1,800
Koya-san	985
Chugoku district	
Kori-yama	1,510
Daisen	1,713
Kanmuri-yama	1,339
Aono-yama	908
Shikoku Island	
Tsurugi-yama	1,955
Sasaga-miné	1,860
Ishizuchi-yama	1,921
Onigashiro-yama	1,142
Kyushu district	
Tsurumi-yama	1,375
Yufu-také	1,584
Tara-také	983
Aso-san	1,592
Unzen	1,360
Shiraga-yama	1,417
Sakurajima-také	1,118
Kaimon-také	924
Yaé-yama	1,935

[1] Yama, také, daké, san, zan, miné, and sen suffixed all mean "mountain"

Rivers

The Empire is abundantly watered by numerous rivers, usually wide where they empty into the sea, but comparatively short in course and not navigable for many miles inland except by flat-bottomed craft. During the summer rainy season and when the mountain snows melt in the spring, torrents rush down them, often overflowing and causing damage; during the rest of the year, they dwindle to narrow and shallow streams. If of little use for transportation, they serve as reservoirs from which water is drawn for irrigation and increasingly as sources of electric power.

Total available hydro-electric power of rivers in Japan proper is estimated at 14,090,000 h.p., the power actually developed by the end of 1934 was about 4,348,862 h.p.

The major rivers, with navigable length, follow:

Honshu	Length in Km.	Navigable Length in Km.
Shinano	369	283
Toné	322	275
Kitakami	243	232
Kiso	232	86
Mogami	216	196
Tenryu	216	216
Gonokawa	200	153
Abukuma	196	149
Ara	177	89
Aka	169	149
Kumano	161	127
Hidaka	161	134
Fuji	161	70
Ohi	154	86
Ohmono	149	137
Sho	149	55

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	Length in Km.	Navigable Length in Km.
Ibi	142	35
Yura	141	110
Sagami	141	75
Shikoku		
Yoshino	236	110
Shimanto	177	75
Kyushu		
Chikugo	141	86
Hokkaido		
Ishikari	365	361
Téshio	306	181
Tokachi	196	86
Tokoro	145	—
Karafuto		
Horonai	137	—
Taiwan		
Dakusuikéi	165	—
Shimotansuikéi	156	—
Sobunkéi	132	—
Tansuigawa	130	—
Chosen		
Ohryokko	790	698
Rakutoko	525	344
Tomanko	521	85
Kanko	514	330
Daidoko	439	260
Kinko	401	130
Ringhinko	254	124
Séisenko	199	152
Réiséiko	174	65

Lakes

The Empire contains numerous lakes, especially in Honshu and Hokkaido, remarkable for their beautiful setting rather than extent. The most interesting are those high above sea level, formed in most cases by volcanic eruptions damming the head-waters of rivers.

The major lakes, with their height above sea level, area and depth follow :

	Above Sea Level (m.)	Area (Sq. km.)	Depth (m.)
Honshu			
Biwako	86.3	716.31	95.0
Hachirogata	0	223.29	4.7
Kasumigaura	2.0	189.17	7.6
Inawashiroko	514.0	104.83	102.0
Nakanoumi	0	101.60	14.0
Shinjiko	1.0	82.32	6.4
Towadako	401.0	78.02	378.0
Hamanako	0	72.04	15.8
Ogaranuma	1.5	62.26	27.0
Kitaura	1.0	39.85	10.0
Imbanuma	2.5	25.95	1.0
Tazawako	250.0	25.65	425.0
Kahokugata	0.8	22.85	2.0
Jusangata	0	20.87	3.0
Ibauchiko	86.3	15.40	3.1
Suwako	759.0	14.45	7.0
Karénuma	—	12.20	3.3
Teganuma	2.5	11.88	2.9
Chuzenjiko	1,271.0	11.29	170.0
Oguraiké	10.0	7.90	1.7
Hirofuchiko	3.0	7.12	2.3
Ashinoko	723.2	7.09	43.5
Kumihamako	0	7.08	20.0
Kyushu			
Ikédako	66.0	10.98	233.0
Hokkaido			
Saromako	0	150.53	19.0
Kutcharoko	120.0	85.54	125.0
Shikotsuko	248.0	76.18	363.0
Toyako	83.0	74.54	183.0
Notoriko	0	58.49	22.0
Furenko	0	52.13	11.0
Abashiriko	0	34.04	17.6
Akkéshikanko	0	31.99	6.9
Mashuko	345.0	20.00	211.5
Tonbétsuko	0	15.00	3.2
Akanko	399.0	12.93	36.6
Karafuto			
Taraikako	0	180.06	1.8
Tominaiko	0	168.18	34.0
Tofuchiko	0	40.43	6.4
Kuchishiko	0	34.77	3.7
Waaiko	0	34.18	6.4
Chibésanko	0	11.20	7.7
Ontoko	0	7.61	4.6
Taiwan			
Takaokanko	1.2	22.66	1.2
Jitsugétsutan	5.2	4.44	5.2
Chosen			
Hiroko	—	13.28	—
Koshihashiko	—	8.27	—
Amaiké	—	7.74	—
Choenko	—	7.42	—

Flora

In summer the southern part of Japan experiences tropical weather, while in winter the districts north of the north-eastern provinces are subject to arctic cold. But owing to ample rainfall, the growth of plants in Japan is in general very rich, yet agriculture occupies so large a proportion of area as to restrict not only the natural distribution of flora and fauna, but a scientific study of the subject as well.

The flora of Japan is by most botanists divided into four zones :

(a) Tropical forest zone, or the banian (Ficus retusa) zone.

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(b) Subtropical forest zone, or the kashi (Quercus acuta) zone.
(c) Temperate forest zone, or the beech-tree (Fagus Sieboldi) zone.
(d) Arctic forest zone, or the dwarf mountain fir (Pinus pumila) zone.

I **The Tropical Forest Zone.** The tropical forest zone, or the banian zone, covers those portions of the plain of Formosa lower than 450 m. above sea level, as well as the Loochoo, Bonin, Sulphur and the South Sea Islands. The aerial roots of the Ficus retusa are not so large as those of the banian in India, but the species grows in abundance and to a great height, sending down its aerial roots into the ground like the tentacles of an octopus. In some parts of Sulphur Islands, the Loochoo Islands and Formosa it forms impenetrable forests. The cocoanut tree is rare but grows well. In Formosa the pineapple thrives naturally, while the Agave American grows quite tall. The cycad (Cycas revoluta), the tree fern (Cyathea spinulosa), the coffee plant (Coffea Arabia), the gum tree, the orange tree, the sugarcane, the mangifera (Mangifera Indica) and the papaw-tree (Caria papaya) grow luxuriantly.

II **The Subtropical Forest Zone** The subtropical forest zone, or the oak zone is limited to altitudes of from 450 to 1,800 m. in Formosa, and as low as sea level in the northern half of the Loochoo Islands. The plains of Kyushu, Shikoku, that part of the Main Island south of 35 degrees North Latitude, and the southern half of the Korean peninsula belong to this zone, the temperature here being from 13° to 21°C. (55° to 70°F.), and the altitude below 1,120 m. at Mount Kirishima in Kyushu; 650 m. in the northern part of the same island: 760 m. in Shikoku, 600 m. in Chugoku or west of Kobé; 500 m. in the Tokaido districts; and 460 m. at Tsukuba-yama in the Kanto district.

Plants peculiar to this zone are those which belong to such species as the camphor-tree, the oak, the camellia, and the Ternstroemia Japonica, evergreen and latifoliate. On sandy shores, where the sea wind is strong, the black pine (Pinus thunbergii) grows, with spreading, contorted branches, an indispensable element of the Japanese landscape, made familiar to the world through the paintings of Hokusai and Hiroshigé. In the southern part of this zone the camphor-tree (Cinnamomum camphora) is abundant. The hemp-palm (Trachycarpus excelsa), the Nagi (Podocarpus nagi) the banana plant (Musa basjoo) and the cycad are planted as ornamental trees, and grow to a good size. Agricultural plants in this zone are rice, barley, soy-bean, red-bean, German millet, the field cabbage (Brassica campestris), colza, cotton (Gossypium herbaceum), indigo-plant, tea-plant, mulberry-tree, mandarin orange, as well as the sugar-cane and the potato. In this zone there is only one rice crop a year while in the first zone it is harvested twice a year.

III **The Temperate Forest Zone** The temperate forest zone, or beech-tree zone, lies north of the 2nd zone in the Main Island, the south-western part of Hokkaido, more than half of its whole area, and in the mountainous portions of Korea; it begins at 37.5 degrees north latitude at the coast and 35° in the Main Island, and ends at 43.5° in the central part of Hokkaido. The temperature of these areas is from 6° to 13° C. (42°-56° F.). In Formosa, the mountain valleys which are between 1,800 and 4,550 m. above sea level belong to this zone, and there grow the cryptomeria, the Picea jezoensis, the hemlock and the Formosan five-leaf pine (Pinus parviflora). The representative species of this zone in the Main Island is the beech, but it is almost extinct because of commercial exploitation. In Niigata prefecture grow many species of deciduous latifoliate trees, such as the oak (Quercus glandulifera), the Quercus crispula and the horse-chestnut (Aesculus turbinata), while among these, in some places are found varieties of acerose trees such as the Japanese cypress, the Chamaecyparis obfusa, the hatchet leaved arborvitae (Thujopsis dolabrata), the fir (Abies firma), the Tsuga Sieboldii, the Abies homolepis, the Korean pine (Pinus koraiensis), the Larix kaempferi, and the like. The timber line of this zone is 4,550 m. in Formosa,—Kyushu, Chugoku, Kinki or the Kyoto-Osaka districts have no mountain which rises above this line; 2,060 m. in Shikoku; 1,700–1,760 m. in Shizuoka prefecture; 1,500 m. in Nagano and Yamanashi prefectures; 1,400-1,060 m. in the northern districts of the Main Island; 450 m. in the southern part of Hokkaido, and down to sea level in the centre of Hokkaido.

The agricultural plants in this zone are barley, wheat, soy-bean, red-bean, German millet, the Panicum frumentoceum and the peanut. In the north rice is often subject to damage from early frost. The forests in the southern half of this zone are the most beautiful in Japan, especially those sections dominated by trees of Kiso valley.

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namely, the Japanese cypress, the Thuja standishii, the Thujopsis dolabrata, and the Sciadopitys verticillata. The cryptomeria forms vast natural forests in Akita prefecture.

IV The Arctic Forest Zone The arctic forest zone, or the dwarf mountain fir zone, occupies the mountain elevations above 4,500 m. in Formosa, and does not exist in Kyushu, except in small patches above 900 m. on the mountains. In the central part of Japan, Fuji, Ontaké, the Nikko and many other mountains are in this zone, while in Shikoku the belt lies between 1,800 m. to 2,580 m. The Abies veitchii, the fir-tree (Abies sachaliensis), the hemlock, the Larix kaempferi, the Abies firma, the yew-tree, the Alnus firma, the Sorbaria randaiensis and the Alpine-rose (Rhododendron hyminanthes) grow in this zone, but the principal trees differ according to districts. In Formosa, the Abies sachaliensis is the principal tree, the Abies veitchii on Kiso, Fuji, the Nikko and other high mountains located within 40 degrees north latitude in the Main Island; the Abies firma and the Larix kaempferi in the districts further north, and the Abies sachaliensis again in Aomori prefecture. In Hokkaido and Karafuto the Abies sachaliensis and the spruce (Picea ajanensis) grow plentifully, but are not found in the Main Island. In addition, in Karafuto, the larch flourishes, as also does the Juniperus chinensis along the seashore.

Marine Flora According to Dr. Okamura, the marine flora of Japan in the Pacific Ocean is divided into two by Oshima Island, to the south of which, including the Bonin Islands, is the Tropical division, while from north of Oshima to Kinkazan lies the Temperate division. The ocean district north of Kinkazan belongs to the Arctic division, although at the southern end of this division can be found, to a certain extent, Temperate-zone seaweeds. On the western side of Japan, that is, along the coast of the Japan Sea, the Tropical and Temperate seaweed zones are divided at Makurasaki or Noma Peninsula at the west end of Kyushu Island, while the arctic zone begins at the Tsugaru Straits.

Korea As may be inferred from the geographical relation existing between the continent and the peninsula on the one hand and between the latter and Japan on the other, the flora of the northern part (38°-43° N.Lat.) of the peninsula bears a great resemblance to that of the eastern Asiatic continent, while the flora of the southern part has a close resemblance with that of the western part of the Main Island of Japan.

Dense forests of conifers are frequently seen in the northern districts. Pinus koraiensis is a species commonly found there. The flora of the northern half has many northern elements and bears a close relation to the flora of Manchuria and Siberia.

Elements characteristic of northern China are also to be found in the flora of the western part of Korea. Endemic genera are comparatively few,—a characteristic of continental floras. Among the endemic genera, Hanabusaya Nakai and Chosenia Nakai may be mentioned as the most interesting. Both genera are monotypic, the former belonging to the family Campanulacæ, and the latter to the family Salicaceæ.

The South Sea Islands Pemphis acidula, Scaevola frutescens and Tournefortia argentea grow on the shore. Coconut palms and screw pines grow among the littoral bushes. Allophylus timorensis and Wedelia biflora are the most common species and form a dense growth in the interior of the islands. Generally speaking, the flora of the islands is extremely poor as far as the number of species is concerned. This suggests that it is of comparatively recent origin.

Classification. There are in Japan, nearly 20,000 species of flora known to botanists. The "Illustrated Book of Botany" published by a Tokyo botanical association contains 2,070 representative species classified as follows:

	No. of Species
I Phaneregamæ	
A Angiospermæ	
(a) Dicotyledoneæ	
1 Sympetalæ	519
2 Archichlamydeæ	1,046
(b) Monocotyledonæ	242
B Gymnospermæ	
(a) Gnetaceæ	1
(b) Coniferæ	
1 Araucariaceæ	23
2 Taxaceæ	7
(c) Cycadaceæ	1
(d) Ginkgoaceæ	1
II Archegohiatæ	
A Pteridophyta	
(a) Lycopodinæ	
1 Isoetaceæ	1
2 Selaginellaceæ	6
3 Psilotaceæ	1
4 Lycopodiaceæ	12
(b) Equisetinæ	
Equisetaceæ	4
(c) Filicinæ	
1 Marsiliaceæ	1
2 Salviniaceæ	2

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3	Ophiolossaceæ	5
4	Osmundaceæ	1
5	Schizaeaceæ	1
6	Gleicheniaceæ	2
7	Polypodiaceæ	97
8	Hymenophyllaceæ	4
B	Bryophyta	
(a)	Hepaticæ	2
(b)	Musci	9
III	Thallophyta	
A	Fungi	21
B	Algæ	
1	Rhodophyceæ	29
2	Phacophyceæ	25
3	Characeæ	1
4	Chlorophyceæ	6
	Total	2,070

Fuji, Sakura, Sumiré, Sugé, Susuki, and Kiku

According to Dr. Makino species of the phanerogamae alone number from 8,000 to 10,000 in Japan proper. Among this great number of plants, there are very many which are specially Japanese and unique in the botanical world. Several of the most prominent of these plants are selected here and a brief explanation on each of them is given below:

Fuji (Kraunhia floribunda) Fuji or wistaria is a plant peculiar to Japan. Chinese wistaria differs from that of Japan, and strangely enough no Chinese wistaria is transplanted in Japan, while it is found in Europe and America. The Chinese wistaria is the so-called murasaki fuji, or purple wistaria, it therefore cannot be classed as belonging to the same species as the Japanese fuji.

The Japanese wistaria is divided into two species, viz. fuji and yama fuji (Kraunhia brachybotrya), or wild wistaria. Both grow in mountains, but are often cultivated in gardens. Yama fuji grows wild in Shikoku, Kyushu, and Chugoku and their vines are sinistal. Its flower is larger in size, but the raceme is short. Some yama fuji found in nurseries have white flowers and are called shira fuji, or white wistaria. Botanists in the West consider it an independent species, but it is only a variety of yama fuji. The ordinary fuji grows wild all over Japan and its vines are dextral. Wistaria found in Nara Park and that in Kasukabé in Saitama prefecture belong to this species. Its flower-clusters are very long and they sometimes measure as much as several feet.

Sakura Sakura, or cherry-blossom, is celebrated in Japan from olden times. Yama-zakura (zakura is the euphonic form of sakura in the compound), (Prunus serrulata var. spontanea), or wild cherry blossom, is the most important of all species of cherry blossoms. The famous poem of Norinaga Motoori,

Shikishima no
Yamato gokoro-wo hito towa ba
Asahi ni niwo yamazakura bana.
(Isles of blest Japan!
Should your Yamato Spirit
Strangers seek to scan,
Say—the cherry wild and fair
Lightened up in morn's sun-lit air!)

refers to this yamazakura. This species grows in the districts stretching from Kyushu in the south to Kinki (near Kyoto) in the Main Island. Many places which are noted for this sakura are found in the belt lying between these two districts. The most famous of them is Yoshino Yama near Nara.

Recently some scientists made an attempt to call it shiro yamazakura, or white wild cherry, because they gave the name of beni yamazakura, or red wild cherry to the other species. But to this red wild cherry the name of ōyamazakura (Prunus serrulata var. sachalinensis) has already been given.

Ōyamazakura grows in the mountain districts of the Central provinces, Tohoku, Hokkaido and Karafuto and was not probably known to our ancestors in the western half of the Main Island who loved yamazakura.

The ordinary yamazakura grow in mountains and are planted in public and private gardens or along public roads.

The so-called satozakura, or village cherry, does not grow in the mountains. They must have varied from the original yamazakura.

The sakura which is called Yoshinozakura by florists and is widespread to-day all over the country with Tokyo as the centre, is known as somei-yoshino (Prunus yedoensis), in the botanical world. It appeared in Tokyo at the beginning of the Meiji Era. But where florists at Somei got its seedlings is not known. It was about the fifth year of Meiji that they were planted in Ueno Park. The reason that this blossom is called somei-yoshino by scientists is to avoid confusion with the sakura at Yoshino mentioned above. Somei-yoshino appears not to have existed in Yedo, the present Tokyo, during the time of the Tokugawa Shogunate.

This somei-yoshino, strange as it is, existed exclusively in Tokyo, and was

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rarely transplanted out of the city for long. It is found everywhere in Japan to-day, but it is only since 1902 that it began to spread out from Tokyo.

It has become known that this species of sakura is growing wild in Saishu Island, Korea. However, since it cannot be surmised that its seedlings were brought to Tokyo from this island, the true origin of this sakura in Japan proper is still unknown. Some Western botanists consider somei-yoshino as a species akin to higan-zakura (Prunus subhirtella), which blossoms at the time of the equinoctial week, and oshima-zakura (Prunus serrulata var. albida, a kind of yamazakura which grows on Oshima Island, Tokyo prefecture). But it is not confirmed yet.

Higan-zakura belongs to a different species. It is divided into two classes in botany. The trunk of one class is large, while that of the other is small. The former is found in Ueno Park, Tokyo, and the latter is rarely seen in the Kanto district.

The small higan-zakura, however, is found everywhere in Kansai (western) district and blossoms much prettier than the other variety. It is also found in Nagano prefecture, although it grows into a comparatively large-sized tree.

The large higan-zakura is not found in such great numbers as the other. Jindai-zakura of Nagano, and Ishiwari-zakura of Iwaté belong to this species. Shidaré-zakura (the willowy sakura) also comes from this species and is called azuma-higan.

Sumiré (Viola mandsurica) The species of sumiré or violets is called viola in botany and violet is the popular English name, while sumiré is the popular Japanese name for it. This name is said to have originated in the carpenter's "sumitsubo or sumiiré", or Indian inkstand made of wood resembling the flower in shape. According to this theory "sumiiré" gradually changed into "sumiré," the name by which the flower is known today.

In botany, sumiré is restricted to a species with flowers of deep purple-colour. Varieties are ko-sumiré, tsubo-sumiré (Viola verecunda), tachitsubo-sumiré (Viola grypoceras) akané-sumiré (Viola phalacrocarpa), ezo-sumiré, ki-sumiré, tsukushi-sumiré (Viola diffusa), etc.

Japan is a kingdom of violets where more than a hundred species are found. No other country in the world compares with Japan in this respect.

Sugé(Carex) Of sugé, carex or sedges, the most prominent is kasa sugé (Carex disparata), or umbrella sedges, and mino sugé, or raincoat sedges. More than 300 species of carex are found in Japan.

Susuki (Miscanthus sinensis) Susuki, or pampass grass is called in some places kaya. The tassel-like bunches of its flowers are called "obana," which is included among Nanakusa, or seven herbs. (See Chap. XXXVII, Calendar of Annual Events).

The graceful form of susuki with obana on them touches the Oriental heart and has been the subject of many celebrated poems. There are many species such as masuhono-susuki, masuuno-susuki, sugurono-susuki, etc.

Susuki grows abundantly on mountains and in fields, and the tuffs of obana nod before the wind, giving a characteristic Japanese touch to the autumnal landscape.

Kiku (Chrysanthemum sinense) Kiku or chrysanthemum is a celebrated flower in Japan. It is worthy of being the national flower and is used as the Imperial crest.

The Chinese chrysanthemum, from which the Japanese kiku is derived, had been cultivated in China before it was transplanted to Japan.

The scientific name of this flower is Chrysanthemum sinense. The name chrysanthemum is that given to the genus of this family in Europe apart from kiku, before this flower was known in that continent. Sinense is the name of the species and means China. Therefore Chrysanthemum sinense means the Chinese chrysanthemum. Chrysanthemum japonicum, therefore, is the scientific name of the Japanese chrysanthemum or ryuno-giku. Chrysanthemum arcticum, or arctic chrysanthemum, is the scientific name for kohamagiku.

The origin of the chrysanthemum is the wild chrysanthemum grown in China. The Chinese began to cultivate it. The chrysanthemums which were cultivated by Chinese horticulturists were brought into Japan and grew into countless varieties of the chrysanthemum of to-day. In 1884 it was found by Dr. T. Makino, that the original Chrysanthemum sinense, which were thought to have existed only in the old China, grows in Loochoo Islands, Kyushu, Shikoku and the part of the Main Island west of Kobé.

He gave it the name of nojigiku (Chrysanthemum sinense var. japonense).

The stems, leaves, flowers, colour and fragrance which nojigiku possesses are the same as those which the original species of cultivated chrysanthemum in China has.

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Fauna

Japan possesses an exceedingly rich and varied fauna closely related to the adjacent continent and classified into two principal groups, the Palæarctic, and the Oriental. Of these the Palæarctic elements are chiefly found in the northern territories, such as the Kuriles, Saghalien, Hokkaido, Japan proper, and Korea, while the Oriental ones range over the islands of Formosa and Loochoo.

Because birds and animals can move their habitat it is more difficult to classify them but, in general, Formosa, the Loochoo, and the Bonin Islands belong to the so-called Oriental zone, according to the world biological division, and include such tropical animals as the buffalo (Bubalus bubalis), the Formosan leopard (Felis dardi brachyurus), the Manis pentadactyla and the big snakes. Tropical insects are found in abundance. In the Loochoos live such rare species as the Trimeresurus flavoviridis, a poisonous snake, and the leaf-butterfly (Kallima inachus formosana). South of Bird Island, Izu, albatross frequent the blue waters; while in the Bonin Islands and southward the Japanese white-eye congregate. On Sulpur Island tropical birds with red tails can often be seen. From Kyushu northward according to the biological theory, extends the Palæarctic zone with its fauna of the Temperate zone, specially domestic animals; while the wild animals found are the antelope (Capricornis crispus), deer (Sika nippon), wild boar (Sus leucomystax), bear (Ursus torquatus japonicus), fox (Vulpes vulpes japonicus), badger (Nycterentes procyonoides), the Meles anakuma, the Martes melampus, and the squirrel (Sciurus lis). Different species of monkeys are also found. Among birds there are the green pheasant (Phasianus versicolor versicolor), copper pheasant (Graphophasianus soemmerringii scintillans), snowy heron (Egretta garzetta garzetta), hawk (Astus gentilis schvedowi, etc.); the crow (Corvus coronoides japonensis) is the most common. In the northeastern districts of the Main Island, and in the high mountains, are found all the birds of the north, and also such arctic rovers as the hare (Lepus brachyurus brachyurus) and the ptarmigan (Lagopus mutus japonicus) both of which become white in winter. In Korea, the hedgehog (Erinaceus koreanus), tiger (Felis tigris coreensis), Korean pheasant (Phasianus colchicus karpowi), crane (Megalonis japonensis) and the like are seen.

As there is a wide difference between the kinds of animals in the Main Island and Korea, so also is there quite a difference between those of the Main Island and Hokkaido. In Hokkaido the monkey is no longer seen; the Hokkaido bear (Ursus arctos yesoensis) takes the place of the bear (Ursus torquatus japonicus); while the species of deer, rat, squirrel and ptarmigan are unlike those of the Main Island.

Karafuto again differs from Hokkaido in its species of animals. The rat, squirrel and the Ursus arctos yesoensis are the same, but there are also such species as musk-deer (Moschus moschiferus parvipes) and wild cat (Lynx lynx borealis), while in winter the tiger comes across the frozen sea from the nearby continent.

Coming to the urodele, there are various species of it, the majority of them being considered as peculiar and finding their homes in the southern district. Such species are represented by Hynobius nebulosus, H. stejnegeri, H. vandenburgi, etc. One of the most noteworthy is the giant salamander (Megalobatrachus japonicus), which inhabits the cool mountain streams of provinces in Honshu, south of Gifu, and also in Kyushu. Although not common, it is not very rare. It is known to occur also in China, and may be said to represent a good example which marks off the East Asian subregion from the others. As the representative of the northern district may be recorded Hynobius peropus, which is found at high altitudes. Extensively distributed in Japan proper are Diemictylus pyrrhogaster and Onychodactylus japonicus, the former being the commonest of all.

The freshwater fishes are known from an immense number of species, many of which appear to be rather limited in distribution. Some are confined to particular river valleys, others inhabit the lakes of a limited district only, while some are restricted to a comparatively narrow area. Generally speaking, the southern district presents us with the following species: Acheilognathus limbatus, Sarcocheilichthys variegatus, Opsariichthys uncirostris, Zacco temminckii, Brittosus kawamebari, Sicyopterus japonicus, Rhinogobius hadropterus, etc. Ranging over the northern area are found such forms as Oncorhynchus, Pseudoperilampus typus, Chloea senbae, etc. Widely spread over Japan proper occurs ayu or Plecoglossus altivelis. The river Nagara, in Gifu prefecture, is famous for its fishing with the cormorant.

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Marine Fauna

On the Pacific side Japan has two principal streams of different temperatures. The warm current is known as the Japan stream, or Kuroshio, which is peculiar for its high salinity. This stream has its origin in the north Pacific current from the east, and passes into the East China Sea, moving northwards by way of Luzon and Formosa.

The cold current is the well-known Kamchatka stream, or Oyashio, which rises from the Behring Sea, and passes down south along the eastern coast of the Kurile group and Hokkaido, extending farther southwards off Kinkazan, or beyond, where it meets the aforesaid Kuroshio.

Receiving a paramount influence of the currents just sketched out, Japanese waters command a very rich and varied marine fauna, there being found two types of animal life, the northern and the southern. Neglecting here some southern and northern elements, which have their limits north in the Behring Sea and south off the Loochoo group, respectively, the following three faunal areas may be more or less clearly recognized, though contiguous zones blend one into the other :

(1) Northern zone, extending from the shore of the Kurile group to that of the northern part of Honshu which lies to the north of Kinkazan.

(2) Middle zone, extending from off Kinkazan to near the Shionomisaki, on the Pacific side, and representing the zone of mingling of the arctic or subarctic and tropical or subtropical forms. The Japan Sea may be dealt with as corresponding as a whole to this zone.

(3) Southern zone, comprising the shores of the parts of Japan proper lying to the south of the Shionomisaki, the Loochoo group, the Bonin group, and Formosa.

Northern Zone This district is frankly subarctic, containing animals characteristic of the Behring Sea on the one hand, and of the Okhotsk Sea on the other. Amongst the carnivorous mammals the sea otter (Enhydra lutris) is circumpolar in range, being confined to the north of Hokkaido, while the Steller sea lion (Eumetopias jubata) and several seals (Phoca vitulina, Ph. fasciata, etc.) frequent the more southern waters, some of them occasionally appearing in the seas off Hokkaido and Amurland. The northern fur seal (Callorhynus ursinus) which is of economic importance particularly abounds in Kaihyo-to (Seal I.), a small island near Saghalien and also on some islands of the Kuriles.

Turning to cetacea, there are three whalebone whales, such as Balaena glacialis, B. mysticutus, and Rhachianectes glaucus.

Around the Kuriles, Hokkaido, and Saghalien are found in immense quantities many fishes like the cod, salmon, and herring, which are of the same great economic importance as in Norway, Scotland, Newfoundland, and other countries.

In comparatively shallower waters are found some ascidians, like Halocynthia roretzi, Chelyosoma siboja, Molgula crystallina, M. redikorzevi, etc. The first two are largely eaten in this country. Much less developed here than in the tropics are a number of echinoderms.

Ranging from the Behring Sea to the Japan Sea occurs Paralithodes camtschatica, which attains a large size and is one of great economic importance. Its famous fishing grounds are the coasts of Kunashir and Saghalien. With this is associated the most edible crab, Chionecetes opilio.

A large number of molluscs are known from this district, of which the most valuable species are Ostrea gigas, Mactra sachalinensis, Pecten yesoensis, Ommastrephes sloani pacificus, etc.

Amongst medusae, such forms as Haliclystus spp., Aurelia limbata, Cyanea spp., Chrysaora spp., Staurophora discoidea, and Sarsia spp. frequent the northern waters.

Middle Zone In this district the arctic or subarctic overlaps the tropical or subtropical fauna, there being distinguished a great variety of animals. Most of the types characteristically Japanese belong here, abounding in rock pools and about the rocky islands. Setting aside some mammals, northern and southern, some whalebone whales may be recorded here, which are of great economic importance. The blue whale (Balaenoptera Sieboldi) which is of wide distribution and of migratory habits, appears off Kinkazan and Hokkaido in summer, and about Shikoku and Kyushu in winter. Swimming in schools in the seas around Japan proper and Hokkaido is found the common finwhale (Bal. physalus) which appears in the north in summer, and in the south in winter. The Sei whale (Bal. borealis) has a range almost similar to the preceding, extending from the southern Kuriles in the north to as far south as the Goto group. Their famous hunting grounds are off the southern Kuriles.

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Némuro in Hokkaido, Kinkazan, the Shionomisaki, the Goto group, and Korea.

Here intruded from the southern seas are found a few species of reptiles, like Disteria cyanocincta, Hydrus platulus, Caretta olivacea, and Eretmochelys squamosa which sometimes extend north up to Hokkaido.

The chief species of fishes, the occurrence of which marks this zone off from the others, may be said to be Cynias manazo, Hyporhamphus sajori, Apogon semilineatus, Halichoeres poecilopterus, etc. Some valuable fishes, as the Japanese porgy, bonitos and tunnies are caught here in immense quantities. Of scombroid fishes, Scomber japonicus and Thunnus orientalis are found on both sides, the Pacific and the Japan Sea, extending from Saghalien and Hokkaido in the north to the East China Sea in the south. Besides, this district abounds in sardine (Sardinea melanosticta), which is replaced in the north by the herring and in the south by Etrumeus micropus. Engraulis japonicus also occurs in great abundance, having a range somewhat wider than the sardine. Here it may be noticed that, assuming the Boso peninsula near Tokyo to be a boundary, the species of the northern area gradually drop off, and the species of the southern area become more and more conspicuous. The reverse is true of the southern elements.

Amongst ascidians there are some species like Halocynthia karasboya, Microcosmus hartmeyeri, Styela kroboja, etc.

Echinoderms are plentiful, being comprised of a number of interesting species of Ophiostiba hidekii, Asteroschema japonicum, brittle-stars, sea-urchins, and sea-cucumbers.

Amongst crustaceans, one of the most notable is a giant crab, Macrocheira kaempferi, which appears to be confined to this zone, on the Pacific side. Neptunus trituberculatus is also endemic and ranges all around Japan proper. Having a range nearly similar to the giant crab is an edible spiny lobster, Palinurus japonicus. Besides, there is a good catch of penaeid prawns which are decidedly stragglers from the southern zone.

In the Japan Sea the water is by no means simple or isolated, but compound and connected with those of other seas. Of fishes the bonitos and Euthynnus are scarcely found in the Sea. Some crabs, like Chionecetes opilio, etc., are of great commercial value and huge quantities are caught. Besides, some shrimps and prawns, belonging to the genera Pandalus and Crangon, are also found in much abundance. Amongst the cephalopods, one of the most notable is an oegopsid, Watasenia scintillans, which emits luminescence. It appears abundantly in Toyama Bay, about May. Ommastrephes sloani pacificus is thickly and extensively distributed in the Sea, its thickest distribution roughly coinciding with the extension of the Tsushima stream.

Southern Zone The fauna about Kyushu and Shikoku is less characteristically Japanese, having much in common with the neighbouring shores of the islands of Bonin, Loochoo, and Formosa, where there are forms which are almost or quite identical with those met with about the South Sea islands of Java, Celebes, Borneo, etc.

Exclusive of the hair seal (Zalophus lobatus), occasionally appearing in this zone, there can be seen a few species of whalebone whales and toothed whales.

Extensively spread over this zone are some species of reptiles, such as Laticauda laticaudata, L. colubrina, Emydocephalus ijimae, Disteira melanocephala, etc., most of them being found not to range over to the middle zone.

Of fishes there is a number of forms which are of great economic importance. Of scombroid fishes, such forms as Rastrelliger chrysozonus, Grammatorcynus bilineatus, and Gymnosarda nuda which inhabit the tropical seas have their range to Loochoo; Acanthocybium solandri and Euthynnus yaito are spread, on the Pacific side, into the middle zone; and Katsuwonus pelamis is of very wide distribution, ranging from Formosa to Hokkaido, on the Pacific side, and to middle Honshu, on the Japan Sea side, though very few in number. Cybium chinense and Sarda orientalis are rather abundant about Kyushu, but they are found in northern Honshu, both off the Pacific and the Japan Sea coasts. Of other important fishes, Pagrosomus major, Evynnis cardinalis and Talus tumifrons are distributed from Formosa to middle Honshu. Besides, some forms like Embolichthys mitsukurii, Halichoeres opercularis, Chaetodon setifer, Ch. vagabundus, and others are found to extend to, or about southern Kyushu; Kuhlia marginata ranges from the southern seas to Idzu, and Safole toeniura to Misaki.

As they proceed southwards, ascidians seek a lower level of the sea for their habitat. Echinoderms are very much in

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evidence, presenting a number of species which inhabit the southern tropical seas. Some crabs like Scylla serrata, Neptunus pelagicus and Trapezia extend their range northwards to about Loochoo and Kyushu.

Ranging from off the Goto group to the Kumano Sea is a famous coral-bed, where we have such forms as Corallium japonicum, C. elatius, C. konojoi, and C. inutile. The first two corals are also found forming a bed in the waters near the Bonin group, as well as north to Formosa.

The sponges are very rich and varied. The sponge of some commercial value is represented by Euspongia irregularis, which abounds in the southern seas.

Classification Of more than 20,000 species of animals in Japan, 3,725 representative species are contained in the "Illustrated Book of Japanese Animals," by Mr. S. Uchida and others. In addition there are illustrations of 113 species which have been imported into Japan for various purposes. They are classified as follows :

	No. of Species
I Vertebrata	
A Mammalia	91
B Aves	280
C Reptilia	83
D Amphibia	34
E Pisces	448
F Cyclostomata	2
II Prochordatz	
A Cephalochorda	1
B Ascidiacea	36
C Thaliacea	4
D Larvacea	2
E Enteropneusta	2
III Arthropoda	
A Insecta	568
B Myriapoda	15
C Arachnoidea	70
D Crustacea	493
IV Mollusca	
A Cephalopoda	40
B Pelecypoda	128
C Scaphopoda	3
D Gastropoda	320
E Amphineura	5
V Prosopygii	
A Sipunculoidea	8
B Bryozoa	42
C Entoprocta	1
D Brachiopoda	4
E Phoronida	2
VI Annelida	
A Chaetopoda	88
B Archiannelida	1
C Myzostomida	4
D Hirudinea	30
E Echiuroidea	6
VII Trochelminthes	
A Rotifera	28
B Gastrotricha	1
C Kinorhyncha	1
VIII Chætognatha	5
IX Nemathelminthes	
A Nematoda	65
B Scanthocephali	5
X Nemetritini	10
XI Plathelminthes	
A Turbellaria	25
B Trematoda	50
C Cestoda	40
XII Echinodermata	
A Crinoidea	30
B Asteroidea	52
C Ophiuroidea	56
D Echinoidea	56
E Holothuroidea	56
XIII Coelenterata	
A Ctenophora	8
B Actinozoa	67
C Scyphomedusæ	23
D Hydrozoa	115
XIV Porifera	
A Calcarea	19
B Hexactinellida	31
XV Mesozoa	1
XVI Protozoa	
A Ciliphora	22
B Sporozoa	20
C Rhizopoda	30
D Mastigophora	26
XVII Larva	72
Total	3,725
XVIII Foreign animals	113

Earthquakes

Italy and Japan are the two countries in the world which are famed for earthquakes. In the frequency of earthquakes in recent years Japan beats Italy. In 1923, when the Great Kanto Earthquake occurred, there were 2,786 perceptible earthquakes and 3,915 imperceptible ones. The number of perceptible earthquakes in the five years, 1927-1931, was 12,476 in the whole Empire. About 45% of them occurred in the Kanto district, Kyoto and Osaka districts coming next with 22%. But such earthquakes as were accompanied with casualties were very few, numbering only three during the five-year period. The seismic history of the country since 1596 records 21 big earthquakes in which the loss of lives amounted to over 1,000 each.

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GREAT EARTHQUAKES IN JAPAN IN THE PAST THREE CENTURIES

Date	A.D.	Japanese Year	Districts	Number of Persons killed
Sept. 3	1596	(Keicho 1)	Oita (Kyushu)	708
Sept. 4	1596	(Keicho 1)	Kobé—Osaka district	1,173
Jan. 31	1605	(Keicho 9)	Pacific coasts from Kyushu to Tokyo Bay	8,800
Sept. 27	1611	(Keicho 16)	Aizu (North-east district)	3,700
Dec. 2	1611	(Keicho 16)	North-east and Hokkaido coasts	4,783
June 16	1662	(Kanbun 2)	Central district	800
Feb. 2	1666	(Kanbun 6)	Takada (Niigata prefecture)	1,500
Dec. 31	1703	(Genroku 16)	Tokyo and Tokaido district	5,233
Oct. 28	1707	(Kan-éi 4)	Pacific coasts of Central district	4,900
May 20	1751	(Hōréki 1)	Takada (Niigata prefecture)	2,000
March 8	1766	(Meiwa 3)	Tsugaru straits	1,335
May 21	1792	(Kanséi 4)	Unzen Mt. (Kyushu)	15,200
Dec. 18	1828	(Bunséi 11)	Niigata prefecture	1,443
May 8	1847	(Koka 4)	Nagano and Niigata prefectures	12,000
July 9	1854	(Anséi 1)	Nara to Tokyo	1,057
Dec. 23	1854	(Anséi 1)	Pacific coasts	600
Dec. 24	1854	(Anséi 1)	Kyushu, Shikoku, Isé	3,000
Nov. 11	1855	(Anséi 2)	Tokyo and vicinity	7,000
Nov. 6	1872	(Meiji 5)	Hamada (Shimané prefecture)	600
Oct. 28	1891	(Meiji 24)	Gifu and Aichi prefectures	7,275
Oct. 22	1894	(Meiji 27)	Akita and Yamagata prefectures	720
June 15	1896	(Meiji 29)	Miyagi, Iwaté and Aomori prefectures	27,122
Sept. 1	1923	(Taisho 12)	Kanto district	44,279
May 23	1925	(Taisho 14)	Northern Hyogo prefecture	394
March 7	1927	(Showa 2)	Western Kyoto prefecture	3,017
Nov. 26	1930	(Showa 5)	Shizuoka and Kanagawa prefectures	248
March 3	1933	(Showa 8)	Miyagi, Iwaté and Aomori prefectures	2,805
April 21	1935	(Showa 10)	Shinchiku, Taichu in Taiwan	3,185

The Kanto Earthquake and Fire which occurred on September 1, 1923, was the severest of all the recorded earthquakes in the country in the number of casualties and amount of damages.

The quake started at 11 : 58′ 31″ A.M. on that day, the epicentre being at the bottom of the sea 28 kilometres below the sea level near the mouth of the Sagami river, 139°17, E. Long., 35° 22′ N. Lat. It was a seismic activity caused by a block movement of the earth, and the shock was felt all over the Empire and recorded by all the seismographs of the world. The largest width of the vibration reached to about 8 inches, and the duration of the quake, as recorded by the seismograph in the laboratory of the Tokyo Imperial University, was over three and a half hours.

As to the casualties and damages caused by the earthquake and fire a variety of reports is published. The statistics here given are made out of those published by the **Extraordinary Earthquake** Rescue Bureau of the Department of Home Affairs, and those given in the Empire Statistic Year Book published by the Government.

DAMAGES TO BUILDINGS

(Earthquake Rescue Bureau Figures)

Damage	Number	%
Totally burnt	381,090	54.9
Half burnt	517	0.1
Completely damaged	83,819	12.1
Half damaged	91,233	13.1
Carried off by tidal waves	1,390	0.2
Partly broken	136,572	19.6
Total	694,621	100.0

Of the above Tokyo had 354,453 houses damaged (51%), or 73.4% of the total number of houses in the city, while Yokohama had 94,882 houses destroyed (13.7%) or 95.9% of the total number of houses in the city.

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CASUALTIES

(Figures from Empire Statistic Year Book and other statistical publications)

	Total	Men	Women	Proportion per 100 population in the district
Killed	44,279	20,953	23,326	0.38
Severely wounded	16,514	9,406	7,108	0.14
Wounded	35,560	20,865	14,695	0.34
Total	96,353	51,224	45,129	0.86

The number of persons killed is usually said to have reached over 100,000, and the Earthquake Rescue Bureau figures give 91,344. But the later statistics given by the Government in the Empire Statistic Year Book seem to be more correct. Of the total number there given as killed, 28,708 were crushed, 15,450 burnt in the ensuing fire, and 121 were drowned by the tidal waves.

No authoritative survey was made in regard to the loss of property and a variety of amounts is given as estimates. Most of them, however, are necessarily exaggerated. But taking the number of destroyed households, the average individual wealth and other factors as guides, the total amount of the loss may be safely said to have reached approximately ¥2,550,000,000.

Earthquake of 1933 The biggest quake of the year occurred in the Sanriku district at 3:31 A. M. March 3. The district, which covers the Pacific coast line of three northeastern prefectures, Miyagi, Iwaté and Aomori, had often been washed by tidal waves due to seismic activities at the sea bottom, the severest loss of life being experienced in 1896. The people were, therefore, fully aware of possible tidal waves when they felt the first shock and immediately hurried to the hills, but the waves overtook them within half an hour or so, drowning 2,805 people and carrying away 15,683 houses, together with over 10,860 fishing boats, loss caused by all damages on houses, boats and farms beeing estimated at ¥18,100,427. The number of casualties was but 10% of those of the 1896 quake, but the area covered and the destruction caused by it was greater.

Formosan Earthquake in 1935 On April 21, 1935 an earthquake struck Shinchiku and Taichu prefectures, Taiwan (Formosa). The shock suddenly began at 6:2' 17" A.M. (Taiwan time or 7:2' 17" A.M. in Japan proper) and lasted nearly one hour. The epicentre was at a point about 10 kilometres below the surface at the mouth of the Daiankei near the town of Taiko, Taichu. The width of the vibration reached from 8 mm. to 16 mm. and the shock was especially strong in a limited district because it occured at a comparatively shallow spot. Records tell that Formosa experienced big quakes in 1655, 1720, 1722, 1861 and 1867, and this was the 46th quake after 1868 and is said to have been the largest so far as the damages are concerned, the statistics of which follow :

DAMAGES AND CASUALTIES IN THE FORMOSA EARTHQUAKE IN 1935

(April 24, Ministry of Overseas Affairs Report)

Casualties:	
Killed	3,185
Severely wounded	9,215
Wounded	1,415
Missing	6
Total	13,821
Damages:	
Dwellings completely damaged	15,292
" half damaged	15,457
" greatly damaged	4,436
" partly damaged	3,380
Total	38,565
Other buildings completely damaged	574
" " half damaged	128
" " greatly damaged	104
" " partly damaged	184
Total	990

Akita Earthquake in 1939 The latest earthquake of any importance in Japan proper struck Akita prefecture on May 1, 1939. The strongest shock began at 2 : 59 p. m. and lasted for about 2 minutes. It was caused by a depression of the sea bottom off cape Nyudo, at a point 50 kilometres to the north-west of the city of Akita. The width of the vibration reached 3 mm., and the whole length and width of Ojika peninsula, west of Lake Hachirogata was rocked with 27 towns and villages on it to cause the following casualties and damages : persons instantly killed 26, heavily wounded 53 ; houses completely turned down 476, half damaged

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926; and the amount of damage estimated at ¥1,020,000.

National Parks

On October 8, 1932, a committee of 11 headed by Baron Yoshiro Fujimura, which had been conducting investigations for a year under instructions from the Home Office, submitted a report recommending 12 places in Japan as worthy of preservation and development as national parks. They were (1) Mount Fuji and Hakoné, (2) Nikko, (3) Akan, (4) Daisétsusan, (5) Lake Towada, (6) the Japan Alps, (7) Yoshino and Kumano, (8) the Inland Sea, (9) Daisen, (10) Mount Aso, (11) Unzen and (12) Mount Kirishima.

All of them were officially announced as national parks by the authorities in January, 1936.

Descriptions of the national parks follow:

Mount Fuji and Hakoné In the three prefectures of Yamanashi, Kanagawa and Shizuoka in the centre of the Mainland of Japan, the combination of the world-famous Mount Fuji, the five beautiful lakes at its foot and the hot spring resort of Hakoné is to be known as Fuji Park. Mount Fuji, superb, peerless and highest mountain of Japan proper, is known the world over for its beauty. Its perfect cone rises 3,773 metres above sea level. In July and August, crowds of pilgrims and others climb its sacred slopes to the summit.

Below Mount Fuji are the famous five Fuji lakes, all of which are visited by nature lovers because of their scenic beauty.

Few visitors to Japan fail to visit the Hakoné district, noted for its mountain scenery, invigorating climate, hot springs and places of general interest. The district, popularly known as Mount Hakoné, is the crater of an extinct volcano. Lake Ashinoko is famous for its reflection of Mount Fuji when that elusive peak is visible.

Nikko. In the prefectures of Gumma, Fukushima, Tochigi and Niigata in the centre of the Mainland of Japan, 90 miles north of Tokyo, Nikko is famous the world over for its combination of art and nature. The gorgeous shrines and temples are as striking as its cryptomeria avenue, the mountains, lakes and waterfalls. Lake Chuzenji, the largest lake in the park, is extremely beautiful, and the Kégon waterfalls, which serve as an outlet of the lake, are a most striking sight. Beside the lake stands Mount Nantai, which resembles in shape Mount Fuji. In inner Nikko are smaller lakes and also the hot spring district of Yumoto.

Akan Situated in Kushiro province on the Island of Hokkaido, this park contains a wide area of active volcanic mountains, imposing forests and lakes. Lake Mashu, one of the beautiful lakes below the range of volcanic mountains, lies within 10 kilometres of the Teshikaga hot springs. The lake is nearly 20 square kilometres in area, and in its centre lies a small island.

Lake Kutcharo, the largest of the group in Akan Park, measures 76.22 square kilometres in area, with the beautiful island of Tomoshiri in its centre, 12 kilometres in circumference. At the southern extremity of the lake is a small protruding strip of highland called Wakoto Peninsula, at the foot of which is Wakoto hot springs.

Lake Akan, probably the most beautiful of the Akan group, 11.86 square kilometres, has a zigzag shore and, being rich in changes, presents a very pleasing appearance. On the southwest of the lake rises Mount Oakan, an active volcano.

Akan Park is suitable for sight-seeing trips of two or four days from the city of Kushiro.

Daisétsuzan The Great Snow Mountains district, in the centre of the Island of Hokkaido, presents a range of active volcanoes known as the Daisétsuzan range. Because of the great height of the mountains, this is often called the Roof of Hokkaido. Surrounding the mountains are virgin woods over an area of 490,000 acres. The mountains form the source of the Ishikari River, the largest river on the island.

The Daisétsu volcanic range rises in more than 10 mountains, including Mount Tokachi and Mount Sangoku. Many lakes are found on the summits of the volcanoes. Mount Asahi, the highest mountain in the group and the highest in Hokkaido, is 2,290 metres above sea level. Its shape, resembling that of Mount Fuji and trailing far to the foot, is very beautiful to look at from a distance. From its summit can be seen on a fine day all Hokkaido.

Lake Towada In the Ohu district in northern Japan, extending over the two prefectures of Akita and Aomori, Towada Park is distinguished by Lake Towada on the south and Mount Hakkoda on the north. Lake Towada, the second deepest in Japan, is 378 metres deep at the greatest depth. So clear is the water that one can see into it for 18 metres.

The lake, which is 401 metres above sea level is 78.02 square kilometres in area and 46.2 kilometres in circum-

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ference. In origin and scale, the lake resembles Crater Lake in America, but the beauty and variety of scenery here is said to be far superior to that of the American lake.

The Japan Alps (Chubu Sangaku or central mountains) Extending over the prefectures of Nagano, Gifu, Toyama and Niigata in central Japan, the Hida range of mountains is called the Japan Alps after the European Alps because of its similarity in shape and scenery. Mounts Tsubakuro, Shirouma, Yari, Hodaka and Norikura are some of the high peaks, in the upper valleys of which snow may be found even in midsummer. The region is an excellent place for summer mountain climbing and camping.

Kamikochi, probably the most popular spot in the region, is a flat valley in the shape of an S, 1,500 metres above sea level and surrounded by peaks towering an additional 2,000 metres. Through this valley runs the clear-watered Azusa River. The Kurobé Valley on the north is equally known for its majesty. Steep cliffs of great height stand on both sides, running for almost 80 kilometres from south to north. The region is the source of many beautiful streams and cascades which adorn and add colour to the mountain scenery.

Yoshino and Kumano On the Pacific coast of central Japan and extending over the prefectures of Wakayama, Nara and Mié, Yoshino and Kumano Park has the dual beauties of mountains and sea. The park area includes Ominé and Odaigahara mountain ranges, the Kitayama Valley, Toro Glen, Onigajo and the beach.

Yoshino, noted for its cherry blossoms, and the other mountains in the Yoshino range are from 1,000 to 2,000 metres above sea level. One of the highest of the 70 mountains is Mount Ominé, which is visited by 200,000 pilgrims annually. Mount Bukkyo, 1,915 metres above sea level, the highest peak in the region, commands on a fine day a striking view over the surrounding country. The sea coast within the area extends 80 kilometres. At the southern extremity of the Shio promontory stands a 63-foot Shionomisaki lighthouse. Within the park are the Nachi waterfalls, the greatest in Japan with a height of 433 feet, and 48 other waterfalls of varying sizes.

The Inland Sea This sea park lies between the Island of Shikoku and the Chugoku district on the Mainland of Japan, extending to the three prefectures of Hiroshima, Okayama and Kagawa and consisting of numerous islands of all shapes and sizes between Shodo-shima in the east and Abuto in the west. The seascape is ever changing as one voyages on its historic waters. Most of the trans-Pacific liners traverse it and occasional glimpses of its beauty can be had from the trains between Kobé and Shimonoséki. The sea is famous for its great variety of fish and their superior flavour.

The area between Kitaki Island and Shimotsui, dotted here and there by numerous islands of varying sizes, presents the best scenic view in the region.

The Island of Shodo, the largest of the group, is renowned for its scenic beauty, especially its crimson autumnal leaves at Kankakéi Valley. Yashima is known in history as the spot where the military clans of Genji and Héiké staged a decisive battle centuries ago, ending in the victory of the former.

Daisen In the prefectures of Tottori and Okayama, in western Mainland, Daisen Park is the only national park facing the Japan Sea. It includes, besides Mount Daisen, 1,713 metres above sea level, several peaks of similar height. Mount Daisen is called the Fuji of Hoki, because it resembles Mount Fuji in shape when seen from Shimané prefecture. While its western side is graceful, the northern is very imposing and majestic. Numerous rocks of huge size protrude from the ground. Wide plains around the mountain offer the best skiing ground in the Chugoku district.

Mount Aso In the centre of Kyushu, Aso Park consists of Mount Aso, which forms five peaks. Aso is an active volcano, with the largest and most celebrated crater in the world. Being double-cratered, it has a huge depression measuring 16 kilometres from east to west and 20 kilometres from south to north, in the centre of which lies the central crater. Within the large crater are 11 villages where 50,000 people live.

The five Aso peaks have characteristics all their own. Naka Peak has a crater which is very active and emits smoke which ascends furiously. Half way up Éboshi Peak are hot-spring districts, such as Toshita and Tochinoki, 800 metres above sea level.

Unzen In Nagasaki prefecture, Kyushu, the renowned sulphide hot springs of Unzen, discovered in 1661, annually attract many foreigners and Japanese. Unzen is famous for the medicinal properties of its waters. It is regarded as the best summer resort in Kyushu and is also visited for its wild cherry blossoms in spring, its splendid azaleas in

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May, its maple foliage in autumn and its celebrated "Silver Thaw" in winter, when trees and shrubbery are coated with ice are equally famous.

Unzen, consisting of the lower peaks of Unzen, Nodaké, Takaiwa, Kusenbu, Torikabuto, Azuma, Hachimaki, and Bizan, has a feminine beauty of mountain scenery in contrast with the masculine grandeur of Mount Aso.

Mount Kirishima In the prefectures of Miyazaki and Kagoshima, Kyushu, Kirishima Park consists of 22 gracefully shaped volcanic mountains with characteristic craters, lakes, plains, woods and forests. The view from the mountains extends as far as Sakura Island in Kinko Bay, and that toward Mount Aso and Unzen in the distance is extremely beautiful. Kirishima is also rich in folklore, which gives it a touch of romance.

To have the best view, one must go up Mount Karakuni, the highest peak in the group, 1,700 metres above sea level. The woods turn into slopes and farther on comes a huge plain. The crater lake is soon reached, and hence a steep road leads to the summit. Three hours of walking are needed to reach Mount Takachiho. In the neighbourhood of Shinnen and Nakadaké, wild azaleas bloom in May, turning the locality into a veritable flower garden.

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CHAPTER II

POPULATION

General Survey

The outstanding aspects of the population of Japan are that it has virtually trebled in the past 65 years, that the excess of its birth rate over the death rate is one of the highest in the world, and that its density is such that the land within Japan proper leaves scant room for expansion.

The fourth quinquennial national census, taken on October 1, 1935, showed a total population for the Empire of 99,456,818 including Kwantung province, the South Manchuria Railway Zone and the South Sea Mandated Islands. Though lack of statistics makes it impossible to trace the growth with any accuracy from early days, it has been variously estimated that in the 7th and 8th centuries the population ranged between 5,000,000 and 8,000,000 or 9,000,000. Figures compiled at regular intervals between 1721 and 1846, despite their understatement of the actual population because of certain known omissions, indicate comparative stability at about 26,000,000 for more than a century preceding the Meiji Restoration.

The first estimate of population after the Restoration, made in 1872, was roughly 33,000,000. By 1889, the total was 40,000,000, and the 50,000,000 mark was passed in Japan proper about 1909. Each decade showed an accelerated increase :

1870-1880	5%	1900-1910	12%
1880-1890	7.6%	1910-1920	13%
1890-1900	10%	1920-1930	15%

This increase, it is to be noted, started with the opening of the country to world commerce and paralleled Japanese economic expansion. As means of subsistence gained, so did the size of the population. The death rate did not drop appreciably until recent years, but the birth rate, in contrast with that in other leading nations, became higher, jumping from 17 per 1,000 of population in 1872 to 32.36 per 1,000 in 1930, with a peak of 36.2 in 1920.

But the records of the past 5 years show an adverse tendency in the population of Japan proper, the birth rate falling from 33.00 in 1929 to 29.87 in 1934. With a total area of 382,545 square kilometres, Japan proper has a population density of 181 persons to the square kilometre.

In 1935 the average number of the members of a household in Japan proper was 5.1. It differs according to districts. In the eastern districts, from Toyama, Nagano to Hokkaido, it was from 5 to 6, the north-eastern prefectures heading the list with their average of 6. In the western districts, that is to say, Ishikawa, Aichi, Kyoto, Osaka, Chugoku (western prefectures of the Main Island), and Shikoku, it was below 5, the lowest being Yamaguchi and Kochi prefectures with 4.6. Classified in accordance with prefectures, those prefectures which have big cities show a much smaller average, Tokyo being 4.8, Osaka 4.6, Kyoto and Hyogo (Kobé) 4.7. This phenomenon is evidently occasioned by the social and economic conditions in city life which necessitate a small-family system.

POPULATION OF THE EMPIRE
According to the Census of October 1, 1930

	Total Population	Male	Female	Population per sq. km.	Men to 100 Women
Empire	90,396,043	45,675,654	44,720,389	134	102.1
Japan proper	64,450,005	32,390,155	32,059,850	169	101.0
Korea	21,058,305	10,763,679	10,294,626	95	104.6
Formosa	4,592,537	2,353,288	2,239,249	128	105.1
Karafuto	295,196	168,532	126,664	8	133.1
Kwantung Leased Territory and South Manchuria Railway Zone	1,328,011	809,044	518,967	355	155.9
South Sea Mandated Islands	69,626	37,929	31,697	32	119.7

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According to the Census of October 1, 1935

	Total Population	Male	Female	Population per sq. km.	Men to 100 Women
Empire	97,697,555	49,242,822	48,454,733	145	101.6
Japan proper	69,254,148	34,734,133	34,520,015	181	100.6
Korea	22,899,038	11,662,645	11,236,393	104	103.8
Formosa	5,212,426	2,659,819	2,552,607	145	104.2
Karafuto	331,943	186,225	145,718	9	127.8
Kwantung Leased Territory and South Manchuria Railway Zone	1,656,726	995,447	661,279	441	150.5
South Sea Mandated Islands	102,537	57,333	45,204	48	126.8

The average rate of annual increase of population during the five years from 1930 to 1935 in Japan proper was 14.47 per 1,000; 14.06 in male and 14.89 in female. In Chosen it was 16.90, in Taiwan 23.53, in Karafuto 23.75.

The Quinquennial Increase of Population

	1925–1930	1930–1935
Empire	6,939,114	7,301,468
Japan proper	4,713,183	4,804,143
Korea	1,535,360	1,840,390
Formosa	599,129	620,682
Karafuto	91,442	36,753
	1925–1930	1930–1935
Kwantung L. T. and S.M.R. Zone	273,937	328,752
South Sea Mandated Islands	13,332	32,612

1938 Population Censuses have been taken quinquennially since 1920 by the Japanese Government. For the years in which censuses are not taken the Statistics Bureau has been issuing estimates, as of October 1st annually, of the population in Japan proper.

On October 1, 1938, the population of Japan proper, as estimated by the Bureau of Statistics, was 72,222,700, including 36,182,700 males and 36,040,000 females. The total indicates an increase of 969,900 over 1937.

Among Japan's forty-six prefectures and Hokkaido, Tokyo, with a population of 6,963,900, occupies the predominant position, followed by Osaka with 4,765,000. The northern island of Hokkaido takes the next numerical position with 3,226,400 persons, while the prefectures of Hyogo with 3,094,400, Aichi with 3,045,200, Fukuoka with 2,897,100 and Niigata with 2,034,400 follow in order. Shizuoka rose, in this year, to 2 million level with 2,027,600. None of the remaining prefectures had a population of 2,000,000. The totals for nine prefectures were over 1,500,000; Kumamoto and 13 others had over 1,000,000; Wakayama and eight others over 700,000; Saga and four others had over 500,000. Tottori prefecture with a population of 491,200 was lowest in the list.

The number of cities in Japan Proper on October 1st was 148, with an aggregate population of 25,946,700, or 35.9 per cent of the total population. The percentage gained 0.7 over the previous year.

An examination of the trend of population in Japan Proper since 1920 reveals that the first quinquennial period (1920–1925) witnessed an aggregate increase of 3,770,000, or an annual average gain of about 750,000. The increase during the second period (1925–1930) was 4,710,000, or an annual average gain of 940,000 to 950,000. A still more drastic increase of 4,800,000 was recorded in the third period (1930–1935), an annual gain of 950,000 to 960,000 persons.

On the basis of estimates from the 1935 census, it may reasonably be assumed that the population of Japan proper since that date has been increasing at an annual rate of approximately 1,000,000. Similarly it may be assumed that within the next ten years, the population will advance from the present 70,000,000 level to 80,000,000.

That this remarkable expansion of population is attributable mostly to the differences between the birth-rate and mortality rate, or the so-called natural increase of population, is significant. Since immigation has played no part, the increase simply reflects the natural expansion of the Japanese race.

Over 100,000,000 The Cabinet Statistics Bureau gives another estimates on the population of the Empire of Japan as standing on December 1, 1937. According to the estimates the total number of Japanese subjects, including the inhabitants in Japan proper, Korea, Formosa, Karafuto, Kwantung leased territory, the mandated South Sea Islands and foreign countries, reached 103,087,100. It means a treble increase within 65 years since 1872 when it was estimated at 33,000,000, Details follow;

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Estimated Number of the Japanese People on December 1, 1937

Japan Proper	71,372,400	Kwantung L. T.	194,400
Chosen (Korea)	23,640,800	South Sea Islands (mandated)	78,600
Taiwan (Formosa)	5,445,700	Japanese residents in foreign countries	2,016,700
Karafuto (Japanese Saghalien)	338,500	Total	103,087,100

INCREASE OF POPULATION OF JAPAN SINCE THE FIRST NATIONAL CENSUS OF OCTOBER 1, 1920

Year	Population of the Empire: Japan Proper	Population of the Empire: Others	Japan Proper: Births	Japan Proper: Deaths	Japan Proper: Natural Increase
1920	55,963,053	21,025,326	2,025,564	1,422,096	603,468
1925	59,736,822	23,720,107	2,086,091	1,210,706	875,385
1930	64,450,005	28,946,038	2,085,101	1,170,867	914,234
1931	65,366,500	25,354,311	2,102,784	1,240,891	861,893
1932	66,296,000	27,230,234	2,182,742	1,175,344	1,007,398
1933	67,238,600	27,641,765	2,121,253	1,193,987	927,266
1934	68,194,900	28,281,415	2,043,783	1,234,684	809,099
1935	69,254,148	28,443,407	2,190,681	1,162,058	1,028,623
1936	70,258,200	27,821,464	2,101,920	1,230,397	871,523
1937	71,252,800	29,602,604	2,180,734	1,207,899	972,835
1938	72,222,700	—	1,928,321	1,259,805	668,516

Note:—The National Census has been taken four times, quinquennially, since 1920. For intercensal years figures on population are estimates.

PREFECTURAL POPULATIONS
According to the Census of October 1, 1935
(and Estimated Population for 1938)

Prefecture	Area (sq. km.)	Households (Revised)	Population	Population per sq. km.	Estimated Population for 1938
Hokkaido	88,775,036	545,387	3,068,282	35	3,226,400
Aomori	9,630,924	161,823	967,129	100	1,021,000
Iwaté	15,235,306	175,051	1,046,111	69	1,089,600
Miyagi	7,273,754	200,142	1,234,801	170	1,291,700
Akita	11,663,861	175,380	1,037,744	89	1,068,700
Yamagata	9,325,757	184,741	1,116,822	120	1,139,500
Fukushima	13,781,613	272,537	1,581,563	115	1,626,900
Ibaraki	6,090,990	287,676	1,548,991	254	1,587,200
Tochigi	6,436,585	213,082	1,195,057	186	1,228,000
Gumma	6,335,823	225,219	1,242,453	196	1,277,300
Saitama	3,802,700	277,548	1,528,854	402	1,571,900
Chiba	5,078,810	293,939	1,546,394	305	1,593,500
Tokyo	2,144,787	1,287,620	6,369,919	2,970	6,963,900
Kanagawa	2,353,484	358,316	1,840,005	782	1,976,200
Niigata	12,578,050	355,772	1,995,777	159	2,034,400
Toyama	4,257,419	154,911	798,890	188	811,200
Ishikawa	4,197,513	158,110	768,416	183	775,600
Fukui	4,017,969	133,533	646,659	152	664,300
Yamanashi	4,465,866	124,095	646,726	145	656,400
Nagano	13,626,130	332,730	1,714,000	126	1,712,100
Gifu	10,494,701	244,557	1,225,799	117	1,255,100
Shizuoka	7,769,912	348,139	1,939,860	250	2,027,600
Aichi	5,081,142	569,723	2,862,701	563	3,045,200
Mié	5,765,280	239,812	1,174,595	204	1,185,200
Shiga	4,050,929	151,137	711,436	176	723,700
Kyoto	462,196	353,587	1,702,508	368	1,795,000
Osaka	1,813,631	898,059	4,297,174	2,369	4,765,000
Hyogo	8,322,875	611,066	2,923,249	351	3,094,400

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Prefecture	Area (sq. km.)	Households (Revised)	Population	Population per sq. km.	Estimated Population for 1938
Nara	3,688,600	123,886	620,471	168	635,400
Wakayama	4,723,423	184,753	864,087	183	884,700
Tottori	3,489,481	95,080	490,461	141	491,200
Shimané	6,618,042	157,635	747,119	113	751,800
Okayama	7,046,475	281,761	1,332,647	189	1,362,700
Hiroshima	8,436,517	382,243	1,804,916	214	1,874,600
Yamaguchi	6,082,108	259,129	1,190,542	196	1,224,500
Tokushima	4,143,221	145,835	728,748	176	736,300
Kagawa	1,858,730	152,187	748,656	403	758,400
Ehimé	5,667,108	243,083	1,164,898	206	1,179,000
Kochi	7,103,620	156,373	714,980	101	713,000
Fukuoka	4,939,646	533,779	2,755,804	557	2,897,100
Saga	2,443,897	127,717	686,117	280	682,700
Nagasaki	4,075,777	252,998	1,296,883	318	1,336,100
Kumamoto	7,437,723	261,520	1,387,054	186	1,407,500
Oita	6,333,880	195,351	980,458	155	1,001,900
Miyazaki	7,738,846	158,432	824,431	107	864,000
Kagoshima	9,103,810	332,623	1,591,466	175	1,613,000
Okinawa	2,386,288	126,287	592,494	248	601,800
Total	382,314,390	13,504,364	69,254,148	181	72,222,700

Races of the Japanese Empire

The Japanese What constitutes the main part of the population of the Empire is the Japanese. Their number, according to the latest national census of 1930, reaches to about 64,400,000 (32,300,000 males and 32,050,000 females), most of whom occupy the main group of the Japanese archipelago, although they are also found scattered in almost every part of the Empire.

Of late, constant emigration and immigration are taking place between Korea and Japan, but the main population of Korea is Korean and numbers about 20,000,000.

The Ainu inhabit Hokkaido, Chishima (the Kuriles) and the Japanese part of Karafuto (Saghalien).

Most of them are found in Hokkaido, especially in the province of Hitaka, their number being 16,000. In Karafuto there were about 1,500 in 1934; formerly they lived scattered along the sea coasts of Karafuto, but the government policy made a point of collecting them in a few prescribed Ainu villages for the purpose of better protection. Those in Chishima are very few in number. In Hokkaido, as a result of daily contact with the Japanese, they are greatly mixed and are fast changing their customs and manners to accord with the fashion of their Japanese neighbours. In 1935 the total number of the Ainu was 16,389. In 1936 it increased to 16,519. There lived 1,445 in Karafuto in the same year.

As to the position of the Ainu in the ethnic system, there is no consensus of opinion. It was, and still is, a conundrum in anthropology. Years ago the view that the Ainu formed a "Race Island" was put forward by Y. Koganéi.

The Gilyaks, whose home is in the Amur region of Siberia, are also found along the Poronai River in the southern part of the Japanese possession in Saghalien. They call themselves "Nickbun" and were reported in 1936 to be 98 in all. Their affinity with other races is not clear, and they are simply classed as one of the palae-Asiatics.

The Orokes, who inhabit the same region in Saghalien as the Gilyaks, are also immigrants from the mainland of Asia. They are a branch of the Tungusic group, but are said to show a considerable influence of the Ainu, Gilyaks and also of the Russians. The number of the Orokes was 287 in 1936.

The Inhabitants of Formosa may be roughly divided into two groups, one is chiefly made up of the Chinese immigrants from Kwangtung and Fukien provinces and occupies the lowland districts and the western half of the island their number being estimated at 5,109,307 in 1936; and the other is made up of the wild hill-tribes inhabiting the mountainous eastern half, and is the more aboriginal of the two. These, on the basis of physical anthropology, ethnology and linguistics, are usually subdivided into eight tribes, namely: Taiyal, Seddaka, Saiset, Tsuou, Bunun, Paiwan, Ami and Yami. They were estimated

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to be 152,350 and belong either to the Malay or to the Indonesian family.

The Natives of Micronesia Micronesia, which is under our mandatory administration, consists of innumerable small islands, some of which are uninhabited; hence, the native population is only about 50,000. The natives of Saipan, Palau, Yap, Truk, Ponape, Kusaie, Jaluit, etc., constitute the main part of the population. They are usually divided into two ethnic groups. One is known as the Chamorros and is chiefly found in Saipan, although some have emigrated to the the islands of Palau and Yap, and comprised 3,870 in all in 1934. The other, commonly known as the Kanakas, and found scattered in almost every island, numbered 50,524 in 1936.

In addition, it may be said that in the Ogasawara group of islands known as the "Bonin" (corruption of "Mujin" or "Bunin"—uninhabited) there are the naturalized descendants of European and American fishermen, Italian, English, Portuguese, etc., numbering about 120 and these form a sort of foreign settlement of their own.

POPULATION OF JAPAN PROPER BY DIFFERENT NATIONALITIES

(1930 Census)

	In 1930	In 1920
Japanese subjects	64,395,685	55,927,484
Japanese	63,972,025	55,884,992
Koreans	419,009	40,755
Formosans	4,611	1,703
Gilyaks and Orokes	22	31
Westerners in the Bonin	18	3
Foreigners	54,320	35,569
Chinese	39,440	22,427
Russians	3,587	1,714
Americans	3,640	3,966
British	3,144	4,188
Germans	1,228	630
French	694	674
Others	2,587	1,970
Total	64,450,005	55,963,053

Age Distribution

Figures for 64,450,005 persons residing in Japan proper on October 1, 1930, show that those less than 14 years of age, termed juveniles, constitute 37 per cent of the population; those from 15 to 59 inclusive, termed productives, 56 per cent and those of 60 or more, termed the aged, 7 per cent.

The number of juveniles of elementary school age, i.e. from 6 to 14 years, is 20 out of 1,000 of population. Men of 17 to 40 years of age, who are liable to the defence services constitute 36 per cent of the total number of the male; women of 15 to 50, that is, of child bearing age, constitute 48 per cent of the total female population. The number of persons above 14 years of age who come under the judicial law is 66 per cent of the total population.

DISTRIBUTION BY AGE AND MARRIAGE

Japan Proper, on October 1, 1930

	Total			Unmarried	
	Total	Male	Female	Male	Female
Total	64,450,005	32,390,155	32,059,850	18,508,059	16,010,492
Age					
Under 1	1,952,306	985,978	966,328	985,978	966,328
1	1,799,131	906,284	892,847	906,284	892,847
2	1,749,485	882,064	867,421	882,064	867,421
3	1,773,731	892,926	880,805	892,926	880,805
4	1,736,482	876,190	860,292	876,190	860,292
5	1,625,564	818,268	807,296	818,268	807,296
6	1,563,445	787,488	775,957	787,488	775,957
7	1,570,946	791,425	779,521	791,425	779,521
8	1,528,554	770,332	758,222	770,332	758,222
9	1,478,576	747,273	731,303	747,273	731,303
10	1,557,981	787,708	770,273	787,708	770,273
11	1,266,193	638,012	628,181	638,012	628,181
12	1,303,277	657,616	645,661	657,616	645,658
13	1,322,107	668,724	653,383	668,721	653,276
14	1,351,487	684,500	666,987	684,477	666,201
15	1,322,615	670,377	652,238	670,252	646,365
16	1,350,684	687,032	663,652	686,408	644,145
17	1,320,413	670,302	650,111	666,829	599,415
18	1,301,759	659,262	642,497	649,549	540,192

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Age	Total	Total Male	Total Female	Unmarried Male	Unmarried Female
19	1,244,133	631,690	612,443	611,294	444,773
20	1,193,111	607,136	585,975	569,932	344,461
21	1,181,627	593,436	588,191	527,367	266,688
22	2,122,289	568,102	554,187	461,258	188,305
23	1,089,434	557,128	532,306	392,751	137,127
24	945,045	489,604	455,441	290,023	86,171
25	978,773	497,517	481,256	234,023	62,832
26	948,525	487,241	461,284	172,559	44,887
27	980,860	503,125	477,735	133,449	36,935
28	975,245	501,079	474,166	99,368	29,716
29	852,231	491,795	460,436	72,836	24,686
30	895,532	461,605	433,927	51,305	19,663
31	844,932	437,622	407,310	39,718	16,137
32	868,273	446,004	422,269	34,158	15,660
33	811,157	420,519	390,638	27,241	13,162
34	793,771	409,290	384,481	22,721	11,525
35	779,348	404,573	374,775	19,449	10,238
36	741,559	384,820	356,739	16,539	9,229
37	707,038	366,631	340,407	13,608	7,911
38	713,020	368,993	344,027	12,663	7,409
39	643,868	331,888	311,980	10,457	6,830
40	677,835	349,878	327,957	10,062	6,647
41	708,016	364,120	343,896	9,355	6,459
42	671,065	346,957	324,108	8,292	5,676
43	648,262	331,246	317,016	7,114	5,261
44	581,300	295,733	285,567	6,247	4,723
45	606,570	307,629	298,941	6,061	4,866
46	611,517	307,067	304,450	5,514	4,758
47	608,661	303,068	305,593	5,436	4,619
48	603,820	301,051	302,769	5,603	4,703
49	615,695	306,342	309,353	5,554	4,710
50	570,608	285,734	284,874	4,766	4,169
51	588,529	293,312	295,217	4,562	4,230
52	567,530	284,354	283,176	4,290	3,875
53	547,563	271,418	276,145	3,984	3,825
54	556,464	275,758	280,706	3,782	3,757
55	497,866	245,697	252,169	3,429	3,330
56	475,999	233,846	242,153	3,063	3,157
57	456,220	222,549	233,671	2,995	3,034
58	417,517	204,467	213,050	2,864	2,846
59	368,501	179,307	189,194	2,553	2,604
60—64	1,722,085	820,315	901,770	9,653	10,212
65—69	1,255,830	577,193	678,637	5,776	6,556
70—74	926,601	403,984	522,617	3,813	4,456
75—79	551,718	222,451	329,267	1,939	2,512
80—84	245,461	89,183	156,278	663	1,068
85—89	70,163	22,259	47,904	148	336
90—94	11,246	3,061	8,185	16	45
95—99	2,751	586	2,165	5	14
100 and over	105	31	74	1	1

	Married		Widowed		Divorced	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Total	12,477,501	12,516,167	1,115,777	3,150,041	288,818	383,150
Age						
Under 1	—	—	—	—	—	—
1	—	—	—	—	—	—
2	—	—	—	—	—	—
3	—	—	—	—	—	—
4	—	—	—	—	—	—
5	—	—	—	—	—	—
6	—	—	—	—	—	—

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Age	Married		Widowed		Divorced	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
7	—	—	—	—	—	—
8	—	—	—	—	—	—
9	—	—	—	—	—	—
10	—	—	—	—	—	—
11	—	—	—	—	—	—
12	—	3	—	—	—	—
13	3	103	—	—	—	4
14	22	761	—	—	1	25
15	122	5,584	—	23	3	266
16	601	18,541	—	61	23	905
17	3,278	48,402	27	177	168	2,117
18	9,157	97,846	82	422	474	4,037
19	19,290	161,313	127	720	979	5,637
20	35,287	232,778	225	1,190	1,692	7,546
21	63,122	310,252	392	1,919	2,555	9,332
22	102,411	352,923	687	2,682	3,746	10,277
23	157,938	380,743	1,159	3,448	5,280	10,988
24	191,894	354,863	1,517	4,052	6,170	10,355
25	253,609	401,718	2,243	5,303	7,642	11,403
26	303,184	399,044	2,899	6,282	8,599	11,071
27	356,615	421,902	3,726	7,644	9,335	11,254
28	387,223	424,600	4,568	8,678	9,920	11,172
29	404,002	414,815	5,133	9,737	9,824	11,198
30	395,402	393,643	5,584	10,472	9,314	10,149
31	383,448	370,385	5,745	11,376	8,711	9,412
32	396,478	383,077	6,502	13,501	8,866	10,031
33	378,426	354,011	6,649	14,197	8,203	9,268
34	371,805	348,375	6,991	15,772	7,773	8,809
35	369,763	338,086	7,558	17,825	7,803	8,626
36	353,271	320,271	7,766	18,943	7,244	8,296
37	338,262	304,042	7,899	20,585	6,862	7,869
38	340,720	305,259	8,772	23,267	6,838	8,092
39	306,565	274,095	8,786	23,752	6,080	7,303
40	323,198	285,727	10,279	27,908	6,339	7,675
41	336,491	297,032	11,658	32,455	6,616	7,950
42	320,021	277,480	12,459	33,682	6,185	7,270
43	304,882	268,115	13,343	36,233	5,907	7,407
44	270,831	237,037	13,168	36,915	5,487	6,892
45	280,534	245,208	15,310	41,597	5,724	7,270
46	279,102	245,797	16,678	46,434	5,773	7,461
47	273,883	242,574	17,952	50,917	5,797	7,483
48	269,968	235,833	19,511	54,497	5,969	7,736
49	273,166	236,257	21,613	60,607	6,009	7,779
50	253,723	213,019	21,651	60,501	5,594	7,185
51	258,830	215,552	24,211	67,978	5,709	7,457
52	249,495	201,665	25,083	70,495	5,486	7,141
53	236,112	190,978	25,985	74,475	5,337	6,867
54	238,207	188,389	28,252	81,427	5,517	7,133
55	209,933	163,666	27,410	78,936	4,925	6,237
56	198,441	151,971	27,759	81,144	4,583	5,881
57	187,041	140,574	28,223	84,530	4,290	5,533
58	170,197	123,323	27,341	81,985	4,065	4,896
59	147,198	104,462	26,026	77,853	3,530	4,275
60—64	647,384	424,526	147,695	448,862	15,583	18,170
65—69	417,466	237,718	143,871	423,568	10,080	10,795
70—74	252,843	117,442	141,104	394,154	6,224	6,565
75—79	114,593	42,778	103,009	280,737	2,910	3,240
80—84	34,990	9,919	52,665	144,178	865	1,113
85—89	6,287	1,418	15,647	45,905	177	245
90—94	617	154	2,409	7,952	19	34
95—99	162	117	407	2,017	12	17
100 and over	8	1	21	71	1	1

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PERCENTAGE
(In every 10,000 of population)

	Unmarried		Married		Widowed		Divorced	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Total	2,871.7	2,484.2	1,936.0	1,942.0	173.1	488.8	44.8	59.4
Age								
Under 1	153.0	149.9	—	—	—	—	—	—
1	140.6	138.5	—	—	—	—	—	—
2	136.9	134.6	—	—	—	—	—	—
3	138.5	136.7	—	—	—	—	—	—
4	135.9	133.5	—	—	—	—	—	—
5	127.0	125.3	—	—	—	—	—	—
6	122.2	120.4	—	—	—	—	—	—
7	122.8	120.9	—	—	—	—	—	—
8	119.5	117.6	—	—	—	—	—	—
9	115.9	113.5	—	—	—	—	—	—
10	122.2	119.5	—	—	—	—	—	—
11	99.0	97.5	—	—	—	—	—	—
12	102.0	100.2	—	0.0	—	—	—	—
13	103.8	101.4	0.0	0.0	—	—	—	0.0
14	106.2	103.4	0.0	0.1	—	—	0.0	0.0
15	104.0	100.3	0.0	0.9	—	0.0	0.0	0.0
16	106.5	99.9	0.1	2.9	—	0.0	0.0	0.1
17	103.5	93.0	0.5	7.5	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.3
18	100.8	83.8	1.4	15.2	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.6
19	94.8	69.0	3.0	25.0	0.0	0.1	0.2	0.9
20	88.4	53.4	5.5	36.1	0.0	0.2	0.3	1.2
21	81.8	41.4	9.8	48.1	0.1	0.3	0.4	1.4
22	71.6	29.2	15.9	54.8	0.1	0.4	0.6	1.6
23	60.9	21.3	24.5	59.1	0.2	0.5	0.8	1.7
24	45.0	13.4	29.8	55.1	0.2	0.6	1.0	1.6
25	36.3	9.7	39.3	62.3	0.3	0.8	1.2	1.8
26	26.8	7.0	47.0	61.9	0.4	1.0	1.3	1.7
27	20.7	5.7	55.3	65.5	0.6	1.2	1.4	1.7
28	15.4	4.6	60.1	65.9	0.7	1.3	1.5	1.7
29	11.3	3.8	62.7	64.4	0.8	1.5	1.5	1.7
30	8.0	3.1	61.4	61.1	0.9	1.6	1.4	1.6
31	6.2	2.5	59.5	57.5	0.9	1.8	1.4	1.5
32	5.3	2.4	61.5	59.4	1.0	2.1	1.4	1.6
33	4.2	2.0	58.7	54.9	1.0	2.2	1.3	1.4
34	3.5	1.8	57.7	54.1	1.1	2.4	1.2	1.4
35	3.0	1.6	57.4	52.5	1.2	2.8	1.2	1.3
36	2.6	1.4	54.8	49.7	1.2	2.9	1.1	1.3
37	2.1	1.2	52.5	47.2	1.2	3.2	1.1	1.2
38	2.0	1.1	52.9	47.4	1.4	3.6	1.1	1.3
39	1.6	1.1	47.6	42.5	1.4	3.7	0.9	1.1
40	1.6	1.0	50.1	44.3	1.6	4.3	1.0	1.2
41	1.5	1.0	52.2	46.1	1.8	5.0	1.0	1.2
42	1.3	0.9	49.7	43.1	1.9	5.2	1.0	1.1
43	1.1	0.8	47.3	41.6	2.1	5.6	0.9	1.1
44	1.0	0.7	42.0	36.8	2.0	5.7	0.9	1.1
45	0.9	0.8	43.5	38.0	2.4	6.5	0.9	1.1
46	0.9	0.7	43.3	38.1	2.6	7.2	0.9	1.2
47	0.8	0.7	42.5	37.6	2.8	7.9	0.9	1.2
48	0.9	0.7	41.9	36.6	3.0	8.5	0.9	1.2
49	0.9	0.7	42.4	36.7	3.4	9.4	0.9	1.2
50	0.7	0.6	39.4	33.1	3.4	9.4	0.9	1.1
51	0.7	0.7	40.2	33.4	3.8	10.5	0.9	1.2
52	0.7	0.6	38.7	31.3	3.9	10.9	0.9	1.1
53	0.6	0.6	36.6	29.6	4.0	11.6	0.8	1.1
54	0.6	0.6	37.0	29.2	4.4	12.6	0.9	1.1
55	0.5	0.5	32.6	25.4	4.3	12.2	0.8	1.0
	0.5	0.5	30.8	23.6	4.3	12.6	0.8	0.9

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Age	Unmarried		Married		Widowed		Divorced	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
57	0.5	0.5	29.0	21.8	4.4	13.1	0.7	0.9
58	0.4	0.4	26.4	19.1	4.2	12.7	0.6	0.8
59	0.4	0.4	22.8	16.2	4.0	12.1	0.5	0.7
60—64	1.5	1.6	100.4	65.9	22.9	69.6	2.4	2.8
65—69	0.9	1.0	64.8	36.9	22.3	65.7	1.6	1.7
70—74	0.6	0.7	39.2	18.2	21.9	61.2	1.0	1.0
75—79	0.3	0.4	17.8	6.6	16·0	43.6	0.5	0.5
80—84	0.1	0.2	5.4	1.5	8.2	22.4	0.1	0.2
85—89	0.0	0.1	1.0	0.2	2.4	7.1	0.0	0.0
90—94	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.4	1.2	0.0	0.0
95—99	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.3	0.0	0.0
100 and over	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0

1935 Age Distribution According to the Census statistics taken on October 1, 1935, the distributions by age and marriage in the Empire including colonies and Japan proper were as follows:

DISTRIBUTION BY AGE
The Empire on October 1, 1935

Age	Total	Male	Female
Total	99,456,818	50,295,614	49,161,204
Under 1	3,211,161	1,628,399	1,582,762
1	2,856,450	1,444,608	1,411,842
2	2,816,200	1,422,278	1,393,922
3	2,758,311	1,397,321	1,360,990
4	2,619,370	1,324,760	1,294,610
5	2,597,688	1,314,431	1,283,257
6	2,499,601	1,264,055	1,235,546
7	2,471,279	1,252,585	1,218,694
8	2,482,404	1,256,274	1,226,130
9	2,366,509	1,202,558	1,163,951
10	2,329,728	1,179,561	1,150,167
11	2,218,043	1,124,312	1,093,731
12	2,184,707	1,106,309	1,078,398
13	2,193,334	1,111,348	1,081,986
14	2,113,944	1,078,075	1,035,869
15	2,131,382	1,086,861	1,044,521
16	1,807,626	921,726	885,900
17	1,824,730	929,882	894,848
18	1,881,584	957,467	924,117
19	1,862,266	948,427	913,839
20	1,788,083	908,558	879,525
21	1,808,942	912,324	896,618
22	1,750,397	885,020	865,377
23	1,729,025	879,889	849,136
24	1,715,726	877,500	838,226
25	1,594,827	814,093	780,734
26	1,620,854	826,755	794,099
27	1,528,215	785,866	742,349
28	1,455,338	749,951	705,387
29	1,368,541	713,101	655,440
30	1,353,223	695,318	657,905
31	1,247,508	648,368	599,140
32	1,310,019	677,737	632,282
33	1,305,222	675,763	629,459
34	1,291,569	673,108	618,461
35	1,246,298	647,734	598,564
36	1,144,670	597,046	547,624
37	1,211,411	630,717	580,694
38	1,133,901	593,180	540,721
39	1,103,276	574,257	529,019
40	1,063,195	557,854	505,341
41	1,002,997	527,204	475,793
42	946,350	494,315	452,035
43	987,938	514,815	473,123
44	899,664	467,251	432,413
45	933,691	483,961	449,730
46	931,697	481,827	449,870
47	925,902	479,897	446,005
48	872,366	448,068	424,298
49	769,356	393,353	376,003
50	774,375	394,838	379,537
51	795,168	402,170	392,998
52	779,243	389,933	389,310
53	771,376	385,134	386,242
54	793,737	396,102	397,635
55	716,069	355,493	360,576
56	756,936	375,427	381,509
57	677,047	334,325	342,722
58	637,977	311,356	326,621
59	659,753	320,633	389,120
60—64	2,580,507	1,235,165	1,345,342
65—69	1,858,568	849,109	1,009,459
70—74	1,210,924	527,445	683,479
75—79	736,087	297,382	438,705
80—84	324,516	118,198	206,318
85—89	98,240	31,519	66,721
90—94	17,213	4,671	12,542
95—99	2,177	558	1,619
100 and over	387	89	298

DISTRIBUTION BY AGE AND MARRIAGE
Japan Proper, on October 1, 1935

Age	Total			Unmarried	
	Total	Male	Female	Male	Female
Total	69,254,148	34,734,133	34,520,015	20,136,155	17,594,312
Under 1	2,035,909	1,031,081	1,004,828	1,031,081	1,004,828
1	1,846,556	933,210	913,346	933,210	913,346
2	1,845,254	931,018	914,236	931,018	914,236

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Age	Total	Total		Unmarried	
		Male	Female	Male	Female
3	1,818,641	918,975	899,666	918,975	899,666
4	1,782,141	899,717	882,424	899,717	882,424
5	1,724,347	870,382	853,965	870,382	853,965
6	1,705,464	858,901	846,563	858,901	846,563
7	1,690,165	852,881	837,284	852,881	837,284
8	1,721,824	867,527	854,297	867,527	854,297
9	1,689,619	853,572	836,047	853,572	836,047
10	1,617,266	814,735	802,531	814,735	802,531
11	1,540,102	776,991	763,111	776,991	763,107
12	1,547,049	780,365	766,684	780,365	766,670
13	1,515,627	763,582	752,045	763,581	751,936
14	1,465,203	741,101	724,102	741,089	723,484
15	1,534,539	776,367	758,172	776,297	753,092
16	1,252,480	631,960	620,520	631,690	607,605
17	1,276,159	643,259	632,900	641,406	599,708
18	1,281,349	645,384	635,965	640,318	566,814
19	1,296,390	653,743	642,647	641,909	515,634
20	1,253,110	630,192	622,918	606,861	429,080
21	1,235,316	608,136	627,180	563,925	352,706
22	1,205,723	598,567	607,156	518,424	261,009
23	1,212,452	610,643	601,809	471,751	188,761
24	1,164,470	589,245	575,225	390,581	130,010
25	1,121,277	567,214	554,063	308,640	91,642
26	1,117,639	564,031	553,608	237,876	69,429
27	1,065,558	542,553	523,005	172,584	51,395
28	1,031,687	528,353	503,334	126,274	41,448
29	903,922	468,097	435,825	84,558	30,324
30	932,966	474,670	458,296	62,873	24,194
31	902,098	464,869	437,229	47,231	19,248
32	941,022	482,303	458,719	39,603	17,645
33	940,451	483,147	457,304	33,797	15,531
34	916,100	474,503	441,597	28,131	13,557
35	866,706	446,621	420,085	22,193	11,627
36	806,935	419,209	387,726	18,209	9,711
37	832,181	430,075	402,106	17,159	9,832
38	777,287	404,539	372,748	14,259	8,570
39	762,737	393,002	369,735	12,064	7,662
40	740,852	385,265	355,587	10,544	6,953
41	705,226	367,706	337,520	9,460	6,310
42	671,933	349,124	322,809	7,959	5,482
43	677,630	350,381	327,249	8,079	5,541
44	610,370	315,151	295,219	6,824	5,084
45	648,106	333,627	314,479	7,058	5,211
46	668,777	343,211	325,566	6,456	4,972
47	635,550	326,956	308,594	5,807	4,569
48	611,585	311,132	300,453	5,046	4,308
49	548,816	276,253	272,563	4,406	3,838
50	569,109	286,472	282,637	4,244	3,879
51	571,336	284,261	287,075	4,030	3,894
52	566,780	279,110	287,670	4,066	3,861
53	560,088	276,434	283,654	4,288	3,983
54	565,562	278,099	287,463	4,241	3,926
55	525,500	258,825	266,675	3,771	3,635
56	534,043	261,471	272,572	3,553	3,623
57	515,440	252,886	262,554	3,472	3,467
58	496,261	240,876	255,385	3,537	3,708
59	499,893	241,034	258,859	3,298	3,510
60—64	1,930,611	916,820	1,013,791	11,609	13,083
65—69	1,387,092	630,008	757,084	6,396	7,820
70—74	913,423	394,223	519,200	3,051	3,811
75—79	561,804	224,829	336,975	1,633	2,059

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Age	Total	Total		Unmarried	
		Male	Female	Male	Female
80—84	263,979	95,043	168,936	546	830
85—89	82,255	25,930	56,325	129	287
90—94	14,621	3,884	10,737	11	41
95—99	1,557	362	1,195	2	6
100 and over	228	40	188	1	3

	Married		Widowed		Divorced	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Total	13,133,831	13,174,225	1,169,236	3,357,603	294,861	393,875
Age						
Under 1	—	—	—	—	—	—
1	—	—	—	—	—	—
2	—	—	—	—	—	—
3	—	—	—	—	—	—
4	—	—	—	—	—	—
5	—	—	—	—	—	—
6	—	—	—	—	—	—
7	—	—	—	—	—	—
8	—	—	—	—	—	—
9	—	—	—	—	—	—
10	—	—	—	—	—	—
11	—	4	—	—	—	—
12	—	14	—	—	—	—
13	1	103	—	—	—	1
14	12	608	—	2	—	8
15	67	4,896	—	34	3	150
16	258	12,396	—	89	12	430
17	1,752	31,890	26	145	75	1,157
18	4,786	66,687	52	285	228	2,179
19	11,309	122,963	72	516	453	3,534
20	22,320	188,007	143	896	868	4,935
21	42,499	266,227	254	1,526	1,458	6,721
22	77,254	335,572	475	2,345	2,414	8,230
23	133,928	398,965	999	3,755	3,965	10,328
24	191,841	429,408	1,458	4,708	5,365	11,099
25	250,011	444,725	2,029	5,797	6,534	11,899
26	315,758	464,558	2,823	7,430	7,574	12,191
27	357,864	450,748	3,567	8,775	8,538	12,087
28	388,937	440,053	4,244	9,884	8,898	11,949
29	370,033	384,311	4,661	10,226	8,845	10,964
30	397,475	410,796	5,285	11,981	9,037	11,325
31	402,656	393,859	5,838	13,437	9,144	10,685
32	426,625	414,435	6,533	15,638	9,542	11,001
33	432,382	413,162	7,429	17,452	9,539	11,159
34	429,029	398,788	7,977	18,581	9,366	10,671
35	407,316	378,217	8,137	20,262	8,975	9,979
36	384,489	348,272	8,423	20,708	8,088	9,035
37	394,736	358,605	9,696	24,085	8,484	9,584
38	372,635	330,287	9,630	24,912	8,015	8,979
39	362,765	326,041	10,665	27,438	7,508	8,594
40	356,130	310,618	11,229	29,744	7,362	8,272
41	339,241	291,571	11,895	31,486	7,110	8,153
42	322,276	276,534	12,363	33,258	6,521	7,535
43	322,107	276,769	13,601	87,171	6,594	7,768
44	288,734	246,044	13,583	37,139	6,010	6,952
45	304,584	258,330	15,660	43,522	6,325	7,416
46	312,764	263,911	17,729	49,020	6,262	7,663
47	296,500	246,432	18,552	50,521	6,097	7,072
48	281,089	235,441	19,292	53,742	5,705	6,962
49	247,420	203,113	19,129	54,122	5,298	6,490

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Age	Married		Widowed		Divorced	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
50	255,396	212,097	21,372	60,022	5,460	6,639
51	251,757	209,932	23,116	66,510	5,358	6,739
52	245,176	205,271	24,655	71,685	5,213	6,853
53	240,190	197,078	26,474	75,789	5,482	6,804
54	240,092	194,506	28,424	82,324	5,342	6,707
55	221,403	174,448	28,707	82,253	4,944	6,339
56	221,924	173,077	31,078	89,459	4,916	6,413
57	212,254	160,726	32,287	92,203	4,873	6,158
58	200,117	149,440	32,640	96,465	4,582	5,772
59	197,703	144,885	35,379	104,575	4,654	5,889
60—64	724,610	491,354	163,458	488,248	17,143	21,106
65—69	456,404	259,658	156,581	476,542	10,627	13,064
70—74	252,318	118,130	132,871	390,276	5,983	6,983
75—79	118,342	42,571	101,973	288,899	2,881	3,446
80—84	38,228	10,820	55,290	155,911	979	1,375
85—89	7,517	1,678	18,092	54,001	192	359
90—94	744	148	3,110	10,481	19	67
95—99	62	35	297	1,151	1	3
100 and over	11	6	28	177	—	2

Vocational Distribution

According to the census of 1930, the percentage of the unoccupied was 54 per cent, that of persons actually engaged in agriculture was 22 per cent, in industry 9 per cent, and in commerce 7 per cent of the total population in Japan proper. Details follow:

VOCATIONAL DISTRIBUTION

Japan Proper

(October 1, 1930)

	Total	%	Male	Female	Number of Households investigated	People who belong to the Households	%
Total Population	64,450,005	100	32,390,155	32,059,850	11,655,206	60,365,705	100.0
Occupied	29,619,640	46	19,030,237	10,589,403	11,036,968	57,838,718	95.8
Agriculture	14,140,107	22	7,743,065	6,397,042	4,743,519	27,159,448	44.9
Fisheries	546,624	0.9	501,078	45,546	257,082	1,394,623	2.3
Mining	251,220	0.4	210,174	41,046	168,582	797,848	1.3
Industries	5,699,581	8.9	4,269,151	1,430,430	2,297,639	11,226,984	18.6
Commerce	4,478,098	7.0	3,013,903	1,464,195	2,096,452	10,443,214	17.3
Transportation and Communications	1,107,574	1.7	1,028,595	78,979	507,530	2,325,230	3.8
Officials, Educators, Writers, etc.	2,044,151	3.1	1,691,803	352,348	885,458	4,160,377	6.9
Domestic	781,319	1.2	84,203	697,116	45,996	183,024	0.3
Miscellaneous	570,966	0.8	488,265	82,701	34,710	147,970	0.2
Unoccupied	34,830,365	54	13,359,918	21,470,447	618,238	2,526,987	4.

	Total	Male
Total Population	64,450,005	32,390,155
Occupied	29,619,640	19,030,237
Agriculture	14,140,107	7,743,065
On the farm	13,549,491	7,453,883
Stock-raising	60,630	44,637
Sericulture	354,644	99,404
Forestry	175,342	145,141
Fisheries	546,624	501,078
Mining	251,220	210,174
Coal mines	182,558	147,134
Mineral mines	31,873	28,424
Oil-fields	2,845	2,768
Stone-pits	33,944	31,848
Industries	5,699,581	4,269,151
Ceramics and stone cutting	169,414	141,205
Metal, Machinery, Shipbuilding, etc.	705,395	685,555
Precision machinery	57,921	55,345
Chemical	127,537	102,279
Spinning	1,361,153	434,705
Clothes	497,695	317,392

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	Total	Male
Paper and Printing	265,263	227,623
Leather, Brush	33,119	28,602
Bamboo, Mat, etc.	703,325	635,981
Salt	21,848	18,222
Foodstuffs	446,803	342,333
Building, etc.	1,000,078	996,567
Gas, Electric, etc.	128,624	128,486
Other industries	181,406	154,856
Commerce	4,478,098	3,013,903
Wholesale and retail	3,255,215	2,511,073
Banking and insurance	61,843	56,756
Entertainments	1,161,040	446,074
Transportation and Communications	1,107,574	1,028,595
Transportation	935,922	904,732
Communications	171,652	123,863
Officials and Free Occupation	2,044,151	1,691,803
Officials, civil	436,293	420,005
Army and Navy officers on service	242,796	242,796
Judicial	7,492	7,492
Educational	327,192	225,305
Religious	151,248	126,776
Medical	266,637	126,569
Secretarial and Scrivener	439,418	399,405
Writers, Artists, Actors, etc.	114,773	89,841
Others	58,302	53,614
Domestic	781,319	84,203
Miscellaneous	570,966	488,265
Unoccupied	34,830,365	13,359,918
Those who have income	190,836	120,194
Children, the aged, etc.	34,639,529	13,239,724

POPULATION CLASSIFIED ACCORDING TO THE SIZE OF HOUSEHOLD

(Census taken on Oct. 1, 1930)

		%
Total number of households investigated	12,600,276	100.0
Total number of members	62,760,821	—

Members per household	No. of Households	%
1	694,063	5.5
2	1,480,773	11.7
3	1,870,115	14.8
4	1,905,489	15.5
5	1,826,367	14.4
6.	1,596,536	12.6
7	1,243,343	9.8
8	851,617	6.7
9	516,311	4.0
10	297,722	2.5
11 and over	317,940	2.6

ACCORDING TO THE SIZE OF THEIR DWELLINGS

		Percentage of Household
Total number of households investigated	12,557,931	100.0
Total number of members	62,630,774	—

Households living dwellings which consist of	Households	Persons	
Less than 1 room	6,147	11,357	0.04
1 room	1,398,960	4,442,016	11.14
2 rooms	3,114,387	12,924,735	24.80
3 rooms	2,576,473	12,680,718	20.51
4 rooms	2,721,291	14,931,173	21.67
5 rooms	1,382,189	8,395,507	11.00
6 rooms	686,361	4,416,294	5.46
7 rooms	310,060	2,114,638	2.46
8 rooms	159,105	1,124,188	1.26
9 rooms	77,729	567,068	0.61
10 rooms	49,667	379,706	0.39
11 rooms or more	75,562	643,374	0.60

Marriages and Divorces

In 1937 the number of marriages in Japan proper was 674,500, an increase of 115,384 as compared with the previous year. The number of marriages per 1,000 population was 9.47 or 1.65 higher than the previous year. The number

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of divorces in the same year was 46,500 or 333 more than in 1936. The number of divorces per 1,000 population was 0.65 or 0.01 lower than the previous year. Before 1920 the number of divorces surpassed the 100,000 mark in a year and the proportion per 1,000 population was from 2.0 at the lowest to 3.0 at the highest, but it has kept a rate lower than 1.0 since 1920.

Year	Marriages	Divorces	Proportion per 1,000 population Marriages	Divorces
1933	486,058	40,282	7.23	0.73
1934	512,654	48,610	7.52	0.71
1935	556,730	48,528	8.04	0.70
1936	549,116	46,167	7.82	0.66
1937	674,500	46,500	9.47	0.65
1938	538,831	44,656	7.46	0.62

MARRIAGES BY AGE GROUPS

Husbands

Year	1928	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936	1937
Under 19	11,654	10,617	9,896	8,467	7,734	6,635	6,186	5,775	5,022	5,004
20-24	146,627	142,225	145,421	144,234	145,917	130,569	131,592	136,871	127,360	148,047
25-29	202,217	204,513	209,552	205,747	214,886	205,402	223,695	250,418	255,849	313,497
30-34	68,419	69,012	70,638	70,903	77,421	73,934	78,274	85,506	83,382	111,989
35-39	28,629	28,299	28,718	27,893	29,299	29,129	30,075	32,547	32,438	45,427
40-49	27,431	27,664	27,565	24,948	25,303	25,454	26,967	28,635	28,430	31,653
50-59	10,535	10,942	10,755	10,397	10,720	10,740	11,441	12,111	11,666	13,029
Over 60	4,043	4,138	4,129	3,985	3,990	4,195	4,424	4,867	4,969	5,854
Total	499,555	497,410	506,674	496,574	515,270	486,058	512,654	566,730	549,116	674,500

Wives

Year	1928	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936	1937
Under 15	27	27	34	26	37	19	38	28	15	30
15-19	117,694	109,115	105,467	96,039	92,064	80,592	78,091	79,058	72,492	83,702
20-24	243,966	250,233	263,962	267,714	279,728	263,644	280,497	305,857	301,948	357,288
25-29	78,086	77,795	77,755	76,528	83,836	83,152	92,582	105,956	109,613	146,325
30-34	27,420	27,656	27,432	26,155	28,567	27,181	27,975	30,272	29,660	41,929
35-39	13,297	12,963	12,797	12,395	13,044	13,320	13,867	14,968	14,767	19,734
40-49	13,223	13,557	13,049	11,759	12,017	11,987	12,966	13,487	13,596	16,894
50-59	4,735	4,926	5,087	4,868	4,886	4,999	5,373	5,710	5,524	6,687
Over 60	1,047	1,138	1,091	1,090	1,091	1,161	1,265	1,394	1,501	1,911
Total	499,555	497,410	506,674	496,574	515,270	486,058	512,654	556,730	549,116	674,500

PROPORTION PER 1,000 MARRIAGES

Husbands

Year	1926	1927	1928	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935
Under 19	26.5	25.4	23.3	21.3	19.5	17.1	15.0	13.7	12.1	10.4
20-24	313.0	302.2	293.5	285.9	287.0	290.5	283.2	268.6	256.7	245.8
25-29	379.2	393.4	404.8	411.2	413.6	414.3	417.0	422.6	436.3	449.8
30-34	134.4	133.7	137.0	138.7	139.4	142.8	150.3	152.1	152.7	153.6
35-39	60.1	58.9	57.3	56.9	56.7	56.2	56.9	59.9	58.7	58.5
40-49	57.3	56.3	54.9	55.6	54.4	50.2	49.1	52.4	52.6	51.5
50-59	21.4	21.8	21.1	22.0	21.2	20.9	20.8	22.1	22.3	21.8
Over 60	8.1	8.3	8.1	8.3	8.1	8.0	7.7	8.6	8.6	8.7
Total	1,000.0	1,000.0	1,000.0	1,000.0	1,000.0	1,000.0	1,000.0	1,000.0	1,000.0	1,000.0

Wives

Year	1926	1927	1928	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935
Under 15	0.3	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.1	0.1
15-19	246.0	247.2	235.6	219.4	208.2	193.4	178.7	165.8	152.3	142.0
20-24	476.8	475.3	488.4	503.1	521.0	539.1	542.9	542.4	547.1	549.4
25-29	154.8	155.7	156.3	156.4	153.5	154.1	162.7	171.1	180.6	190.3
30-34	55.1	54.7	55.0	55.6	54.1	52.7	55.4	55.9	54.6	54.4
35-39	27.7	26.9	26.6	26.1	25.3	25.0	25.3	27.4	27.0	26.9
40-49	28.0	27.9	26.5	27.3	25.8	23.7	23.3	24.7	25.3	24.2

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Wives

Year	1926	1927	1928	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935
50-59	9.3	10.0	9.5	9.9	10.0	9.8	9.5	10.3	10.5	10.3
Over 60	2.1	2.2	2.1	2.3	2.2	2.2	2.1	2.4	2.5	2.6
Total	1,000.0	1,000.0	1,000.0	1,000.0	1,000.0	1,000.0	1,000.0	1,000.0	1,000.0	1,000.0

Births and Deaths

The natural increase of population or the excess of births over deaths has become greater with the advance of years. For several years since 1910 the natural increase kept to the 700,000 mark. In 1916 and 1917 it decreased a little, and in 1918 it reached the lowest figure of 300,000, largely due to the prevalence of a severe influenza epidemic. In 1919, however, the increase regained, reaching the 500,000 mark, and it continued to increase till the 940,000 mark was attained in 1926. There have been ups and downs since, but 1932 was a record year, registering an increase of 1,007,000, the million mark being attained for the first time. In 1935 a new record was established with 1,028,768. But 1936 recorded 871,691.

BIRTHS AND DEATHS

Japan Proper

				Rate per 1,000 of Population		
	Births	Deaths	Excess of Births over Deaths	Births	Deaths	Excess of Births over Deaths
1927	2,060,737	1,214,323	846,414	33.61	19.81	13.81
1928	2,135,852	1,236,711	899,141	34.38	19.91	14.47
1929	2,077,026	1,261,228	815,798	33.00	20.04	12.96
1930	2,085,101	1,170,867	914,234	32.36	18.17	14.19
1931	2,102,784	1,240,891	861,893	32.17	18.98	13.19
1932	2,182,742	1,175,344	1,007,398	32.92	17.73	15.19
1933	2,121,253	1,193,987	927,266	31.55	17.76	13.79
1934	2,043,783	1,234,684	809,099	29.97	18.11	11.86
1935	2,190,704	1,161,936	1,028,768	31.63	16.78	14.85
1936	2,101,969	1,230,278	871,691	29.92	17.51	12.41
1937	2,180,734	1,207,899	972,835	30.61	16.95	13.65
1938	1,928,321	1,259,805	668,516	26.70	17.44	9.26

BIRTHS AND STILL-BIRTHS

Year	Total	Births (Infants living) Legitimate		Illegitimate	
		Male	Female	Male	Female
1927	2,060,737	977,205	939,545	71,741	72,246
1928	2,135,852	1,018,477	974,168	72,225	70,982
1929	2,077,026	989,627	949,351	69,039	69,009
1930	2,085,101	1,001,441	949,438	68,110	66,111
1931	2,102,784	1,006,360	963,502	67,025	65,897
1932	2,182,742	1,050,185	999,016	67,769	65,772
1933	2,121,253	1,022,150	970,041	65,538	63,524
1934	2,043,783	981,451	940,178	61,285	60,869
1935	2,190,704	1,060,007	1,005,526	62,860	62,310
1936	2,101,969	1,017,497	967,727	58,700	58,045

Year	Still Births Total	Infants (Legitimate)	Infants (Illegitimate)	Percentage Males to 100 Females Births	Living Births (per 100 births)	Still Births
1926	124,038	92.9	7.1	105.8	94.4	5.6
1927	116,922	93.0	7.0	103.7	94.6	5.4
1928	120,191	93.3	6.7	104.4	94.7	5.3
1929	116,971	93.4	6.6	104.0	94.7	5.3

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Year	Still Births Total	Infants (Legitimate)	Infants (Illegitimate)	Percentage Males to 100 Females Births	Living Births (per 100 births)	Still Births
1930	117,730	93.6	6.4	105.3	94.7	5.3
1931	116,509	93.7	6.3	104.3	94.8	5.2
1932	119,579	93.9	6.1	105.0	94.8	5.2
1933	114,138	93.9	6.1	105.2	94.9	5.1
1934	113,043	94.0	6.0	104.2	94.8	5.2
1935	115,593	94.3	5.7	105.2	95.0	5.0
1936	111,056	94.4	5.6	104.9	95.0	5.0

Note: On the details of deaths see Chaptery XXXII. The illegitimate largely include births between couples who form homes yet unregistered.

Expectation of Life

The following table prepared by the Government Bureau of Statistics gives the average expectation of life for Japanese people of both sexes, and is based on the vital statistics for a period from 1926 to 1930.

EXPECTATION OF LIFE
Average of 1926-1930

Age	Male	Female	Age	Male	Female	Age	Male	Female
Under 1	44.82	46.54	35	29.61	32.53	70	7.43	8.88
1	51.07	52.10	36	28.83	31.83	71	7.03	8.38
2	52.35	53.37	37	28.05	31.13	72	6.66	7.91
3	52.54	53.59	38	27.28	30.43	73	6.29	7.46
4	55.33	53.43	39	26.51	29.72	74	5.94	7.01
5	51.85	53.00	40	25.74	29.01	75	5.61	6.59
6	51.18	52.37	41	22.99	28.30	76	5.29	6.18
7	50.42	51.65	42	24.23	27.59	77	4.98	5.79
8	49.62	50.86	43	23.49	26.86	78	4.69	5.42
9	48.79	50.03	44	22.75	26.13	79	4.41	5.07
10	47.93	49.18	45	22.02	25.39	80	4.15	4.73
11	47.05	48.33	46	21.30	24.64	81	3.90	4.41
12	46.17	47.48	47	20.58	23.90	82	3.66	4.11
13	45.28	46.62	48	19.88	23.15	83	3.43	3.82
14	44.41	45.84	49	19.18	22.41	84	3.22	3.55
15	43.58	45.11	50	18.49	21.67	85	3.02	3.30
16	42.79	44.44	51	17.81	20.94	86	2.83	3.06
17	42.07	43.82	52	17.14	20.22	87	2.65	2.83
18	41.40	43.24	53	16.49	19.50	88	2.48	2.62
19	40.78	42.67	54	15.84	18.79	89	2.32	2.43
20	40.18	42.12	55	15.21	18.09	90	2.17	2.24
21	39.57	41.56	56	14.58	17.39	91	2.03	2.07
22	38.95	41.00	57	13.97	16.70	92	1.89	1.91
23	38.32	40.43	58	13.38	16.02	93	1.77	1.76
24	37.67	39.84	59	12.79	15.34	94	1.65	1.63
25	37.01	39.23	60	12.23	14.68	95	1.55	1.50
26	36.33	38.61	61	11.67	14.04	96	1.45	1.39
27	35.63	37.97	62	11.14	13.40	97	1.35	1.28
28	34.91	37.32	63	10.62	12.78	98	1.26	1.19
29	34.18	36.66	64	10.12	12.17	99	1.18	1.09
30	33.43	35.98	65	9.64	11.58	100	1.09	1.01
31	32.68	35.30	66	9.17	11.01	101	0.99	0.91
32	31.92	34.62	67	8.72	10.45	102	0.84	0.49
33	31.15	33.93	68	8.27	9.91			
34	30.38	33.23	69	7.84	9.38			

Urbanization

As in other countries where industry is of importance, Japan has experienced a shift of population from the country-side to the towns and cities. Concur-

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rently, municipalities have amalgamated to form larger units. The following tables show the trend toward larger urban centres; the first, the increase in the number of municipalities of large population, and the second, the increase in the proportion of the population residing in these larger municipalities. For 1920, 1925, 1930 and 1935, the figures are based on the national censuses of these years, but the earlier figures depend on less comprehensive statistics compiled by local authorities.

CITIES, TOWNS AND VILLAGES CLASSIFIED
According to Population

	1935	1930	1925	1920	1913	1908	1903	1898
Total Number	11,546	11,865	12,019	12,244	12,356	12,457	13,323	14,027
Population up to 499	64	70	82	126	163	228	461	646
500—999	250	258	265	304	306	360	512	738
1,000—1,999	2,015	2,092	2,277	2,354	1,982	2,190	2,667	3,311
2,000—4,999	6,564	6,886	7,052	7,264	7,584	7,652	8,065	8,018
5,000—9,999	1,953	1,878	1,734	1,639	1,852	1,654	1,343	1,081
10,000—19,999	466	426	392	374	335	268	185	152
20,000—29,999	86	93	78	76	55	35	25	33
30,000—39,999	44	38	36	40	25	26	33	25
40,000—49,999	16	27	31	20	17	15	7	3
50,000—99,999	54	65	51	31	26	19	16	12
Above 100,000	34	32	21	16	11	10	9	8

DISTRIBUTION PER 1,000 OF POPULATION IN CITIES, TOWNS AND VILLAGES[1]

Size of Communities	Oct. 1, 1935	Oct. 1, 1930	Oct. 1, 1925	Oct. 1, 1920	End of 1913	End of 1908	End of 1903	End of 1898
up to 499	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.6	0.8	1.1	2.3	3.5
500—990	2.9	3.2	3.6	4.3	4.3	5.3	8.1	12.4
1,000—1,999	46.3	51.8	60.9	67.2	57.6	67.6	87.3	115.2
2,000—4,999	305.2	343.2	377.2	412.2	441.6	469.2	518.1	540.5
5,000—9,999	186.8	193.5	192.1	193.4	219.6	207.5	177.2	151.3
10,000—19,999	90.3	88.7	87.5	90.7	81.6	69.3	50.7	44.1
20,000—29,999	29.8	34.2	30.3	32.3	23.6	16.3	12.4	17.5
30,000—39,999	21.5	20.1	20.9	25.1	16.1	17.8	23.3	18.7
40,000—49,999	10.7	18.5	23.1	15.9	13.5	12.8	6.3	2.8
50,001—99,999	53.2	68.3	57.7	37.6	33.6	26.1	22.2	17.0
Above 100,000	253.0	178.2	146.3	120.7	107.7	107.0	92.1	77.0

1. For administrative purposes, all of Japan proper is divided into cities, towns and villages, persons residing in what would be known as rural districts in other countries belonging, as the case may be, to the nearest cities, towns and villages.

In October, 1935, there were 127 cities in Japan proper, which meant an increase of 4 every year since the 1930 census. According to the census on October 1, 1935, the number of major cities which have more than 100,000 population was 34, including 4 cities which have more than 1,000,000, Tokyo leading others with 5,875,667. The total urban population comprises 22,655,920 or 32.7 per cent of the population of Japan proper. In 1938, there were 148 cities with an aggregate population of 25,946,700 or 35.9 per cent of the total estimated population 72,222,700 on October 1. The rapid growth of cities may be proved from the fact that the rate of increase of population in cities is much higher than that of Japan proper, as is shown below:

	Population		Quinquennial Increase		Rate of Increase	
	Japan proper	Cities	Japan proper	Cities	Japan proper	Cities
1925	59,739,822	16,606,809	3,773,769	2,697,504	6.7	19.39
1930	64,450,005	19,439,405	4,713,183	2,832,596	7.9	17.06
1935	69,254,148	22,655,920	4,804,143	3,216,515	7.4	16.54
1936 (estimate)	70,258,200	23,620,200				
1937 („)	71,252,800	25,109,400				
1938 („)	72,222,700	25,946,700				

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NUMBER OF CITIES, TOWNS AND VILLAGES IN JAPAN PROPER

(On April 1, each year)

	Cities	Towns	Villages
1889	39	715	12,632
1898	52	1,169	13,557
1908	66	1,164	11,233
1913	69	1,246	11,033
1920	83	1,366	10,782
1925	100	1,510	10,451
1930	109	1,702	9,980
1934	124	1,683	9,788
1935	127	1,702	9,721
1936	129	1,720	9,662
1937	141	1,707	9,568

A village is an administrative unit consisting of several villages.

CITIES IN JAPAN PROPER

Census of October 1, 1935 and Estimates for 1938

		Population in 1935 (Census)	Population in 1938 (Estimate)
1.	Tokyo	5,875,667	6,457,600
2.	Osaka	2,989,874	3,321,200
3.	Nagoya	1,082,816	1,224,100
4.	Kyoto	1,080,593	1,159,800
5.	Kobé	912,179	989,100
6.	Yokohama	704,290	777,500
7.	Hiroshima	310,118	334,600
8.	Fukuoka	291,158	316,400
9.	Kuré	231,333	256,700
10.	Sendai	219,547	234,200
11.	Nagasaki	211,702	229,700
12.	Yawata	208,629	237,900
13.	Hakodaté	207,480	213,800
14.	Shizuoka	200,737	216,800
15.	Sapporo	196,541	210,300
16.	Kumamoto	187,382	201,400
17.	Yokosuka	182,871	211,900
18.	Kagoshima	181,736	191,200
19.	Wakayama	179,732	191,600
20.	Sasébo	173,283	213,400
21.	Okayama	166,144	176,900
22.	Kanazawa	163,733	191,600
23.	Kawasaki	154,748	214,400
24.	Otaru	153,587	159,000
25.	Sakai	141,286	175,700
26.	Toyohashi	140,735	142,000
27.	Niigata	134,992	141,100
28.	Hamamatsu	133,338	163,600
29.	Shimonoséki	132,737	162,100
30.	Gifu	128,721	135,700
31.	Moji	121,611	129,900
32.	Kokura	110,372	144,100
33.	Omuta	104,992	109,800
34.	Kochi	103,405	105,400
35.	Tokushima	97,021	127,800
36.	Aomori	93,414	100,400
37.	Kurumé	91,920	97,400
38.	Himeji	91,375	106,700
39.	Asahigawa	91,021	93,400
40.	Nishinomiya	89,909	100,900
41.	Maébashi	87,181	88,600
42.	Utsunomiya	87,129	90,700
43.	Takamatsu	86,840	91,100
44.	Toyama	83,324	92,500
45.	Kofu	82,664	106,400
46.	Matsuyama	81,940	81,600
47.	Nagano	77,325	79,400
48.	Okazaki	77,195	84,400
49.	Ubé	76,642	83,500
50.	Kiryu	76,145	96,300
51.	Fukui	75,273	100,200
52.	Wakamatsu (Fukuoka prefecture)	73,345	77,800
53.	Matsumoto	73,353	74,100
54.	Amagasaki	71,072	147,300
55.	Otsu	71,063	78,300
56.	Yamagata	69,931	72,300
57.	Morioka	69,130	73,400
58.	Tobata	67,800	77,800
59.	Tsu	65,971	70,500
60.	Naha	65,208	68,100
61.	Muroran	65,095	70,800
62.	Miyazaki	64,726	68,300
63.	Takasaki	64,283	67,000
64.	Mito	63,816	65,700
65.	Beppu	62,345	65,500
66.	Hachinohé	62,210	67,900
67.	Nagaoka	62,152	64,800
68.	Oita	61,732	64,500
69.	Shimizu	61,123	64,500
70.	Akita	60,646	63,200
71.	Hachioji	59,494	64,200
72.	Yokkaichi	58,471	62,600
73.	Fukuyama	58,186	60,500
74.	Chiba	57,446	91,500
75.	Takaoka	57,249	58,900
76.	Nobéoka	56,421	95,100
77.	Kushiro	56,170	59,000
78.	Nara	55,968	57,900
79.	Koriyama	54,709	56,800
80.	Kawaguchi	53,716	61,400
81.	Ichinomiya	53,376	60,300
82.	Ujiyamada	52,494	53,400
83.	Matsué	52,033	54,000
84.	Imabari	51,602	53,800
85.	Uwajima	51,280	51,600
86.	Yonezawa	50,448	54,000
87.	Saga	50,154	52,600
88.	Numazu	49,824	53,400
89.	Ogaki	49,273	55,900
90.	Ashikaga	48,875	51,900

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		Population in 1935 (Census)	Population in 1938 (Estimate)
91.	Fukushima	48,484	50,200
92.	Choshi	48,352	64,800
93.	Séto	47,553	53,900
94.	Ichikawa	46,711	52,200
95.	Wakamatsu (Fukushima prefecture)	46,199	50,300
96.	Hirosaki	46,014	52,800
97.	Tottori	45,335	50,400
98.	Urawa	44,328	48,900
99.	Nogata	43,943	46,300
100.	Akashi	42,644	44,900
101.	Iizuka	39,629	39,400
102.	Kishiwada	39,097	45,200
103.	Hiratsuka	38,348	41,300
104.	Kumagaya	37,649	38,700
105.	Tsuruoka	37,224	39,000
106.	Yonago	36,635	46,600
107.	Miyakonojo	36,575	62,200
108.	Tsuyama	36,092	37,300
109.	Obihiro	35,695	40,400
110.	Matsuzaka	35,661	37,200
111.	Uéda	35,380	35,500
112.	Kawagoé	35,192	35,800
113.	Yamaguchi	34,803	36,300
114.	Kurashiki	34,716	37,600
115.	Sanjo	34,649	36,700
116.	Ishinomaki	33,530	35,300
117.	Hagi	32,587	32,900
118.	Shingu	32,055	34,000
119.	Sakata	31,866	32,800
120.	Takada	31,284	31,500
121.	Karatsu	31,058	32,200
122.	Onomichi	30,777	49,800
123.	Yawatahama	30,500	31,400
124.	Nakatsu	30,328	31,400
125.	Kainan	29,917	30,700
126.	Marugamé	29,615	30,100
127.	Shuri	19,305	18,900
128.	Okaya	—	33,600
129.	Toyonaka	24,126	44,300
130.	Takayama	20,145	31,300
131.	Mihara	21,130	43,000
132.	Kamaishi	36,230	39,700
133.	Taira	25,741	29,600
134.	Tochigi	31,335	32,400
135.	Funabashi	26,449	46,800
136.	Tsuruga	26,828	33,000
137.	Iida	17,991	29,200
138.	Atami	17,768	25,300
139.	Handa	18,217	49,800
140.	Kuwana	28,366	38,800
141.	Hikoné	23,366	36,300
142.	Fukuchiyama	22,895	32,700
143.	Fusé	48,696	116,200
144.	Tokuyama	32,062	37,800
145.	Bōfu	30,606	55,900
146.	Higashimaizuru	—	39,400
147.	Niihama	—	37,400
148.	Maizuru	—	26,700

CITIES IN TERRITORIES

CHOSEN (Korea)

	1930 (Census)	1935 (Census)
Keijo (Seoul)	394,240	404,206
Fusan	146,098	180,271
Heijo	140,703	172,746
Taikyu	93,319	105,716
Jinsen (Chemulpo)	68,137	80,420
Kaijo	49,520	54,457
Shingishu	48,047	54,317
Kankyo	43,851	52,634
Gensan	42,760	58,409
Chinnampo	38,296	48,314
Seishin	35,925	50,085
Moppo	34,689	59,046
Masan	27,885	29,858
Kunsan	26,321	41,077
Taiden	—	36,379
Zenshu	—	40,593
Koshu	—	52,674
Saishu	—	36,188
Konan	—	39,092

TAIWAN

	1935 (Census)	1936 (Estimate)
Taihoku	283,085	292,340
Tainan	107,887	116,451
Kiirun	84,650	89,690
Takao	81,582	94,017
Kagi	70,083	77,093
Taichu	68,414	74,839
Shinchiku	54,100	55,015
Heito	41,715	46,398
Shoka	51,152	54,304

KWANTUNG LEASED TERRITORY

	1930 (Census)	1936 (Estimate)
Dairen (Dalny)	292,552	377,000
Ryojun (Port Arthur)	33,933	35,000

KARAFUTO

Odomari	33,312	46,200
Toyohara	31,648	47,800

Foreign Residents

The number of foreign residents in Japan proper, for the past seven years has been as follows :

At the end of	Diplomatic and Consular Corps	Total	Male	Female
1931	390	28,317	19,655	8,662
1932	371	26,885	18,615	8,270
1933	374	29,268	19,764	9,504
1934	400	32,641	21,895	10,746
1935	423	38,475	25,766	12,709
1936	422	40,865	27,502	13,363
1937	419	30,838	19,847	10,991

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Information given with the 1937 figures shows 8,355 foreigners engaged in commerce; 3,199 in professional work; 2,876 studying; 1,090 in mining and manufacturing; 136 in transportation; 8 in agriculture and forestry; 407 in various other occupations, and 14,767 without occupations.

The following table classifies foreign residents according to countries of origin :

FOREIGN RESIDENTS
(December 31, 1937)

Countries of Origin	Total	Men	Women
Total	30,838	19,847	10,991
China	15,526	10,670	4,856
Manchoukuo	2,420	1,974	449
Thailand (Siam)	261	243	18
Straits Settlements	14	11	3
Philippines	104	78	26
Dutch East Indies	18	17	1
Iraq	11	9	2
Cochin China	—	—	—
India	1,008	751	257
Afghanistan	18	12	6
Burma	4	1	3
Armenia	22	10	12
Iran	3	2	1
Malaya	—	—	—
Turkey	40	26	14
Syria	29	22	7
Russia	1,345	698	647
Arabia	3	2	1
Poland	76	49	27
Latvia	18	9	9
Lithuania	19	8	11
Estonia	21	12	9
Finland	17	7	10
U. S. S. R.	245	128	117
Sweden	111	58	53
Norway	46	35	11
Denmark	94	51	43
Great Britain	2,360	1,198	1,162
Holland	297	180	117
Belgium	53	24	29
Luxemburg	9	4	5
France	583	299	284
Spain	116	49	67
Portugal	224	103	121
Italy	241	135	106
Switzerland	273	162	111
Germany	1,959	1,129	830
Austria	74	47	27
Hungary	37	20	17
Burgaria	—	—	—
Czechoslovakia	64	37	27
Rumania	10	5	5
Yugoslavia	20	10	10
Malta	2	1	1
Greece	12	8	4
Egypt	26	16	10
South Africa	3	1	2
Canada	342	147	195
U. S. A.	2,347	1,218	1,129
Mexico	19	10	9
Nicaragua	4	3	1
Panama	10	5	5
Salvador	—	—	—
Venezuela	3	2	1
Dominica	1	1	—
Cuba	9	6	3
Brazil	25	20	9
Colombia	5	3	2
Bolivia	2	1	1
Argentina	20	11	9
Peru	39	18	21
Guatemala	7	3	4
Chile	9	5	4
Ecuador	1	1	—
Uruguay	3	2	1
Australia	43	19	24
Hawaii	94	54	40
New Zealand	7	2	5
Others	8	5	3

Emigration

History Though there are records of Japanese having gone abroad for trade and residence in the latter years of the 15th century and the first half of the 16th century, the rigid laws against leaving the country during the period of seclusion, from 1636 to 1858, reserved the problem of emigration for modern times. As a result of negotiations between the Japanese Government and the Hawaiian Consul in Yokohama, 153 emigrants went to Hawaii in 1868 to work on sugar plantations. The venture was a failure, however, and not until 1885, after the visit of King Kalakaua of Hawaii to Japan in 1881 and the conclusion of treaties regarding travel, emigration of labourers and navigation, was there further emigration to the islands. In that year, 951 went. Their success encouraged an increase in the ensuing period, and by 1894 approximately 30,000 Japanese entered Hawaii.

Because of the rapid development of emigration, the Government turned the business over to private companies, which soon became numerous. Regulations to safeguard the interests of the emigrants were enacted in 1896. The companies sent 10,000 to Hawaii and about 1,000 each to Australia and Canada in 1897 and 23,000 to Hawaii, 3,000 to the United States, 1,700 to Canada, 790 to Peru and about 2,500 to other countries in the following year. But the annexation of the Hawaiian Islands by the United States in 1898 and the establishment of the Territorial Government in 1900, brought

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the application of American law against the entry of contract labourers, and dealt a great blow to the companies.

By 1904, the movement of Japanese from Hawaii to the mainland of the United States had assumed sizable proportions, as had emigration to that country directly from Japan. In the so-called Gentlemen's Agreement, arrived at in 1908, Japan agreed to restrict the issue of passports to nationals wishing to enter the United States. The United States Supreme Court decided in 1922 that Japanese are ineligible for citizenship, and two years later the Quota Immigration Act was passed, containing a clause denying the right of entry into the United States for permanent residence of any person not eligible for citizenship. Australia, New Zealand, South Africa and Canada also provided, by various methods, for exclusion of Japanese.

These obstacles to entry into the Anglo-Saxon countries had two results, first, an abrupt decrease for a few years in the number of emigrants and, second, the discovery of new outlets. Several South American lands, notably Brazil, offered inducements. The Government adopted a positive policy of sending emigrants to quarters where they were not unwelcome, and in 1921 a subsidy was given to the Overseas Enterprise Company (Kaigai Kogyo Kaisha) to arouse interest in emigration. Encouraged by this change in policy, emigration associations sprang up one after another in the prefectures, and plans were made to purchase tracts of land in Brazil for colonization. To such land, the Shinano Emigration Association (Nagano prefecture) sent 450 emigrants in 1925.

Enactment of the Emigration Association Law in 1927 resulted in an increase of "independent" emigrants, quite different from the labour-contract emigrants which had constituted the bulk in earlier years. Prefectural emigration associations set up under the provisions of this law organized a federation which co-ordinated the buying of Brazilian land. A home for emigrants was opened in Kobé, the main port of embarkation. Companies specializing in South American colonization came into being. Part of the reason for establishing the Ministry of Overseas Affairs in the Government in 1929 was to provide an agency for the administration and control of matters pertaining to emigration and colonization.

Movement The following table shows the movement of Japanese travellers and emigrants.

NUMBER OF PASSPORTS ISSUED

Year	Total	To Men	To Women
1925	22,176	15,628	6,548
1926	28,619	20,017	8,602
1927	31,177	21,364	9,813
1928	34,008	23,191	10,817
1929	37,990	25,689	12,301
1930	38,383	26,589	11,794
1931	27,144	19,803	7,341
1932	30,757	19,941	10,816
1933	42,451	27,163	15,288
1934	41,815	26,567	15,248

EMIGRANTS

Year	Leaving Japan	Returning to Japan
1926	16,184	14,549
1927	18,041	14,735
1928	19,850	15,004
1929	25,704	14,073
1930	21,829	14,546
1931	10,384	12,965
1932	19,033	13,170
1933	27,317	14,141
1934	8,087	—
1935	10,813	—
1936	11,119	—
1937	10,744	—

The destinations of those leaving Japan in recent years have been :

	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936	1937
Brazil	5,565	15,092	23,299	22,960	5,745	5,357	4,675
Philippines	1,109	747	941	1,544	1,802	2,891	3,876
Peru	299	369	481	473	814	593	166
Canada	106	98	1	105	57	82	109
U. S. S. R.	1,238	1,096	1,095	1,320	322	297	259
Straits Settlements	549	356	322	598	583	534	414
Mexico	283	149	85	80	53	62	65
Argentina	362	239	135	112	201	349	307
Dutch E. Indies	447	533	468	356	389	145	131
Australia	34	92	59	105	92	223	222
Others	392	262	341	434	755	586	520
Total	10,384	19,033	27,317	28,087	10,813	11,119	10,744

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JAPANESE RESIDING IN FOREIGN COUNTRIES

	Total	Male	Female
1932	672,266	385,315	286,951
1933	749,158	—	—
1934	872,807	496,390	376,417
1935	689,818	398,060	291,758
1936	997,115	561,590	435,525
1937	1,043,412	592,233	451,179

JAPANESE RESIDING IN FOREIGN COUNTRIES IN 1937

(October 1)

Asia	515,440
U. S. S. R.	2,822
Manchoukuo	411,995
China	59,345
Hong Kong Consul Area	544
Thailand (Siam)	516
French Indo-China	241
British India and Ceylon I.	1,424
Singapore Consul Area	7,951
Dutch East Indies	6,485
Philippine Islands	23,991
Others	126
Europe	2,882
England	1,312
Germany	471
France	554
Belgium	63
Spain	4
Holland	19
Switzerland	70
Italy	75
Austria	33
Sweden	20
U. S. S. R.	100
Others	161
North America	141,481
United States	114,642
Canada	21,129
Mexico	4,631
Panama	358
Cuba	714
Salvador	7
South America	228,478
Brazil	197,733
Argentina	6,267
Uruguay	74
Paraguay	484
Peru	22,150
Bolivia	769
Chile	294
Colombia	294
Venezuela	25
Africa	198
Oceania	154,933
Sydney Consul Area	3,026
Guam	57
Hawaii	151,850

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CHAPTER III

OUTLINE OF HISTORY

Ethnologic Beginnings

According to modern scientific research it seems almost certain that Japanese tribes lived on these islands at least as early as 2,000 B.C., in the latter part of the New Stone Age. It seems probable that yellow folk from the mainland of Asia, the natives of some southern islands, and possibly some kind of white-skinned race from the northwest, drifted to the Japanese islands, where they found a milder climate and more fertile soil than in their homelands, and formed a mixed race which we may call the Yamato Tribe and their blood became so well blended in the course of time that many think the Japanese people, their descendants, to be homogeneous.

They lived mostly on seashores or riversides. Their shell-mounds are rich in relics of those early days. They dug caves in the hillsides and pits in the flat ground for their dwellings, used stone tools and lived on natural food such as game, fish and shell-fish.

In the 3rd century B.C. the Indo-Chinese brought rice to the islands and the natives learned to cultivate and eat it. By this time a primitive agricultural life must have begun, and according to one of the oldest Chinese records on Japan the islanders already had a knowledge of silk-making even in such a remote period. Four different styles of clothing seem to have been prevalent, that of the Ainu, Tunguse, Indo-Chinese and Huns, although there were some tribes who went naked. Judging by the clay images or idols they left behind them, the Ainu clothes consisted of an upper and a lower garment, the upper garment of the women being open in front, while that of the men was not. The dress of the Tunguse much resembled the Korean in style and they were fond of using jewels or stone ornaments.

They lived in groups, forming villages which consisted in some cases of several hundred households. They seem to have had a primitive communal life, each tribe or group being firmly united by ties of blood and belief. But there had appeared as yet no political organization or system and there was a continual stream of immigrants from the continent. Clan and tribal fighting and alliances gave opportunity for mixing blood. By the beginning of the Christian Era the Ainu and the ancestors of the Japanese, mainly Tunguse by descent, gradually settled down on the islands, the former living in the northeastern half and the latter spreading over the south-western half.

Age of Traditions
(660 B.C.–531 A.D.)

The period of 1,000 years from the Emperor Jimmu, who founded the Japanese Government in 660 B.C., to the Emperor Keitai, who reigned from 507 to 531 A.D., may be called the Age of Traditions of Japan. The first book of history "Nihonshoki" (Japanese Annals) which was first compiled in the 28th year of the Empress Suiko, and the second oldest record "Kojiki" (Antiquities) which appeared about one hundred years later, tell of some still older manuscripts which furnished them with materials. But of these no trace remains. These two books which are commonly called "Ki-Ki" collectively contain traditions long cherished by the islanders, although there are many fictions mixed or intermingled in them. Careful study of these records reveals the ancient life of the Japanese after the New Stone Age and at the beginning of the agricultural period.

Beginning of Shintoism People in this age formed large families and the clan system prevailed. In many families the succession followed the maternal side, clan councils were called and patriarchs were elected. The number of clans was about one hundred. Shintoism, though in the most undeveloped state, was already a creed; people revered their forefathers and worshipped their own family gods, and the members of each clan were united in the worship of their own particular god, gaining thereby a more vivid feeling of belonging to one and the same blood. In the Imperial House, the Emperor Jimmu instituted religious ceremonies for his Divine Ancestors, who became the objects of worship of the National Shintoism in later ages, and his successors

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followed his example and prayed to the gods for the welfare of their beloved nation. Before Chinese models were adopted the ancient government of Japan was a very simple theocracy, and ritual observances and public affairs were one, as the Japanese "Matsurigoto" may mean either the administration of state affairs or religious ceremony.

Political Affairs In 87 B.C. the Emperor Sujin sent armies to the remoter central and western districts and subdued all the opposing tribes. In the first century A.D. the Emperor Keiko sent Yamato-Takeru or some generals to the farthest west and east, and succeeded in bringing the whole land under his sway, sending his sons to be the rulers over those subdued districts. Later the Emperor Seimu divided the whole land into territories and prefectures for the convenience of governing them. Sujin and Suinin encouraged industry and commerce, the nation became rich and national power was so augmented that the small kingdoms in the Korean peninsula came one by one to be its tributaries. It was through these small Korean kingdoms that a knowledge of the religion and culture of the greater Oriental nations first reached Japan. In 285 A. D. Confucianism with its important moral precepts concerning righteousness, loyalty, filial piety, and love, was officially introduced into the country. In 552, during the reign of the Emperor Kimmei, the public introduction of Buddhism with its teachings on cause and effect opened up new vistas in religious and philosophic thought.

Civilization Introduced From the remains of this period it can be inferred that the Japanese people whose settlements extended from Kyushu to districts near the present-day Kyoto had risen above a barbarous life long before the first century of the Christian Era. Their shell-mounds contain many bronze utensils which correspond to the Chinese productions of the Han Dynasty (206 B.C.-221 A.D.). Do-taku which seem to have been used as musical instruments or kept as a kind of treasure have been found in the districts extending from the western end of the Main Island to Totomi and Kaga provinces near Nagoya and in Shikoku Island. They were found with relics of the so-called Yayoi style which characterizes the works of the original Japanese as distinguished from the Ainu, and tell of early Japanese intercourse with the continental countries. Do-ken or bronze swords of different shapes have been found in the provinces of Kyushu, districts around the Inland Sea, the provinces of Aki, Izumo, Owari and Shinano and in Shikoku Island.

Japan had tributaries in Korea at this period, but, at the same time, heads of large families in Kyushu and Loochoo had some relations with the Han Dynasty as local tributary lords. Considerable numbers of continental people came to the islands either individually or in large bodies, and the civilizations of China, India and Korea were constantly introduced to the islanders or brought in by the immigrants themselves so that there had really been several centuries of preparation before the formal or official reception of Chinese books and culture in the 3rd century at the Central Court in Yamato province, Nara prefecture.

Japanese Traits In those days Japanese characteristics and tribal traits were already established. The mild climate and beautiful natural features of the islands and the surrounding seas exerted ineradicable influences on the nature of the inhabitants. From such an early period the islanders, economically self-supplying and self-sufficient, enjoyed comparatively peaceful lives without much danger of being invaded by outside political powers. Consequently they became admirers of the realistic world, highly optimistic with pragmatic ideals; they had deep appreciation of natural life and a religious belief full of light. Their mode of action was sprightly, innocent and active. Loyalty to one's lord and filial piety were their two main principles of morality fostered from the remotest past; next in importance came valour in the highest sense of the term. There was no distinction in the position of the sexes and able women assumed high places in public affairs.

Primitive Literature There were written numerous local histories and genealogies of the Imperial Court and clans, and stories of heroes of victorious battles were earnestly listened to at their gatherings. They had ballads and a crude form of poetry which later came to be called waka, the metrical arrangement being 5-7 or 5-7-7, instead of the later 5-7-5-7-7. The ideas expressed were simple, pure, and mostly concrete, immediate feelings being put into metre. The subject matter, in common with that of primitive peoples in other parts of the world, being that of women, war, and saké. Songs in praise of the natural beauty of the scenery were rarely sung.

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No Pastoral Life The islands, severed as they were from the continent, were unsuited for raising cattle, and the ancient Japanese people had no experience of a pastoral life. Excavation of mounds gives no indication of it, while the undeveloped legs of the Japanese seem to suggest something of their ancestral habits.

With the progress of agricultural life the oldest clan system, which had no class differences, began to undergo changes because of the increase of population and consequent need of new land. Clans began to separate into branches, the latter leaving the parent stock and going out to get new lands. In many cases land was obtained by violence and there arose the connection of master and subject between the conqueror and the conquered. Blood relation among the people widened to local relation and there appeared ruling clan heads to control and represent the districts or provinces. Soon these ruling families transformed their temporary power into a hereditary one. The primitive or natural system of common property was transformed to that of private property. Powerful clans had serfs as property and subordinate clans or subjects paid tribute.

Age of Foundation
(532–709 A.D.)

By the 6th century A.D. Japanese social and economic conditions were well suited for the introduction and appreciation of the Chinese civilization of the brilliant ages of the Sui and Tang Dynasties.

Political Events With religion, other things such as painting, sculpture and architecture were gradually introduced and in the sixth century Prince Shotoku-Taishi, striving for the promotion of learning, religion and art, tried his best to make a radical improvement in the state administration and in the social life of the people. His work was a forerunner of the Taika Reformation.

In the meantime, there arose troubles among the clans which had power in the Government, their conflict becoming greater with the advancement of civilization. Two of the most important of these clans, Soga and Mononobé, came into violent collision over the question of adopting Buddhism as the national religion. The former finally got the upper hand, but so abused its power that it stirred up the opposition of Kamatari Fujiwara, a loyal subject, and Prince Naka-no-Ohyé, who later became the Emperor Tenji. The Soga power was suppressed in the year 645; this was the first step toward the Taika Reformation.

Emperor's Power Reduced As a natural development land became divided among the Imperial house, the clans and the temples. The Imperial estates were obtained in various ways, and consisted of, first, land owned ever since the time of the Emperor Jimmu; secondly, land newly cultivated by the farmers who served the august family; thirdly, estates presented by local nobles; and fourthly, memorial lands for the dead members of the Imperial family.

Clans owned their estates, either by natural right, conquest or as prizes for merit. Shinto shrines and Buddhist temples also possessed their own glebes, given them by nobles as offerings. The patriarchs or clan heads in the country districts began to possess a great number of people and large estates and enrich themselves by the labour of their serfs. Their wealth gave them influence and power and they became local lords. The clan system allowed high officials of the Court and the powerful families in the provinces to exercise almost absolute power over their own territories. The emperors ruled the people indirectly, all the official positions being hereditary. This system gave birth to several political vices or abuses, and the Imperial authority became much reduced. The excesses of the Soga clan showed clearly the injurious effect of this system, and the necessity of ending it.

Social classes The aristocrats of this period were the clan heads, an idea of whose life may be formed from the luxurious relics found in their large tombs or mounds in the district around Nara and Kyoto. Next came the direct subjects of the Imperial House whose occupation was mainly agriculture. The third class, which was the largest and constituted the main productive element of the nation, consisted of the subjects of the local clan heads. They worked for their respective clans at clothes making, ceramics, brewing, the manufacture of lacquer goods, furniture making, etc., besides being farmers, fishermen and hunters. The lowest class of people was that of the "yakko" or serfs who served in the lowest kind of occupation for the aristocrats. They were often presented to shrines and temples as slaves. The slaves in Japan originated in captives taken from Ezo and Korea, and to them were later added those who had sold themselves for monetary reasons. Once enslaved, their social status

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remained unchanged unless emancipation came through the benevolence of their lords or paid for by themselves or some other people. The number of slaves, however, was rather insignificant.

The Taika (Taikwa) Reformation When the Soga family were destroyed, the Emperor Kotoku started a plan for a reformation, appointing the Crown Prince Naka-no-Ohyé to the head of the council which was composed of Kamatari Fujiwara, Kurahashimaro Abé and other great scholars of the time. The Crown Prince, with Kamatari as his right hand man, studied the Chinese system of government and made plans for a revolutionary change of politics for the welfare of the people. In the summer of 1305 from Jimmu (645 A.D.), he introduced from China the system of "nengo" or year-names, and called the period Taika or "Great Reformation." This was indeed only seven days after the death of Soga. This was the first of the three great changes that Japan has experienced in politics since the founding of the nation. The second was the establishment of the Shogunate at Kamakura, 1192, and the third was the Meiji Restoration, 1868. In the second year of Taika the Imperial Edict of the Reformation was proclaimed. Some of its provisions were as follows :

(1) To bring all the private lands into public possession ; (2) to divide the confiscated lands among the people, taking a census and fixing reasonable taxes; (3) to fix divisions of Kuni, Gun and Ri for the convenience of administration, putting officials in each division.

These changes were practically carried out, and the clan system was entirely broken, thus bringing about a centralization of political power according to the Chinese pattern. The following is but a summary of the vast Reformation :

(A) Public land and people (citizens). (1) The people had, hitherto, belonged to the powerful gens and families and had been kept in a condition not far removed from serfdom. The land had been the private estates of the gens, and wealth had been almost entirely accumulated by them alone. In this reformation the land was all confiscated by the Central Government, and the people became direct subjects or citizens of the Emperor ; so was the clan system destroyed. (2) The public land was distributed to citizens evenly. A census was taken first and all the names of the people were registered and every male over the age of five was given two "than", or a little less than half an acre of land, while a woman was given two-thirds of this. This land was returned to the Government when the holder died. The registration was renewed every sixth year. (3) Three taxes were newly imposed : one was on the land, being two bundles of rice on each "tan", the second was a requisition of labour, or else twelve feet of cloth or about two-and-a-half bushels of rice instead, from each house, and the third was a certain proportion of the special products of the locality.

(B) Centralization of government. The reformation of Taika was specially concerned with the centralization of government and the abolishing of local divisions of the clan system. To accomplish this aim, a central government had to be established on a very strong basis. In 649, the Emperor ordered the establishment of a central government consisting of eight departments, modelled on the Tang government. In the country districts the old officials were replaced by new state and country governors, horse stations were established for the convenience of travel and traffic, barrier-gates were set up in important places, and defensive preparations were made in the remotest districts.

(C) Appointment of men of ability. The third merit of the Reformation was in the appointment of able men from among the people to important positions. Under the old clan system even the officials were hereditary and this gave birth to various political abuses. This hereditary officialdom was entirely done away with by the Taika Reformation, and any one who had real talent might become a high official, no matter to which or to what kind of clan or house he belonged.

Prince Naka-no-Ohyé, who headed the council of this great revolutionary improvement, declared, "As there are not two suns in the sky so there cannot be two kings over one nation, and the Emperor must be the only one who governs over and controls his people under heaven," and he set the first example to the people by handing over his own estates and subjects to the Mikado, thereby speeding the Reformation.

A Premature Trial The Taika Reformation, however, could hardly be considered as reformation of a government which had already been well organized, but rather as an attempt at the formation of a real central government. Corruption within the old clan system had made a purging of the social and political system of the country urgent.

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Chinese cultural and political influence which stimulated the longing in the hearts of the authorities for the construction of a shapely government was a second cause of the reform. Unity and centralization of administration was completely exemplified by their big neighbour, and the young minds of the Japanese officials and nobles, entirely caught by its brilliancy, were rather too impatient to make fuller investigations on the adaptability of Chinese institutions to Japan and the Japanese of the day. The Taika Reformation, therefore, was hardly a success so far as its economic system was concerned and the formal institutions mentioned in (A) soon began to collapse.

Its Lasting Merit But the fundamental and imperishable meaning of the Taika Reformation is that it was the first systematic organization of the Central Government and the establishment of the spirit of national unity.

It was in this age that the whole of Japan was united into one. The Ezo tribes in Hokkaido Island and the inhabitants of the southern islands came to pay homage to the Central Government, and Buddhism was propagated among the northern islanders and the Kyushu tribes in the south as a cultural enterprise of the Government.

Taiho Law (Taiho-ritsu-ryo) After half a century, or in 701, the Taiho Law, which completed the work of the Taika Reformation, especially in the organization of the Government, was promulgated. The construction of the Daijokan (the Great Government), which was regulated in the Taiho Law, and revised once in 718, was the form of central government which continued till the Meiji Restoration, when it was revived in power and called the Dajokan. The Government consisted of the Daijo Daijin, the Sa (left) Daijin, the U (right) Daijin, four Dai Nagon, three Sho Nagon, four secretaries, ten scribes, three Sa-benkan, and three U-benkan.

The Daijo Daijin was the tutor and personal counsellor to the Emperor, and had no fixed office. In view of the importance of the position it was not filled when no suitable man was to be found. The Sa Daijin was the prime minister and controlled all the administrative offices and might over-rule the decisions of the Danjodai (a kind of court of administrative litigation).

The U Daijin took the work of the Sa Daijin in his absence and his responsibility was the same as that of the Sa Daijin. The Dai Nagon acted as counsellors in national affairs with the three Daijin just mentioned and assisted them, directly reported all political affairs of importance to the Emperor, handed Imperial orders to the departments, and performed the offices of Imperial attendants. The Sho Nagon administered affairs of minor importance, the secretaries and scribes administered the business concerning public documents and Imperial edicts, etc. The Sa (left) Benkan administered the following four departments: the central, the ritual, the administrative, and the civil. The U (right) Benkan administered the other four departments: the military, the judicial, the treasury, and the Imperial House. That is to say, the practical administration of the eight departments was executed by the Left and Right Benkan in accordance with the decisions and directions of the three Daijin and four Dai Nagon.

Learning and Religion A century around the Taika Reformation was the period when the Government was busy also in the study of Chinese literature, importation of continental culture, and compilation and promulgation of new laws. It was an age of laying foundations for the future progress of Japanese civilization. This study of continental cultures did not stop with that of China, but ancient nations west of China became tutors of the Japanese. Among the treasures which were accumulated by the Emperor Shomu (724–749 A.D.) and kept in the Shoso-in Museum at Nara, there are many art products of Rome and Persia. The area represented by the treasures practically covers all the civilized countries of the Orient and a large portion of the Western world.

Systematic education of the young began with the building of Horyuji temple (see Chapter XXVIII). With the compilation of the Nihonshoki and Kojiki, Shintoism was formulated as the national religion. As to the nature of Shintoism and its philosophical analysis as a dogma opinions are divided, it nevertheless developed in this age from mere nature-worship to ancestor-worship, cosmogony and anthropomorphism, including a germ of the idea of a central diety of the cosmos in the belief in Amé-no-minaka-nushi-no-kami. On the other hand Buddhism was eagerly taken into the lives of the upper class people who had power to assimilate it.

Nara Age
(710–793 A.D.)

Golden Age of Buddhism After the Taika Reformation in 646, the Govern-

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ment rather avoided the trouble of intercourse with the Korean Peninsula and concentrated their power on the better administration of home affairs, encouraging intercourse with China in order to bring Chinese civilization more into Japanese life, and 60 years later founded the city of Nara as the capital, in Chinese style. For 70 years following its founding, it was an age of imitating Chinese things. Buddhism won the faith of all classes of the people and developed and expanded among them with great rapidity. This was the golden age for Buddhist fine arts, existing specimens of which make today the international treasures of old Buddhism. The nation was prosperous and the people enjoyed a happy life such as they had never known before.

Throughout most of the 8th century Nara was the Imperial capital and towards the end of it Japanese civilization, favoured by peaceful social conditions, began to assume its own form and characteristics. The Japanese poetry, waka, took a definite style and the range of subjects handled in the poems came to include all phases of life and nature as we see in the Mannyoshu collection of waka of this period (See Chapter XXXV).

The use of abbreviated forms of Chinese characters was begun in this period for the convenience of copying books, in an age without much printing, although block-printing was introduced from China by 770 A.D., and prepared a way to the invention of Kana characters in the following Heian Age.

Division of the Rich and the Poor As mentioned above, the economic plan of the Taika Reformation soon began to collapse. It was not, however, a return to the old patriarchal system but an advance to feudalism.

The even distribution of land under the Taika Reformation proved in practice insufficient and many farmers were compelled to obtain more land by cultivation of waste areas or to fall heavily into debt. On the other hand, the nobles or former patriarchs of larger clans, the Court officials and priests began to accumulate special prize lands, gift lands and subject tenants, and people of the upper class became landed proprietors with wide estates which were called "Shoén".

For the cultivation of new arable land, labour and the digging of water courses were required, so such land naturally came into the hands of the wealthy people. Besides the addition of newly cultivated land they enlarged their estates by purchasing the land of the poorer people, confiscating mortgaged land and conquering weaker landowners by force. This tendency in the rural districts went its course unchecked, while the Central Government was occupied with political and diplomatic affairs mostly concerning matters in the capital cities of Nara and Heian (Kyoto), and Court nobles gave themselves up to luxurious living.

Korea, China and Japan (660 B.C.-1019 A.D.) From the time when these islands were first populated the inhabitants of the Korean Peninsula had intimate relations with the islanders. Especially, according to traditions, was this the case with the south-eastern part and the Izumo district. At the time of Sujin the southern part of Korea became a Japanese protectorate, but its eastern neighbour, Silla, scorned Japan until it was subdued by the Empress Jingo in 200 A.D. The western half and lands in the north also came under the influence of Japan until finally the whole peninsula became tributary to her. These small kingdoms mostly acknowledged the Japanese authority, but sometimes they rose in rebellion and Japan frequently had to send armies to the peninsula, till finally the Governor's office was destroyed by Silla in 562. Silla soon became the master of the whole peninsula, conquered the other small states, and entered into good terms with the Chinese Government. The ruling power of Silla was usurped by another dynasty in the 9th century. Japan interfered in these affairs when suitable chances offered, but all her attempts were in vain and she had lost her last trace of influence by the year 936.

The northern part of Korea had once been a territory of China in the second century B.C. Intercourse between the Japanese and Chinese people had already started in those days, and during the years in which the Korean peninsula was tributary to Japan the trade and travel between the two nations became greater and more frequent; many Chinese scholars and artists became naturalized in Japan and worked for the Government in the fields of literature, art and general technique. Some Emperors sent delegates to south-eastern China to get teachers of weaving and sewing.

In 607, when Shotoku Taishi was regent, an ambassador was sent to the Sui Dynasty and friendly official intercourse was opened. Later, when the Tang Dynasty replaced the Sui, diploma-

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tic relations were still unbroken between the two nations and many a young man and monk went to China for study. The culture and civilization of the continent flowed into Japan and greatly influenced her politics and social life. In the Era of the Emperor Tenji, this intercourse was once checked by difficulties with Korea, but the Tang Emperor sent his delegates again to Japan to re-establish friendly relations, and they were accordingly restored. During the Nara Age, especially, travel was most frequent between the two countries, and science, religion, the fine arts, architecture and forms of living were all taken from China, such imitation continuing till the beginning of the Heian Age. Chinese civil wars proved a hindrance to these friendly relations and the Emperor Uda stopped the sending of delegates in 894.

In Manchuria a strong nation appeared in 713 and invaded northern Korea, and started some trade with Japan. Another arose later and came down even to the central part of the peninsula. Still another dynasty then gained control over much of eastern Asia and tried to invade these islands, but was defeated by the Japanese army in 1019.

Héian Age
(794–1192 A.D.)

Fujiwara Despotism The Emperor Kammu changed the capital from Nara to the new city of Heian, the present Kyoto, in 794, and instituted a new era. For several decades after that the Imperial sceptre retained its power. But from the middle of the 9th century, the house of Fujiwara became closely related to the Imperial House, and began to assume regentship of the country. Taking all political power from the Imperial House, the Fujiwaras gradually concentrated it in their own hands and planned only for the benefit of their family and relatives. Their despotism reached its climax with Michinaga Fujiwara in the 10th century.

In those days the Fujiwara family gave themselves over to luxury, and greatly influenced the city life of Kyoto, making it indolent and vicious. But on the other hand literature and the fine arts made special progress. As the result of the cessation of sending delegates to China Japanese habits and inherited ideas regained favour and developed a style which was most graceful. Buddhism now assumed a strong and influential position not only among the people at large but also in the Court. The Enryakuji Temple of Kyoto and the Kofukuji Temple of Nara especially played a great part in this new tendency. It was noticeable that by this time the imported religion was largely transformed and Japanized in character.

Rise of Samurai Class Another remarkable phenomenon of this age was the rise of the samurai, the warrior class. The direct rule of the Emperor, in consequence of the weakening centralization of administrative power, was declining. In the local districts, the private lands owned by the aristocratic families were increasing year by year, and the orders issued by the Central Government were disregarded in those private territories. Local affairs fell into confusion, and robbers stalked abroad in the towns and villages. Wealthy landowners in the villages hired and fed soldiers for self-defence, and these farmer-soldiers finally became samurai, men whose profession was fighting. Sons of aristocratic families who could not get official positions also became soldiers, striving after power. Soon they became really powerful, being specially rampant in the farther districts, where they rebelled against local orders. The bodyguard of the Court, hopelessly impotent, was useless for real battle, and the samurai rebellions were suppressed only by other samurai bodies. The princes and nobles also hired samurai to guard them and to further their political feuds. Warriors were encouraged to become ever more skilful in the practice of arms, and it was quite natural that in such a course of affairs important positions in governmental offices should go to members of the samurai class. Among them the most famous ones to receive such positions were members of the Minamoto (Genji) and Taira (Héishi or Héiké) families.

In the middle of the 11th century, the Emperors gathered patriots to restore the Imperial power to the old status and suppress the Fujiwara despotism. Finally in 1156 the Fujiwara power was completely broken and overthrown by the Genji and Héishi warriors, who were much honoured in consequence by the Imperial House. Before long, however, these two samurai houses became rivals and in 1159 Kiyomori Taira (Héishi) won the day against Yoshitomo Minamoto (Genji). Kiyomori had rare ability and great ambition, and forgetting that he was but a samurai followed the examples of Fujiwara and became himself another despot. For his wilful behaviour he was hated by all classes of the people, and Yoritomo Minamoto, son of the defeated Yoshitomo, rose on the tide of general bad feeling against

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the Tairas, and the whole Taira family was defeated and drowned at the battle of Dan-no-ura in the Inland Sea in 1185. It was Yoritomo Minamoto who first established government by the Samurai class.

Literature At the end of the Nara Age an abbreviated form of Chinese characters began to be used among scribes. In this Héian Age the Katakana, a Japanese syllabary of simple 'square' characters was derived from the Chinese ideograms, and lastly Hirakana, a smoother and more fanciful style of Kana was invented and came to be used first among educated ladies and then by gentlemen also. Chinese sentences had monopolized the literature of former ages, but from the first quarter of this period pure Japanese sentences in the new Japanese alphabet appeared and gave an impetus to the rapid spread of waka composition and beautiful Japanese stories like the Takétori-monogatari and Isé-monogatari.

The culture of this age had not yet reached the rural districts and common people, but existed only in the larger cities and a number of towns and among the aristocratic class. The kulturträger, the bearers of civilization and culture of the age, were court nobles, government officials, priests and monks, and their families. It may be going too far to say that Heian was the only city of the Empire in those days, for there are evidences of the existence of some local market towns and trade ports. It is nevertheless true that there was a great difference in grade of civilization between the capital and the rural districts. The intelligentsia in the capital kept political power and literary heritage to themselves and their successors, their living being supported by the contributions and tenant fees from their country estates. They lived a luxurious and easy monotonous life as is shown in the Genji-monogatari by Murasaki-shikibu, a woman novelist (See Chapter XXXV). But at the same time Japanese literature made wonderful progress in this age.

Education School education was undertaken by the Government along definite lines in the city and local districts. In the city of Héian there was a Dai-gaku, (school of higher learning), which took in 400 boys of higher officials. There were 143 higher officials and 850 lower officials in the city. In the districts there were established Kokugaku, provincial schools, open mainly for the boys of local officials. At Dazai-fu in Kyushu the Gakugyo-in, or institute of learning, was established for the provinces of the northern half of the island. The main course of study in these schools was related to national politics based on the teachings of Confucius. But literature, music, physical science, pharmacology, astronomy, mathematics and penmanship were not neglected. Some of the local schools were of a high educational standing and sent out able scholars. Children of the princes and court nobles were taught by private tutors. School education especially flourished in the Enryaku, Konin and Showa eras, under the Emperors Kammu, Saga and Nimmyo respectively. The building of the new capital of Héian gave rise to a new spirit of enterprise among the people and broader humanistic ideals began to show themselves, with sincere aspirations for the advancement of civilization. Many a young student went abroad. Prince Shinnyo, a young monk of the Shochoji temple in Izumi province, (present Osaka-fu) went to the Tang capital, and started from Rusha to Raetsu, near Singapore, for the study of Buddhism, but died on the way. The needs of the time gave rise to many private schools. Some representative ones were the Bunsho-in of Séiko Sugawara, the Kangaku-in of Fuyutsugu Fujiwara, the Gakkan-in of Tachibana, the Shogaku-in of Yukihira Arihara, and the Kobun-in of Kiyomaro Waké. The Sugawara family especially produced a succession of first class scholars, and many able young men came into the Bunsho-in. This study of foreign learning continued from the previous ages to the middle of the era when the Emperor Uda stopped the sending of delegates to China.

With the slackening interest in Chinese cultural studies early in the 10th century the Government schools were gradually reduced in numbers and influence, especially, also, as the power of the Imperial Government was dwindling and the Fujiwara connections were beginning to monopolize all official positions, leaving outsiders without hope of preferment. The Daigaku-in in Héian was closed after the buildings (five blocks of classrooms and one storehouse) were burnt down in the fire of 1177. Learning became a hereditary privilege with the growth of reactionary reverence for established lineage. Buddhism also became much Japanized by the appearance of such monks as Saicho of the Tendai and Kobo Daishi of the Shingon Sect.

Economic Condition The cleavage between the common people and ruling classes became more marked and the

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clan or family ties weakened as the connection between demand and supply became more complicated. From this arose the necessity for exchanges and markets. Waka of the Mannyoshu suggest the existence of markets in Japan at such an early date. As a matter of fact there had been several markets opened in bygone times such as those of Tsubaki, Atokuwa and Éka. On the beach of Takahama in Hitachi (present Ibaraki) and by the straits of Asakumi in Izumo province (present Shimané) there were primitive markets opened for the people. These markets were first started in connection with Shinto festivals. In the Nara Age, there were the East and West Markets in the city of Nara, where trees were planted for giving shade, and from there pedlars travelled around as far as Échizen province (present Fukui).

In the 7th century silver and copper money was already in considerable circulation. In the 8th century copper money was cast by the Imperial Government, although it is not clear whether all the money in circulation before that was of Chinese origin or not. In the first year of the Wado Era, 708 A.D., silver and copper coins named Wadokaiho were cast at the Imperial mint, and this coining of metals continued, ushering in the period of money instead of barter.

In the Héian Age public markets were opened in the east and the west of Heian city. The East Market consisted of 51 shops and the West Market of 33, and they continued till the time of the Gen-péi (Genji and Héishi) wars in the 12th century. The largest among the local markets were at Tsubaki, Tatsu, Asuka and Ausa in Yamato province (present Nara) Shikama in Harima (near Himéji), Naniwa (Osaka) in Séttsu and Kowaki in Shiga. There were many trading ports, and of these Hakata, Muko and Naniwa were the most thriving in foreign trade, Hakata coming first, located as it was at the northern end of Kyushu, nearest to Korea and China. Foreign commerce at this time was mostly governmental, private trading not being allowed.

Social Classes (the 7th–12th centuries) The highest class of this age consisted of the descendants of the nobles of the preceding age; new dignitaries promoted for meritorious services; descendants of the Imperial House; and high priests of Buddhist temples. These people monopolized the highest positions in the government and administration. Wealth was naturally accumulated by them and civilized life attained by the assimilation of continental culture was theirs. The high official positions and ranks were accompanied with material estates and income, and nobility and wealth were synonymous. Living in the capital or vicinity and holding a close connection with the Imperial House this class enjoyed its aristocratic life until power was taken from it by the Fujiwaras in the 11th century.

Next came the class of provincial lords, or officials, scholars, warriors and certain naturalized Koreans or Chinese who were well educated. This class can be compared with the middle class of to-day. The power of the members of this class in politics was secondary, but the standard of their culture was as high as the first, if not higher, especially in the case of scholars such as doctors, astronomers, and mathematicians. They were the military and civil administrators in the local districts and the carriers of a higher civilization.

The third class of this age consisted of the descendants of the second and third classes of the preceding age, they were mostly engaged in agricultural work, although there were among them some artisans and merchants but the number was comparatively small. In fact handicraft and merchandizing was, in later days, mostly carried out by farmers as a kind of side line. They were compelled to work so hard in order to support the upper classes that some scholars of the economic history of Japan have called this "an age of slave economy." The people of this class were rarely given positions in the government, although they had access to the priestly positions in temples. Able youths emancipated themselves from serfdom by becoming outlaws and, as mentioned above, finally gave origin to the rise of the samurai class in the latter half of the Heian Age. In the 8th century this class constituted over 70 per cent of the entire population of Japan.

The lowest class of people, practically a slave class, consisted of two kinds of people. The first were the workers for the Court, the clothes, paper and furniture makers, musicians, stable-men, etc. They were mostly naturalized Koreans, and because of their tribal origin were despised by the other classes. Part of them seem to have been the forefathers of the "Eta" class of the Yédo Age. But they must have already belonged to the lower class in their native land, Korea, or may have been captives there, because there were many naturalized Koreans who occupied

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honourable positions in the Imperial Court and in the second class mentioned above. According to a record of this age there were but 4,216 households almost all of which were in the Kyoto, Nara and Osaka districts. So far as the national law is concerned these slaves were freed several times, in 722, 744, and 759 A.D., but as a social class they remained the same.

The descendants of the "Yakko" of the preceding periods formed the second division of this slave class. Their social standard as such was legalized by the laws issued at the time of the Taika Reformation. The Taiho laws prohibited intermarriage between members of this "disgraceful" class and members of the "good" classes. Slaves who belonged to offices mainly worked as tomb keepers, farm workers and miscellaneous jobbers, while those owned by private houses did the dirtiest work. The number of these slaves comprised 10 per cent of the entire population. The average value of a slave in the Nara Age was 1,000 bundles of rice for a man and 800 bundles for a woman which meant the amount of rice which would feed a person for 2,500 days. This was rather a prohibitive price for the purchase of slaves, probably due to the small supply of slaves against the demand, the treatment of them by their masters was, therefore, very humane. In the Héian Age, the slave system underwent a gradual change, there was laxity in the imposition of the old laws pertaining to the system, and intermarriage with the "good" people often occurred. On the other hand, many of the third class people or oppressed farmers had become reduced to serfdom, and their intermingling with this class made the two classes indistinguishable at the latter half of the Héian Age.

Kamakura Age
(1192-1337 A.D.)

Samurai Government Samurai government continued for 685 years, from the time of Yoritomo Minamoto to the end of the Tokugawa Shogunate. During the feudal age the Minamoto, Ashikaga and Tokugawa families appeared successively as the heads of this Samurai government, holding all power, both political and military, in their hands. At the Imperial Court were the august officials, but its rulership was only nominal, and the real sovereign power was kept by the Shogunate.

In the middle of the Héian Age, the Fujiwaras grasped despotic authority in politics, and the rule of the Imperial Court sank into formalism. Imperial officials and nobles indulged in an effeminate life, discarding militarism. Vicious customs prevailed, misunderstandings arose between the Central Government and district offices and the gap between the rich and the poor became greater, gangs of robbers terrorized the people, civil wars great and small constantly occurred, and the people could not live in peace. This state of things gave opportunity for the rise of the warrior class, and the military government under the leadership of Yoritomo Minamoto was welcomed by the people as suitable for the troublous times, and the Shogunate came into being on its own merits.

The Kamakura Shogunate Yoritomo adopted Oyé's counsel, and asking the permission of Goshirakawa, the ex-Emperor who had the real power at the Court, stationed his warriors in different parts of the country as governors and deputies. He gave these governors military and police authority and to the deputies he assigned the administration of land and tax affairs, in 1185. All the political power fell into Yoritomo's hands as a natural consequence, and the military and political offices which were established at Kamakura became Shogunate head offices; in 1192, he was asked by the Kyoto Government to become Séii-Tai-Shogun or Generalissimo, and this meant the public recognition of the Shogunate authority.

After becoming Shogun by Imperial Order, Yoritomo Minamoto took great care to control the warrior-lords. He himself lived a very simple life and issued orders to the lords and warriors to do the same, thereby setting good examples to the people. His teachings did not primarily stress skill in fighting or the use of weapons but rather the moral precepts which must underlie the true warrior's way. The hitherto neglected and disorderly rural districts were taken care of and became closely united with the Kamakura Government, their agricultural and commercial life was improved, and the heavy taxation formerly levied by extravagant nobles was reduced to make the peasants' lives easier.

Foundation of Bushido Yoritomo was a pious man, revered both Shintoism and Buddhism, and was loyal to the Emperor. Bushido was indeed established by his teachings and practical examples. He encouraged the propagation of the Zen teachings which emphasized an ascetic life, and those of the Jodo Sect which taught man to realize his sinfulness. The principles of Bushido, however, had mainly to do with the

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lord-and-subject relation among the samurai, and had defects as a common morality for the masses. But it is noticeable here that polygamy among the nobles of former days was gradually discarded and monogamy began to gain ground in this age, probably in consequence of the recognition of personality and the unusual emphasis on the fidelity of a lady to her lord in the Bushido code. Ideas of honour became strong; loyalty to the Emperor, patriotism, and belief in Japan as being the country specially favoured of the gods became established national ideals; Buddhism was completely Japanized; and the general moral standard was considerably raised.

Yoritomo's lineal descendants did not continue to hold power beyond the third generation, but the nearly related Hojo family took their place and ruled the people with ability till Takatoki Hojo was overthrown by the faithful adherents of the Emperor Godaigo in 1333. The Kamakura Shogunate was the real Central Government of Japan for over 140 years.

Education Education progressed also in the sense that it spread to local districts and especially among the samurai class. The Térakoya (see Chapter XXVIII) schools were started in the Buddhist temples of this age. Text books suitable for the education of samurai boys were compiled. At the time of the Ashikagas famous centres of learning were established at Ashikaga and Kanazawa (see Chapter XXVIII) near the present Tokyo. The Ashikaga Gakko (Ashikaga School) was first established by Yoshikané Ashikaga, a cousin of Yoritomo Minamoto, and has been continued for seven hundred years up to the present day. The Kanazawa Bunko (Kanazawa Library) was first established in 1275 by Sanétoki Hojo, great-grandson of Tokimasa Hojo the Shogun. Women's education was not neglected and sewing, housekeeping, penmanship and reading and composition of prose and poetry were taught to the daughters of well-to-do people.

Art and Literature The rise of individualism gave a new turn to the cultural life of the people. The break of tradition was discernible in fine art and literature. This was the age of Sung and Yuan in China and their literature and arts, flooding Japan, laid the foundations of modern literature and fine arts which developed after the Muromachi period. Picture rolls of famous battles and illustrated histories of shrines and temples were produced, reflecting the taste of the day. That portrait-painting first began during this age may be taken as a recognition of the individual value of men. (See Chapter XXXV.)

Commerce and Industry Before the Kamakura Age, agriculture was almost the sole industry of the people, although pottery, clothing, etc. were produced in government factories on a limited scale. The spread of culture among the local population in this age, however, quickened the progress of commerce and industry in country places and local centres. Hand-work and carpentry were emancipated from the protection of the nobles and temples, primitive guilds were created and classes of artisans of armaments, porcelain, lacquer-work, etc. came into existence. Seven guilds were established, of silk workers, charcoal burners, rice merchants, furniture makers, miscellaneous industrials, paper manufacturers and makers of ornamental things and cattle dealers.

Joéi Judicial Code In the first year of Joéi, 1232, a judicial code was issued. It was called Joéi Shikimoku (Joéi Judicial Code) compiled by Yasutoki Hojo and his colleagues. This was a compilation founded on the judicial customs of olden days and had no incongruities with the Japanese common life as was often the case with the laws issued by the Central Government at Heian, largely imitations as they were of Chinese laws. It proved, as a matter of fact, to be more practical and effective, and survived many other laws, as an authoritative code for the samurai class, to the time of the Meiji Restoration.

Muromachi Age
(1338–1602 A.D.)

The Muromachi Shogunate Shortly after the downfall of the Kamakura Government, Takauji Ashikaga established a Shogunate in Kyoto, wholly on his own accord, in 1338, and in the time of his grandson Yoshimitsu his work was completed. It was called the Muromachi Shogunate, after the name of the street in Kyoto in which the government had its headquarters. Its system and institutions were almost the same as those of the former Kamakura Government. A relative of Ashikaga governed eastern Japan, staying at Kamakura. This Kamakura governor was first a simple representative of the Muromachi Shogunate, but by and by he began to stand in rivalry against it. Governors were sent to other places and generals were placed at the head of

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different military bodies. The governors in local districts were real lords, and acted freely on their own caprices.

Korea, China and Japan The official exchange of delegates with foreign countries was, as already mentioned, abolished, but nevertheless private trade continued. The Sung Dynasty united China in 979, and called forth a thriving international commerce. Merchants and Buddhist monks made visits to China much oftener than before. Kiyomori Taira opened a port at Hyogo and interviewed Chinese merchants at his palace. In the Kamakura Age, the Buddhist Zen Sect was introduced from China, and the Hojo built huge temples for its monks.

The Yuan Invasion. In 1206 the Yuan Dynasty gained sovereignty over the greater part of China and extended its territory even to a part of Europe. The great Emperor Kublai Khan took Korea, and destroyed the Sung Dynasty, winning possession of all China in 1279. He sent a messenger with advice to Japan to become his tributary, under threat of war. But Tokimuné Hojo, then in power at the Kamakura Shogunate, uniting forces with the Kyoto Court, firmly rejected the proposal. The result was a crisis for Japan in 1274 and again in 1281. The Yuan ruler in alliance with the government of Korea sent a great army to invade Japan. The Japanese were hard pressed, but they fought bravely with their small forces, and by the help of a typhoon which destroyed the enemy fleet they won the day in the summer of the year 1281.

The trade between the two nations, however, did not cease with the war. Takauji Ashikaga wished to build the Tenryuji temple and to get funds for the purpose he constructed trade boats which were called Tenryuji boats.

Trade with the Mings. From the beginning of the Kamakura Age, Japanese pirates had plundered the coasts of China and Korea. In the Muromachi Age, the Shogun Yoshimitsu Ashikaga concluded a friendly treaty with the Emperor of Ming in 1401. At the time of Yoshinori delegates of the Shogunate went to Ningpo with passports given by Ming authorities and traded there with the Chinese merchants. Not only Government delegates, but also the governors of local districts, monks and priests of temples or shrines, and some merchants of Hyogo and other ports sailed in and out with a similar purpose. The trade with Ming brought a great profit to Japan, and the Shogunate was relieved of its economic hardships, the western ports throve and the people became wealthy. The Shogunate did its best to prohibit the ravages of pirates, to prove its friendliness to the Ming Dynasty, but at the end of the Muromachi Age when the Shogunate lost its power and the local lords did as they liked, Japanese pirates again pillaged Chinese coasts, which were for a long time troubled with them.

Relations with Korea. At the time of the rise of the Mongolian nation, Korea turned against Japan under pressure of the Mongols. But the Japanese pirates ravaged her coasts, and she asked the help of China to send a strong protest to the Japanese Government. A general of Korea, Li-Seikei, was successful in protecting the nation from the attacks of the Japanese pirates, and he finally established a new dynasty of his own and called the new country Chosen in 1392.

Among the provincial lords there were many who had intercourse with Korea. Tsushima Island, especially, had close relations with her because of the nearness of its location. Its lord, So, opened trade with Korea in 1368. When Korea became known as Chosen these relations became even more intimate. There were many Tsushima islanders who became residents of Korea. (As to Japan's relations with the Western nations since 1543 when the Portuguese first came to Japan, see pp. 77–87 of the Japan Year Book, 1933, and Chapter VI of this volume.)

Feudalism It was during this age that feudalism was established as a definite system, and many of the provinces were ruled over by war-lords. Warriors fought each other, farmers were awakened to the need of uniting to protect their interests, and temples quarrelled with one another over the delimitation of their spheres of influence. It was a "dark age" in one sense, but important as an age of social change and progress. The advance of foreign trade was remarkable, and Japanese emigrants settled down in the South Sea Islands.

The war-lords began to disregard the orders of the Shogunate, becoming selfish and money-loving. Yoshimitsu Ashikaga, the third of the line, reorganized the Shogunate and restored its power for a while, but after his death it began to decay and the local lords usurped its authority. Both in the capital of Heian and in the districts civil wars raged year after year. The luxurious living initiated by Yoshimitsu and Yoshimasa, the 8th Shogun, spread like an epidemic among the local lords and warriors, and the ones who suffered

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most were the common people, the farmers and merchants, because the expenses of the luxury of the upper classes came always from their pockets.

The latter half of the Muromachi Shogunate was an age of civil strife among the feudal lords. All tradition and authority disappeared, and any talented man, favoured by fate, had the chance to make himself a lord.

Military and General Education. Progress in military arts and the use of weapons was a feature of the age. Various styles of Kendo (fencing) were founded and schools to teach the art flourished in the four corners of the islands. Nor was general education neglected. Both the Ashikaga Gakko and Kanazawa Bunko fulfilled their functions as educational centres, Térakoya were established in more districts and education began to reach the farmers and merchants. In 1561 St. Francis Xavier landed at Kagoshima, at the southern end of Kyushu, and the Catholic faith was first preached among the Japanese. Otomo and other lords in Kyushu were baptized and within less than 30 years there were 200 churches built and over 1,500,000 people converted. Nobunaga Oda was in favour of Christianity from his policy of suppressing the unruly power of the Buddhist monks. Catholics were also eager to establish schools. Within the feud of Otomo there was established a seminary (Casa Professa) for training preachers. Colleges for young laymen were established at Arima in Higo province (present Kumamoto), Kyushu, Funai in Bungo province (present Oita), Kyushu, and Azuchi in Omi province near Kyoto. The last one was opened in 1581, and 25 boys from good families were instructed in the catechism, Latin, Portuguese, Japanese reading and composition.

Woman's Position Here it must be mentioned that the status of women was greatly lowered in this age of warlords and samurai. Men vaunted their physical prowess in battle, while women were compelled to live secluded lives, sheltering at home from the dangers of the times. Chinese dicta concerning the "three obediences and seven reasons for divorce" making of woman little better than a slave or chattel, suited the selfish convenience of man, and the Buddhist idea of woman as an impure being detrimental to man's ascent to Buddhahood, all worked together to pull woman's social position down to a ridiculously low level, contrasting with the high status she had enjoyed in more ancient days.

Commerce Ravaged by frequent warfare, the city of Heian or Kyoto had become deserted, the population thronging to the villages which nestled around the castles of the feudal lords. These in time became thriving cities or towns. Among sea ports Hakata, Hyogo, Muro, and Sakai were representative ones. To Sakai, for instance, came foreign ships direct, and there arose many wealthy merchants who had financial power over the Muromachi Shogunate. It was a free city, governed by its own city assembly and protected by its own city guard. Yukinaga Konishi who was first a pharmacist and became a lord on his own account, Sen-no-Rikyu, the famous specialist in the tea ceremony, and Sukémon Noya, a millionaire merchant in foreign trade with the South Sea Islands, were representative men of Sakai.

Industry The taste of the age was rather simple and purely Japanese. The war-lords found recreation in the tea ceremony or garden-making. The preservation of natural simplicity was the dominant note in these gardens, rocks and pebbles being used in their construction. The national leader in this direction was Yoshimasa Ashikaga, the Shogun, famous exponent of the tea ceremony. This ceremony was never a mere drinking of tea but a formalized social meeting, at which guests were invited by the host to a simple and tasteful dinner which was called Kaiséki. Choice porcelain wares and other utensils were used in it and the guests were entertained not only by the repast but also by the exhibition of rare articles and scroll pictures. It became a fashion of the time and greatly stimulated and improved the art of making porcelain, lacquer and cast-iron wares and Kakémono paintings. These were exported to the continent for the first time in the history of Japan.

The last quarter of this age, called the Momoyama Period in art history, was represented by the gorgeous taste of Hidéyoshi Toyotomi who built the Momoyama Palace of silver and gold. The influence of the Western world definitely reached Japan with the coming of Catholic priests in this period. It affected not only the spiritual and mental life of the Japanese but also the field of architecture. When Nobunaga Oda built the Azuchi Castle, the first of its kind, in 1576, Catholic priests gave advice or directed the construction. The central building of the Japanese castle is called Tenshu-kaku. The word Tenshu means the Heavenly Lord or God of the Catholic Church, and the Tenshu-kaku signifies the Tower of the Heaven-

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ly Lord. It is said that in the Tower of the Heavenly Lord Catholic images were enshrined when it was first built. According to an art investigation, there are in Italy remnants of old buildings which resemble the Japanese castles and the influence of Roman architecture through the Portuguese and Spaniards must have been felt in Japanese castle building.

Economic Conditions There were economic reasons underlying the civil wars among the feudal lords in the latter half of the Muromachi Age. Enlarged volume of production, progress of communications and transportation, advancement of commerce and industry and changes in military strategy following the introduction of guns led to the wars of territorial invasion and expansion among the lords who had to provide for an increasing number of soldiers and officials. Both commerce and industry had from the time of Yoritomo Minamoto, progressed slowly but steadily with the spread of civilization to local centres, and merchants and artisans were gaining standing as a class. Up to the middle of the Muromachi Age the guilds called "Za" monopolized the supply of goods to the lords; this system, however, came to an end with the progress of free trading, and public markets were permanently established. The appearance of large towns and cities necessitated the accumulation of commodities and provisions from adjacent country places and other parts of the land and hastened the growth of wholesale dealers. The wholesale dealers of the age were called "Mommaru" and combined the businesses of innkeeping, wholesale trading, transportation and money exchanging. Banking business also made considerable progress. There were no banks in the modern sense, but the pawnshops were the banks of the day when as yet there was no regular credit system. Buddhist temples and the brewers of saké acted also as money lenders and they together with the pawnshops were usurers and capitalists. Tanomoshi-ko (small associations for mutual financial aid) were already in vogue. Accumulation of wealth became a dire necessity for the lords, but they had to rely wholly upon the farmers and merchants for financial support while the Central Government was too weak to aid them or protect their interests in accordance with the change of social and economic conditions. Some fell so heavily into debt that finally they had to surrender their territory to their creditors. The Shogunate prohibited the purchase or mortgage of land owned by the samurai to merchants and landed proprietors, but this regulation was not observed. By the end of the Kamakura Shogunate it had become too late to attempt the financial rescue of the samurai. The lords levied heavy taxes on their people and farmed out their collection to appointed merchants. The final outcome of this system, however, was to let the land fall into the hands of those agents, so that the lords were driven in desperation to get new land by force. At times the farmers and smaller merchants resorted to violence to protect their rights and demand more merciful governance from their respective lords or the Shogunate. They often attacked the wealthy merchants, temples and pawnshops to get back goods they had pawned.

The latter half of the Muromachi Age witnessed Buddhist mob rioting and fighting. The Shin Sect (or Ikko Shu) founded by Shinran gained great numbers of followers from among the common people, and some uprisings of these religionists were in reality directed against the ruling class. For instance, the Ikko mob which started rioting in the districts of Kaga, Noto and Échigo provinces, fought against Masachika Togashi the lord of Kaga and killed him, while another in the district near the present-day Kobé and Osaka defeated the armies of Hosokawa their lord, the fight extending over several provinces from Sakai to Ishiyama in Omi province (present Shiga). Iyéyasu Tokugawa, then lord of Mikawa (present Shizuoka), fought with them in 1563, and to Nobunaga Oda also they were a constant source of trouble.

The social changes caused by the progress of trade and commerce during the Kamakura and Muromachi Ages and the consequent disorder among the ruling classes were not allowed to take their own course very long, for foreign relations, especially with Western countries, presented many international problems and the necessity of national unity became keenly felt. The introduction of fire-arms brought about a fundamental change in methods of fighting. Arrows were no match for bullets. Preparations for war had to be made on a much larger scale and the warriors or soldiers reorganized in a more systematic way, and consequently the smaller lords were forced to unite under the leadership of greater ones who possessed real power and means to organize new armies. In this manner the unity of all Japan was realized in three stages through three great war-lords, Nobunaga Oda, Hidéyoshi Toyotomi and Iyé-

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yasu Tokugawa.

Nobunaga Oda The first, Nobunaga Oda, was an official under the lord Shiba, but soon becoming independent he subdued one after another many lesser lords with his soldiers armed with guns, and, in July, 1573, dethroned Yoshiaki Ashikaga the Shogun and demanded direct access to the Emperor Ogimachi. Nobunaga who had had long and bitter experience of the Buddhist mobs waged war against them and set fire to the Enryakuji temple on Mount Hiéi, one of the most powerful temples of the time, thus putting an end to Buddhist meddling in political affairs. He found another means of lessening the power of Buddhist temples by favouring the spread of the Christian faith. He gave all encouragement to its propagation and welcomed the inflow of Western learning and civilization. Nobunaga destroyed the barrier gates in districts which hindered free commercial intercourse and transportation and put an end to the monopolizing guilds and gave merchants opportunity for unrestricted trading. But in 1582 he was assassinated with his work yet incomplete, and it was left to Hidéyoshi to continue the task of uniting the nation.

Hidéyoshi Toyotomi Hidéyoshi Toyotomi, a farmer's son, and one of the trusted generals of Oda, succeeded in subduing even such great lords as Mori and Shimazu in the west and Daté and Hojo in the north and practically united the whole nation by force. In 1583 the whole land of Japan was surveyed to divide it into new rural districts. In 1586 Hidéyoshi fixed the costumes of the samurai according to their rank. In 1588 the common people were ordered to surrender their swords for casting a Daibutsu (great image of Buddha), the purpose of this order being to prevent the wearing of swords by any except the samurai. The law of 1591 strictly prohibited the shifting of hereditary business, and the four classes of samurai, farmers, artisans and merchants were firmly fixed.

To force obedience to the law Goningumi (Five Men's Bands) were compulsorily organized. All the people (samurai inclusive) were grouped by 5 or 10 families and each group not only took joint responsibility for the doings of all of its members but helped its members in civil life. This originated before Toyotomi's time, but the law issued in 1600 made it an established institution and played an important part in the following Tokugawa Age both politically and socially. Hidéyoshi planned an invasion of the Continent, Formosa, and the Philippines, but died in 1598 before realizing his dreams.

Before the absolute unity of Japan could be accomplished another great statesman was to take the work in hand.

Social Classes (12th-16th centuries) The Ōnin war (1467-1475) which was fought between the Muromachi (the Fujiwaras) Shogunate families in the city of Kyoto not only destroyed the Shogunate itself but also reduced the Capital to ashes. The Court and the Shogunate lost power at once and the whole country was thrown into commotion for a century by the wars of the military lords.

The wars entirely did away with old social customs and laws and gave opportunity for the rise of petty warriors and landed-farmers who, to this time, had been subjected to the aristocrats and war-lords. This was a time of great changes in the social order of Japan. After the Ōnin war members of the labouring classes were able to become lords through their own ability; farmers organized to oppose their lords; commercial cities like Sakai, Yamaguchi, and Osaka, appeared and became rich with the development of foreign trade; and villages, in many districts, began to govern themselves.

In consequence of the rise of new war-lords the aristocratic class of this age was of two kinds, the old nobles in the Court and the new war-lords. The Court nobles had become poor through the confiscation of parts of their estates in country districts by the Kamakura Shogunate. They were, nevertheless, still highly honoured because of their culture and attainments, all lines of study being handed down by them in hereditary succession, and high positions in the Court were held by them though they had no practical power in the administration of national affairs. The only sphere of influence left to the Court nobles was in religious circles, except in the Zen Sect which had most of its adherents among the samurai classes. The Fujiwaras, who succeeded the Minamotos in the Shogunate government, again confiscated more than one-half of the lands of Court nobles and finally stretched their wanton hands over the estates of the Imperial House and temples and shrines in the name of military taxes. In the Ōnin war, fought in the city of Kyoto, the mansions of the Court nobles were all destroyed or set on fire and the nobles themselves were compelled to desert the capital and seek protection among the wealthy families in the country districts or temples and shrines.

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The war-lords in this age were sons of local governors in older ages, new governors placed in districts by the Kamakura and Fujiwara Shogunates, and big land-lords who ascended to war-lordship by hiring warriors for the protection of their estates in the political confusion of the time. The name "Daimyo" which represented the war-lords in later ages, especially in the Yédo Age, originated in the land-lords, and meant one who owned a large estate or villages. The war-lords, new and old, took advantage of the downfall of the Shogunate after the Ōnin war to consolidate their field of activity all over Japan. They fought each other to obtain supremacy.

The second class of people consisted of farmers, artisans and merchants. The war-lords and Daimyo in the provinces built castles around which artisans and merchants settled, the artisans and merchants increased in number and the castles gradually grew into towns and cities, while progress in foreign trade during the latter half of this age gave rise to such port cities as Sakai, Hakata and Yamaguchi. Artisans and merchants formed guilds as mentioned elsewhere and protected their rights and profits. Farmers who had been trodden under the foot of the ruling classes began to make demands upon their lords who could no longer control them by threats but had to handle them in a more honourable manner. The first record of a farmers' mob movement against their lords was that of the farmers in Kinki (Kyoto and Nara) districts which started in September, 1428. The mob demanded the so-called "Toku Séi", cancellation of debt or a permanent moratorium. Mobs which were united in the faith of Buddhism such as the Jodo or Hokké sects were well organized and had some permanency so that at one time they formed their own government. In the province of Yamashiro the farmers succeeded in organizing their own government and elected members by vote at the Byodoin temple at Uji, Kyoto, in February, 1486. This and other examples of a similar nature were not allowed to continue because of later changes in political affairs, but they laid foundations for the future development of towns and villages and the "Goningumi" as mentioned above.

The lowest class in this period consisted of sons of the same class in the preceding age. The difference was that the slaves of Court nobles or government offices became more despised than the slaves at private houses. The latter were handled by their lords in a much more humane way than in the preceding age. The former, on the contrary, became more disliked by the other people because of their Korean origin and their special work of butchers and skinners, for such work was extremely despised by Buddhism, which taught people not to kill any living thing, even lice, and taboo all flesh. They were called the "Éta," the meaning of which changed from the "butcher" to the "polluted", and lived in groups secluded from others.

Yédo Age
(1602-1867 A.D.)

In 1600 Iyéyasu Tokugawa gained a decisive victory at Sekigahara, near Gifu, and became the practical ruler of Japan. Except for a small portion allotted to the Imperial House and various religious bodies, over 90 per cent of the entire land was divided among the Tokugawas, their relatives, and favourite generals and lords. Thus the complete unity of the nation was realized by the dual master-and-subject relation between the lords and their people and the Shogun and his lords. This feudal system lasted over 260 years, being quite unparalleled in the history of the world. This was a success primarily for the Tokugawa Shogunate rather than the nation. It was due for one thing to the financial and military strength of the Tokugawa family, secondly to the clever method of administration, best suited to keep wayward war-lords in order, and thirdly to the halting of alien influences from overseas.

Iyéyasu located the seat of the Central Government at Yédo (Tokyo) and governed from there his 200 lords and generals. The financial basis of this Shogunate was superior to that of its predecessors. About 7,000,000 koku ("koku" in this case means the area of land which can produce one koku of rice) or nearly one-fourth of the national area of 30,560,000 koku, was owned by the Shogunate directly or indirectly. Besides, all the ports and places important for political and military purposes, the largest cities and the centres of industrial and commercial activities, and all the mines of any value were under the Shogunate's direct control. It also retained the right of casting coins.

Buké Hatto (Samurai Law) After giving the final blow to the Toyotomis in May, 1615, Iyéyasu Tokugawa ordered the drafting of the law concerning the daimyo (feudal lords) and samurai. In July of the same year the Samurai Law was pronounced before the gathering of the daimyo called for the purpose

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by the second Tokugawa Shogun, Hidétada. It consisted of 13 articles the gist of them being as follows: (1) Samurai must be well educated in general learning and versed in the arts of war; (2) Unbridled drinking and luxuriousness are strictly prohibited; (3) Criminals must not be aided or concealed; (4) All treasonous bodies and murderers should be banished; (5) No person other than the subjects of the daimyo should be allowed to live in his territory; (6) All repairs to castles need permission of the Shogunate and the building of a new castle is strictly prohibited; (7) If anyone detects a new castle building or a secret political organization in a neighbouring province he must report it to the Shogunate; (8) Marriages must not be celebrated privately; (9) All the lords are required to observe "sankinkotai". (According to this article the lords were divided into two groups, and each group was to come up to Yédo, the seat of the Shogunate, in April every other year, to stay there for one year and the Shogunate prepared their Yedo residences where their families were kept as hostages. These rules were somewhat loosened in later years.) (10) Styles of costume should be regulated according to rank and social position; (11) Servants ought not freely to use the palanquin (the only vehicle in those days) in travel; (12) Samurai should be instructed to live frugally; and (13) the lords should use discretion in appointment of officials. The purpose of this law was to restrict the armament of the lords, to suppress political organization and treason, to effectively inspect the local government of the lords, and to force them to keep order by strict rules on their behaviour. The number of daimyo was 157 according to the Shogunate statistics of 1614.

Kugé Hatto (Court Nobles Law) This law for the court nobles was promulgated in July, 1615, at the assembly of 150 court nobles at the Nijo Castle, Kyoto. It consisted of 17 articles, and included regulations regarding the positions of the Emperor, Imperial Princes and Princesses, the appointment of a Regency and chief councillor, adoption, court ranks, institution of the year name, costumes, the order of promotion, orders issued by magistrates, sentences of the court, and the position, ranks, costumes and honorary titles of the head priests of Buddhist temples. (See p. 100, the Japan Year Book 1936, for the main points of the law.)

System of Control Iyéyasu took scrupulous care not to give any chance to the Imperial House and the greater lords to gather forces against the Shogunate. His first policy was to restrict their powers by the promulgation of the Kugé Hatto and Buké Hatto above mentioned. His second was to allot their districts to the respective lords by an administrative plan deliberately schemed out. The Kanto district in which the seat of the Shogunate was located was put under the direct rule of the Shogun and ruled by his personal generals to protect the Central Government from attack. In the districts around Kyoto, the city of the Imperial House, none of the Tozama Daimyo, the conquered lords, were placed, but only the relatives of the Tokugawa and the Fudai Daimyo, lords who had been on the Tokugawa's side from of old; and in Kyoto itself a representative office of the Shogunate had the responsibility of watching any political move in that city. Along the two main roads, the Tokaido and Nakasendo (or Koshukaido) which connected Kyoto and Yédo, the Fudai Daimyo only were appointed to rule. The Tozama Daimyo were all given lands in the remoter parts and between each two of them a Fudai Daimyo was placed to play the part of a barrier. Such important places as Osaka, Sakai, Fushimi, Nagasaki and Ujiyamada were administered by governors directly sent from Yédo. The children of Iyéyasu were given large feuds and established the Houses of Mito, Owari, Échizen and Kishu, forming a defensive semicircular line. As a whole. Iyéyasu cleverly divided the land among the lords so as to keep the balance between the east and the west, a policy which proved successful till the balance was broken in the first half of the 19th century when the western lords rose in rebellion. The Shogunate paid scrupulous attention to all travellers along the Tokaido. It put a barrier at Hakoné, and nobody was allowed to pass through the gate without a passport issued from the lords or the Shogunate. After the enforcement of the articles of the Buké Hatto requiring the family of a lord to stay at Yédo, women were almost entirely prohibited from leaving the city for they must get Hakoné passports directly from the Shogunate.

The purpose of the seclusion policy adopted by the Tokugawa Shogunate was to shut out any possible outside political influence and to prevent the local lords from getting large profits out of foreign trade, and rising thereby to financial and political power. The Shogunate did everything to safeguard its supremacy and make the lords obedient, no matter how national progress

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was hindered or into what miserable condition the people might be thrown.

Organization of the Tokugawa Shogunate The Shogunate was a government of one despotic ruler: the Shogun. No one man, however, can perform all the duties of a government unassisted. Although there were many changes in the organization and the names of offices in the 268 years of its rule the Yédo Government, in the main, had a Cabinet which consisted of one Tairo (the great elder), five Roju (the middle elders), and five Wakadoshiyori (the younger elders). The Tairo was the premier but, though the Shogun at times placed his most reliable and able statesman in the position, the years in which a Tairo held office were but few, the Shogun himself generally undertaking the office. The Roju were the ministers of the administration. They signed the public ordinances and documents of the highest import. Their administration was based on former customs and newly issued laws, while their secretaries had the responsibility of examining old customs and precedents to help their decisions. These five saw to matters concerning the Imperial House, the court nobles and prince monks, and controlled all the lords and high officials, local governors and inspectors, and in wartime commanded the armies of the lords.

The Wakadoshiyori consisted of four or five members who were at once councillors and vice-ministers and controlled the Hatamoto (the generals who directly belonged to the Shogunate), and the lower officials, and in any emergency commanded the armies of the Hatamoto.

Both the Roju and the Wakadoshiyori were appointed from among the Fudai-Daimyo only.

Under the cabinet there were three Bugyo, the Jisha Bugyo (Temple and Shrine Department), the Machi Bugyo (City Department), and the Kanjo Bugyo (Counting Department). The Jisha Bugyo controlled all the temples and shrines in the country and administered justice in the remoter districts. The Machi Bugyo administered the city (Yédo) affairs from administrative business to justice, police and prisons. The Kanjo Bugyo took charge of the treasury of the Shogunate, gathering taxes from the estates directly belonging to the Shogun.

The Roju, the Wakadoshiyori and the three Bugyo formed the Central Shogunate Government, all other officials belonging to or coming under the control of one or other of these. Among the local officials the most important were the Shoshi-dai who represented the Shogunate at Kyoto, the Osaka-jodai who represented the Shogunate at Osaka, the Fushimi Bugyo, overseers of the barriers at Kyoto, the Kobusho Bugyo or military department, and the Nagasaki Bugyo who controlled the lords in Kyushu.

Cultural Life Culture and civilization made greatest progress in the western part of Japan and it was in Osaka and Kyoto that literature and a more refined life developed in the earlier years of the Yédo period. Iyéyasu was anxious to spread knowledge and encouraged the study of the Japanese and Chinese literatures of former days; scholars of great learning appeared who opened schools and published commentaries or interpretations either of their own accord or by the backing or order of the lords. The progress of the art of printing greatly helped the spread of education by books. But in the early days of the age most of the energy of the ruling class and the common people was spent in readjusting their political and social life to the new state of affairs created by the united and centralized government of the Tokugawa Shogunate, and time was needed for the psychological atmosphere of the people to settle down toward a peaceful enjoyment of life in this better organized society.

It was not until after half a century that a characteristic taste and way of life began to show themselves, discarding the old garbs of tradition. Here it must be noted that the fundamental feature of the literature of the age was that it was the creation of the common people, people who were denied all opportunity of rising to higher social positions or assuming official posts in the government. The so-called Genroku period commenced with the luxurious life of the fifth Shogun, Tsunayoshi, who was a man of enthusiasm, fond of learning, and encouraged lectures and schools. Even before his time the general trend of the period had been toward extravagance and amusement following a century of peace. The Shogun's example, however, quickened and intensified this tendency, and such amusements as "nō" drama, joruri (or gidaiyu), and kabuki (see Chapter XXXVII) were enjoyed by the general masses, while pure literature such as haiku, waka, novels, and stories began also to be written and read among the lower classes. Skill in the fine arts, characteristic Japanese hand-work and special weaving arts reached the highest pitch.

In the Genroku period literary men were able to publish their writings free-

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ly and the joruri of Chikamatsu, the novels of Saikaku, and the short poems of Bashō had a great circulation, most of their works becoming literary treasures of Japan for ages to come.

The leadership in civilization was still with Osaka and Kyoto up to the end of this period. But the Sankin-kotai and the power of Yédo, the seat of the Shogunate, did not long allow the centre of culture and fashion to remain in these old western cities, and Yédo had finally assumed the first position in all matters of political and social life by the last quarter of the 18th century. The following 80 years, especially the first 50 years of it, was the golden age of the cultural life before the Meiji Restoration.

The policy of the Tokugawa Shogunate in handling the people from the lowest to the highest, was very severe, and the class most oppressed being the common populace. Social tragedies amply reflect themselves in the literature of joruri writers, Chikamatsu and his contemporaries, and in spite of the apparently good intentions of the Shogunate rulers and advisers to improve the political, economic and social conditions, in many cases the people in general were either trodden down by lawless samurai or entangled and rendered helpless in the network of prohibitive laws.

But the characteristic optimism of the Japanese kept them from falling into hopeless discouragement and their surplus time and money were spent in amusements of all kinds. This repressed energy found its outlet in creative industry and literature, or their enjoyment. Besides the standard works of literature there are preserved smaller illustrated pamphlets, short novels and poems which reflect the life of the common people in those days. They expose the looseness of the social life in many respects, but it is wonderful how they show the innate heart of the Japanese people, optimistic, realistic and humane. If it were not for its partial suppression by the Government this common literature might have attained remarkable progress. All Japanese amusements either originated or took definite form in this age. In the upper classes of society a similar course of development ran through all phases of life. Characteristic Japanese philosophy on human life or Shintoism was created by the combination of Chinese philosophies and Buddhism.

Gradual Economic Decline At the beginning of the Tokugawa Shogunate foreign trade was carried on to a considerable extent but afterwards it was almost entirely prohibited except to a small extent through one trade port, and all hope of increasing the national wealth and economic progress of Japan was lost for the time being. Even with its income from the large territory above mentioned the Shogunate could hardly manage to keep pace with the ever increasing expenditure. Financial unsoundness appeared at the time of the fourth Shogun, and from the fifth Shogun on they were forced to rely upon the profits gained by the recasting of coin. Various improvements and revisions of economic policy wrought no material change of situation for the better. In the Tempo Era (1830–1844), the Government stood on the brink of bankruptcy and during the last years of the Shogunate the financial situation went from bad to worse.

The local lords had territories of 10,000 koku to 1,020,000 koku each, but their income from these was too small to feed all their dependent samurai and soldiers, and to finance the Sankin-kotai travelling expenses. They fell into heavy debt, their creditors being the wealthy merchants and money lenders at Yédo and Osaka, the two business centres of the time. From the middle of the Yédo Age few of the lords could manage without the help of the rich merchants. Seventy per cent of the national wealth was said to have got into the hands of wealthy business men by the end of the age. In 1843 the lords sent about 4,000,000 koku of rice to Osaka, 3,000,000 koku of which went to Osaka merchants as interest on their debt of 60,000,000 ryo (gold coin). All means to which they resorted to increase their incomes proved in vain.

The samurai were also compelled by the Sankin-kotai system to have two houses, one at their rural town and the other in Yédo. They were not allowed to do any productive work but received a kind of salary from their own lords, and mostly lived a leisurely life, although some were given offices in the local governments. The long peace did not necessarily bring happiness to the samurai, but rather drew them into different means of pastime and their fighting spirit was dulled with the increasing tendency to luxury. Their incomes were limited from the beginning and were still more shortened by compulsory loans to their feudal lord out of their "fuchi" or salaries, or even complete suspension of payment. They had no way of extorting from the farmers, as the lords had, and after losing all their means they could not help

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but break the law and work secretly for their living as artisans or small merchants. In the end the samurai began to sell their weapons and armour which had become useless in the long years of peace.

In the Yédo Age the country folk still lived on the natural products of their farms, helped out by some small income from their handwork, and each village constituted an economic unit, self-supplying and self-supporting. The political peace benefited farmers especially and increase of production resulted from the improvement of farming instruments and institutions. The kinds of vegetables grown became more numerous, sericulture advanced remarkably, and new areas of arable land were brought under cultivation. At the time of Toyotomi's land survey (1573) the rice production of the whole country had been estimated at 18,000,000 koku. In the Genroku Era (1688–1704) it increased to 25,780,000 koku, and, in 1842, to 30,550,000 koku. But 50% of the farmers' income had to be paid to the lords, they were forbidden to move from one place to another, or to change their occupation, purchase of land was restricted, the Gonin-gumi and other feudal institutions fettered them hand and foot. So this class of people was also thrown into miserable depression, and farmers resorted to such desperate measures as infanticide, fleeing to cities and mob riots to escape from their difficulties or fight for their living.

The number of recorded farmer-mob riots reached 568, including 68 in the early period of the age, 236 in the middle, and 264 in the last. The usual motive for rising in mobs was anger at the unreasonable extortion by the lords, tenant disputes being as yet rare.

It was estimated that the proportion of farmers to the whole population was 80%, and the total population in the Yédo Age showed a slow increase in the first half and a standstill in the latter. This was brought about by such natural causes as famines, prevalence of epidemics and insanitary dwellings; but the dreadful habit of infanticide which originated from the direst difficulty of living among the farming class, must have been the greatest factor in checking the increase of population, for it was usual among farmers to restrict the number of their children to less than three in a family. Another negative measure was to flee from the territory of the despotic lord to large cities. Cities had insufficient capacity to receive the inflow of these country people because as yet there were no industrial factories, but there were many openings for house-workers, day labourers and apprentices in the business houses or artisans' shops.

Commerce and Industry The advance of commerce was helped by the increase of population in the towns and cities where central and rural governmental seats were located and the regular journeys to and from Yédo of the lords and their soldiers in Sankin-kotai. But as all foreign trade was banned, business could not take on any natural or international development. The main commodity of the day was rice, that produced in the Kansai, Chugoku (the Main Island west of Kobé), Shikoku, Kyushu and Hokuriku (districts facing the Japan Sea in the central part of the Main Island) being transported to Osaka rice-dealers, while that of Kanto and Ohu or the north-eastern provinces was sold in Yédo. Exchange business in rice had already commenced among Osaka merchants and speculations began to draw common interest. Coins of gold, silver, bronze or copper were in good circulation by this time, although these suffered changes of value at times, and the west of Osaka adopted the silver standard while the east took the gold standard. Paper money was issued by the rural governments so that money economy prevailed all over Japan. Bank business or Ryo-gaé and the credit system made considerable progress.

Yédo had over a million population and Osaka came next with several hundred thousand. There were many other cities of over ten thousand. Seclusion had put a stop to sea transportation to foreign lands, but land transportation within the country made wonderful progress. The five highways, To-kaido, Nakasen-do, Koshu-kaido, Nikko-kaido and Oshu-kaido (Dō or Kaido means road) converged at Yédo and men and goods came to the Shogunate capital along them and their byroads from the remotest corners of the land. Coasting sea transportation had the following four main lines: the South Sea line between Yédo and Osaka, the West Sea line between Osaka and Nagasaki, the North Sea line from Shimonoséki to Matsumaé, and the East Sea line between Oshu and Yédo; the most important of these being the South Sea line which connected Yédo the greatest consuming city and Osaka the greatest commercial centre.

On the other hand factories were still undeveloped and most articles were made by hand in individual houses. Industry with large capital and in factories was limited to brewing at Nada, weav-

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ing at Ashikaga, Kiriu near Yédo and Hakata in Kyushu, metal foundries in Chugoku and shipbuilding.

The seclusion policy quenched the enthusiasm of the Japanese for foreign trade which had been greatly stimulated at the time of Nobunaga Oda and at the beginning of the Yédo Age by the activities of the Goshuin-sen or registered vessels and small boats of the pirates. The Islanders were compelled to fall back on the old economic system of self-supply and self-sufficiency, and unwillingly relinquishing the international spirit that had aspired to things Western on a far larger scale than that of China centuries ago.

At the same time, however, it resulted in the creation of many industries and fine arts purely Japanese, and in the course of time, the work of the artisans became minutely specialized numbering over 150 kinds. The artisans were united in guilds according to their kinds, which protected their rights and profits, master, artisans and apprentices comprising each house. There were government purveyors who were protected by the Shogunate and accumulated wealth. The number of merchants greatly increased and the classes of the wholesale merchants, middle men and retailers were definitely established. The wholesale dealers organized associations and gradually, in their financial ascendancy, acquired real power over the samurai and lords.

Social Classes (16th–18th centuries) The policy of the Tokugawa Shogunate, which followed the national unity of Hidéyoshi Toyotomi, clearly marked the class divisions into five, the samurai or buké, farmers, businessmen, educationists and outcasts.

First, taking the place of the former Court nobles came the samurai class. This consisted of the war-lords or daimyo and their warriors and occupied governmental positions and was responsible for all the national political and military affairs, both central and provincial. The samurai lived on the revenue from taxes levied on the farmers and businessmen. In times of emergency unreasonable levies were imposed upon these working classes, and extremely despotic lords often robbed them of their wealth in the name of loans never repaid. This latter injustice was specially repeated by the lords at the end of the Yédo Age when the samurai class was thrown into an economic depression by reasons mentioned elsewhere. According to statistics taken by the Meiji Government in 1872 the number of samurai households was 395,825, with an aggregate membership of 1,911,239, or 7 per cent of the total population at the end of the Yédo Age. There were in 1752, the Shogunate House, its three relative lords, and 258 lords or daimyo. Among the 258 daimyo those who owned an estate above 600,000 koku numbered 3, above 200,000 koku 15, above 100,000 koku 27, above 60,000 koku 20, above 30,000 koku 62, and above 10,000 koku 23. All of these lords were made peers after 1884 when the old daimyo system was done away with by the Meiji Government.

Farmers were divided into three classes, village officials, landowners and tenants. The first of these were the largest landowners in villages who were asked by the daimyo or samurai dignitaries to levy taxes on the villagers. They represented their village and had power over the villagers in both public and private matters as tax-gatherers, police and leaders of the community. Other landed farmers who had no official responsibility owned their own land and farm and were the tax-bearers of the community. The tenants were subjects of the other landed farmers and were the most pitiable of the working classes of the time. Of their production 50 per cent went to the samurai as public taxes and 30 per cent to their master or landed farmers as rent, and they themselves were compelled to live on but 20 per cent of what they had produced. The percentage of these classes of farmer seems to have been 2.5 per cent, 37.5 per cent, and 60 per cent, respectively. Farmers were often stricken by natural calamities in addition to this squeeze by the ruling classes.

The class of businessmen was also divided into two, wealthier merchants or artisans who owned houses and lots, and tenants. In social standing businessmen were regarded lower than farmers, but as a matter of fact their economic condition was much better. Their prosperity depended on the luxury and consequent demands of the samurai class, so the samurai and businessmen were economically interdependent, but the businessmen gradually obtained the more powerful position and wealthier "chonin" or merchants became to be much honoured because of their economic power. Toward the latter half of the Yédo Age they actually became freer than the samurai. At times their wealth and lives were forfeit to the Shogunate or local warlords, yet they laid an unshakable foundation for the business classes in new Japan after the Meiji Restoration in 1868.

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The educational class consisted of the Court nobles, monks, priests and physicians. The social standing of the Court nobles was still high. The Emperor was duly respected by the Shogunate and daimyo, but he had no political power. The Court nobles who lived in Kyoto with the Imperial House had but a meagre means of living. They were satisfied to be tutors in one art or another, such as waka, Japanese football, penmanship, astrology, medical science, etc. Yet their hereditary position as the nobility was well established and they formed so strong a class of their own that the Shogunate or the war-lords could hardly disregard their existence, in fact it was by the combined power of the Court nobles and the "rônin" or masterless samurai that the Shogunate was finally overthrown in the middle of the 19th century.

The lowest class in the Yédo Age, as in the preceding period, were the "Éta" and "hinin." The number of "Éta" or "polluted" remarkably increased in this age because war-lords in the previous war age called the butchers and skinners to their castle-towns to manufacture articles for war, and the birthrate of these "Éta" was great. They lived all over the country instead of only in the Kyoto and Nara districts as in the previous age, forming their own communities. They were despised by other people to the extent that they were not allowed to eat or sit with them. Intermarriage and mixed residence with other classes was strictly prohibited by law. This "Éta" class has been most unreasonably treated to the present, although the Meiji Government declared in 1871 that no legal distinction should exist between the "Éta" and others. The "hinin," outcasts, beggars, and the like were put in the same class with the "Éta". According to statistics taken by the Meiji Government in 1871 the number of the "Éta" was 280,311, beggars 23,420 and others 79,097.

Ronin A characteristic phenomenon of the Yédo Age was the appearance of the Ronin or masterless samurai. Such samurai had existed in previous years, but at the time of the despot Toyotomi their number was insignificant. The samurai who had followed lords defeated and ruined in battles became ronin, their number was added to by the extinction of noble houses in punishment for rebellion and the unemployment of the sons of samurai, other than the first born, who had no share in the inheritance of their father's property or position. Some samurai voluntarily chose the life of a ronin. All these lawless ronin lived from hand to mouth and were either at odds with the ruling class or gave constant trouble to the common people. The event mainly responsible for the creation of this class of people was the battle at Sékigahara (1600 A.D.) which decided the supremacy of the Tokugawas over the Toyotomis. In the 13 years between that battle and the Osaka battle which ended in the final destruction of the Toyotomi family, the number of the lords entirely ruined or partly deprived of territory reached over 100 and the confiscated area to approximately 9,000,000 koku. Some found second masters but the larger number of the samurai were thrown out of work. The Osaka battle was caused by these samurai in a last attempt to preserve the power of the Toyotomis, although it ended in their complete failure. Again, in the 23 years between the Osaka battle and the Shimabara Rebellion in 1637 another 70 lords lost the whole or a part of their territory by the relentless application of the Buké Hatto, and indeed the Shimabara Rebellion was nothing but an outburst of complaints by the Catholics and the ronin against the oppression of the Shogunate. But the power of the Shogunate was unshakable. The number of the ronin, however, was still more increased, and in the 4th year of the Kéian Era, 1651, Yui-no-Shosétsu and his colleagues attempted a change of the Shogunate government for the benefit of the ronin, although it was suppressed by the wholesale arrest of the ambitious leaders and the harakiri of Yui-no-Shosétsu himself on July 25 of that year. There were minor events caused by outbreaks of the ronin here and there and at last the Shogunate was awakened by these uprisings to the graveness of the situation and after the Kéian Era measures were taken to prevent further increase in the number of these masterless samurai. As a rule, in obedience to Bushido ethics, the samurai did not like to take a second master, and only a small portion found positions, while the rest either remained unemployed or chose some other occupation. Some became merchants or farmers. Others became scholars and opened Térakoya and educated the young in Confucianism and Japanese literature and morals. Still others became specialists in military arts and gave lectures to the samurai and the lords, while there were quite a number of experts in fencing and archery who opened drill-halls or schools in the larger cities. The better element of the ronin played an important part in the

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social development of the country standing in a freer position than the regular samurai. And the last and most praiseworthy task they accomplished was to take a prominent part in the movement for aiding the Imperial House which finally led to the Meiji Restoration.

Exclusion Policy

Policy of Toyotomi The Catholic faith spread over Japan very quickly and many churches were built in various places. But the dogmas and institutions of the Church were in many ways unfitting to Japanese ideals and customs. Besides, the friars or missionaries were charged to have behaved without discretion, disregarding the laws of the nation. Hidéyoshi Toyotomi therefore destroyed the Catholic Church in Kyoto in 1585, and issued a Prohibition Law in 1587, forbidding the residence of missionaries at Nagasaki and other places. But he still allowed foreigners who did not mean to spread the religion to come.

A little later, when trade with Luzon was opened, Spanish missionaries came to Japan. These missionaries were antagonistic to the Jesuits and tried to preach another form of doctrine among the Japanese people in the face of the Prohibition Law, and quarrelled with the Portuguese missionaries. Hidéyoshi issued a more drastic prohibition law and severely punished the breakers; but he died without accomplishing his aim, and both Portuguese and Spanish missionaries came in greater numbers and preached the Gospel more earnestly so that the believers in it increased with remarkable rapidity.

Policy of Iyéyasu Iyéyasu followed in Hidéyoshi's steps and encouraged foreign trade. But being anxious lest the people should be misled by the Catholic priests he prohibited their preaching in 1612, expelled them from the country, and strictly ordered the Japanese believers to turn from their faith, and those who did not obey his order were condemned to death. They called this turning from or casting away the Christian faith "Korobi" or rolling over.

Going Abroad Prohibited But missionaries came in considerable numbers, and secretly continued to spread Christianity. The Shogunate saw the difficulty of complete prohibition, and began to take stricter steps. Iyémitsu, the third Shogun, prohibited the importation of foreign books in 1630, forbade any one to go out of the country without permission of the Government in 1633, and prohibited the going abroad of any Japanese in 1636. Finally, no Japanese was allowed to return from other countries. And thus the ambition of the Japanese for foreign expansion was quenched.

Seclusion of the Nation The Shogunate kept a strict watch against the coming in of the Catholic faith and tried to exterminate the believers in the country. Its measures were so severe that the Christian believers rose in rebellion at Shimabara in 1637. The uprising was subdued in a short time, but because of it the Shogunate determined to go a step farther in carrying out the law, and prohibited the coming of foreign people entirely in 1639, with the only exception of the Hollanders who helped the Shogun's armies in the fight against the religious mob at Shimabara and cherished no idea of spreading the Catholic faith among the Japanese. Hollanders were allowed to trade at Nagasaki, but only under supervision of the officials.

With this strict seclusion policy the Shogunate was able to root out Catholicism and remove from the minds of the people the influence of foreign thought and belief, and so gain peace in home affairs. But during those years, foreign affairs became known to only a few of the Shogunate upper officials, and this merely through meagre reports presented by the Dutch Consul. The people were kept in entire ignorance. The result of this isolation from the nations of the world was that the country dropped behind in world civilization.

But general movements among the nations of the world did not allow Japan to stay forever in a secluded condition. In the 18th century, foreign ships began to visit Japan, and the Islanders could no longer leave these intruders at their shores unheeded. The end of the Yédo Age was evidently drawing near.

Foreign Studies Renewed Seventy years after the enforcement of seclusion, books on foreign trade and the state of affairs in the Western world were published and the people were much instructed by such literature. The Shogun Yoshimuné took an interest in Western studies and followed a liberal policy for importing Western books in 1720, this brought about a Renaissance which awakened the Japanese from their long sleep.

Seclusion Law Reinforced The Seclusion Law required the provincial lords to drive foreigners away from the shores of the Empire, but its observance grew lax with the lapse of time. At the end of the 18th century the Shogunate made it milder and allowed foreign ships to come, on condition that

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they had no enmity to the nation. Unfortunately, however, the repeated rough conduct of foreign sailors irritated the official mind and caused the reinforcement of the old law, the coastguards being given orders to bombard any foreign boat which came near the shore, to arrest any of the crew who landed, and kill them if necessary. At the same time, strict orders were given to Japanese boats not to have any intercourse with foreign vessels (1825).

National Doors Opened

An American ship, the "Morrison", coming to bring members of a Japanese shipwrecked crew back to their country, met with the bombardment, and went back to China in 1837.

In 1844, William II, King of Holland, sent a confidential letter with a special delegate to Japan, to warn that country to be careful not to follow the miserable example of China. Merchant vessels and warships of England and France many times came to the Loochoo Islands and the French made a forcible landing at Naha, the best port of the Loochoos, put missionaries ashore there and asked for the opening of friendly intercourse in 1844. The Shogunate complied with their request for trade, but drove the missionaries away in 1848.

Treaty of Amity with America In the sixth year of Kaéi, 1853 Commodore Perry came to Uraga with a fleet of four warships. A friendly treaty was finally concluded between Japan and America in 1855.

Treaty with Russia Russia also sent Vice-Admiral Poutiatine to Nagasaki in 1853, and a treaty of commerce with Russia was concluded by which Shimoda, Hakodaté and Nagasaki were opened to her vessels, and agreements were made respecting the boundaries of Russia and Japan in the north.

At that time England and Russia were at war, and in 1854 an English warship came to Nagasaki for a supply of provisions. The Shogunate consented to open Nagasaki and Hakodaté for English vessels, and an agreement was reached between the two nations. Hakodaté and Shimoda were opened to Holland also and a treaty was concluded in 1855.

Conclusion of Commercial Treaties In 1856 the United States sent to Shimoda her Consul-General, Townsend Harris, who finally succeeded in coming up to Yédo and got an interview with the Shogun Iyésada in 1857. He earnestly requested the Government's consent to open trade relations, and asked that an American minister might be stationed in Yédo, assuring his hearers of American sincerity. The foreign trade allowed hitherto by the Shogunate was only through the mediation of the officials, and Harris insisted upon free and direct commerce between the merchants of the nations.

The Shogunate officials themselves, already aware of the inconveniences of the old system, complied with his requests, regularly concluded a friendly commercial treaty with the United States, and agreed to open New Kanagawa (the present Yokohama), Nagasaki, Niigata, and Hyogo (Kobé) in addition to Shimoda and Hakodaté. They allowed Americans to settle in those ports for trade, gave them freedom to come in to Yédo and Osaka, recognized their freedom of religious belief and extraterritorial jurisdiction, and regulated the rate of tariff in 1858. This was the so-called Anséi modus vivendi.

In the same year the treaty was sanctioned by the Shogunate, without the Imperial sanction. The Shogunate concluded similar treaties with Holland, Russia, England, and France in the same year; and with Prussia, Switzerland and Belgium a little later.

Opening of the Country The Government appointed a commissioner to administer foreign affairs in 1858, and the Shogun earnestly requested the Imperial sanction for the provisional treaties, and finally got it in 1865. The carrying into practice of all these treaties was realized with the opening of Hyogo (Kobé) port in 1867, the year of the accession of the Emperor Meiji. In the meantime, several international troubles occurred. Russia tried to invade Tsushima in 1861, Satsuma warriors fought against an English fleet off Kagoshima in 1863, and the Nagato clan had an engagement with the combined fleets of France, England, Holland, and America at Shimonoséki in 1864.

Downfall of the Shogunate

Court and Shogunate The Yédo Government adopted the policy of keeping the Imperial Court at a respectful distance, paying apparent homage to it, but actually presenting it only with 120,000 koku of rice, the pension of a middle-class lord.

Uprising of the Loyalists On the other hand, the smouldering fire of loyalty to the Imperial House was gradually fanned into a blaze by the increasing attention paid to the study of Confucianism and old Japanese literature. Confucian scholars taught that the first duty of the people was to be loyal to the King (Emperor) and not to the Conqueror (Shogun), while the students of old

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Japanese literature explained the irrationality of the Shogunate régime in the country of which the sovereingty belonged solely to the Imperial House. Down to the middle of the Yédo Age, however, these teachings did no harm to the Shogunate for both the ruling class and the people took them as mere matters of academic interest without practical application. Mitsukuni Tokugawa, the lord of Mito was among the foremost in advocating the virtue of loyalty to the Imperial House, himself beginning the work of compiling a Japanese history to make this characteristic Japanese virtue clearly understood, and erecting a monument to the loyalist Masashigé Kusunoki at Minatogawa, Kobé. Such other scholars as Ansai Yamazaki, Kéisai Asami, and Soko Yamaka, mostly praised the virtue of loyalty, though not necessarily to incite any anti-Shogunate sentiment. Their teachings, nevertheless, acted to stimulate Imperial loyalty in the hearts of the samurai and the people till the time came when it should burst into flame.

The first instance of these sentiments being transformed into practical action was the movement of Takénouchi Shikibu who came from Niigata to Kyoto and went about among the Court nobles insisting upon the need of a loyalists' uprising. He was banished by the Shogunate in 1759. Daini Yamagata and Umon Fujii followed him, but both were soon put to death. However, the corruption and weakening of the Shogunate régime quickened the anti-Shogunate feeling in general towards the end of the 18th century. Especially the renaissance of Japanese literature and national character brought about by the teachings of the Japanese scholars, Norinaga Motoori and Atsutané Hirata greatly helped the cause of the loyalist movement. Hikokuro Takayama went around the provinces propagating the principle; Kumpéi Gamo visited the tombs of the deceased Emperors and publicly bewailed their neglected state. Sanyo Rai wrote a Japanese history in which he praised the Imperial House and chastised the Shogunate with a keen and powerful pen.

The knocking at Japan's doors by foreign countries presented ample chances for the loyalists to take advantage of the confusion and misdoings of the Shogunate Government, and public opinion finally endorsed their movement at the beginning of the 19th century.

The Ansei Coup d'État When Koméi, father of Meiji the Great, came to the Throne, he did not hesitate to give Imperial suggestions and command to the Shogunate, and the Imperial power was greatly strengthened. The party which was defeated in its hopes for choosing another man for the 14th Shogun schemed a reformation of the Shogunate from within. They united with other forces and asked for an Imperial edict to accomplished their plans. The Emperor issued an edict and reprimanded the Shogunate for their rudeness in concluding treaties without the Imperial permission. Whereupon the Shogunate sent a delegate to apologize for the steps they had taken, but at the same time the Tairo (premier) Naosuké Ii declared the coup d'État of Anséi, 1858, and punished and put into prison all who worked for the issuance of the Imperial edict. His purpose was to re-establish the governmental authority of the Shogunate. But Ii was assassinated at the Sakurada gate of the Shogun's palace in 1860.

The assassination of the Tairo gave what was to prove a final blow to the Shogunate though the Roju, Nobumasa Ando, schemed a combination or amalgamation of the Imperial Court and the Shogunate to save the latter from ruin. Some of the powerful lords in the west responded to the idea for a time, but public opinion was overwhelmingly against this amalgamation movement on the part of the pro-Shogun party, and the anti-Yédo movement increased still more in power. Most of the loyalists gathered in Kyoto and hotly discussed the matter. The ronin or unemployed samurai flocked to the cause in such great numbers that it was necessary for the armies of the lords of Satsuma, Tosa and Choshu to keep them in bounds in order to preserve the peace of the city.

On the other hand, the Emperor Koméi sent a messenger to Yédo to urge the reformation of the Shogunate Government. The Shogun Iyéshigé tried to make improvements in the system of Sankin-kotai, etc., but it was too late to regain the support of the people. The Namamugi incident, in which three Englishmen were killed or injured by the lord of Shimazu's samurai and England demanding compensation, stirred the extreme anti-foreign party to fury and the Kyoto Court sent this time Sanétomi Sanjo to Yédo and ordered the Shogunate to wage war against all foreigners. In 1863 an Anti-Foreign Edict was issued by the Shogunate, and the armies of the Choshu and Satsuma lords attacked foreign merchant ships and warships. The fanatical Kyoto loyalists demanded that a nation-wide anti-foreign movement should be launch-

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ed, and the Emperor was inclined to take command of the movement himself, but the more sagacious and saner-minded princes and lords advised him to realize the unwisdom of anti-foreign action, and the leaders of the radical element lost influence and fled to the west. For a while the schism among the loyalists persisted, but the object lesson of the bombardment of Shimonoséki by a combined foreign fleet weakened the anti-foreign movement to a great extent. By 1867, when the Emperor Meiji ascended the Throne, the anti-foreign movement had died away and the loyalists were solely concerned with the destruction of the Shogunate régime, recognizing the inability of the Shogunate to sustain the national honour in the crisis.

Prince Sanétomi Sanjo, one of the seven Court nobles who had fled to the west, joined Prince Tomomi Iwakura in leading the anti-Shogunate movement. The hostility between the two greatest of the western lords, Shimazu, lord of Satsuma province and Mori of Choshu or Nagato, was pacified by the arbitration of Prince Sanjo and they became strongly united in the common cause. Prince Iwakura, succeeding in making a definite plan for the destruction of the Shogunate, gathered many young and gifted samurai under these two lords, such as Takamori Saigo, Toshimichi Okubo of Satsuma and Takayoshi Kido of Nagato, and asked the Imperial sanction for the movement.

On October 14, 1867, the Emperor Meiji gave orders to the Satsuma and Choshu lords to open hostilities against the Yédo Government. On the side of the Shogunate, Toyonobu Yamanouchi, former lord of Tosa in Shikoku, was informed of this secret plan of the Imperial army, and being anxious to avert the impending civil war sent Shojiro Goto to present a memorial to the Shogun Yoshinobu (Kéiki) Tokugawa, advising his surrender of the sovereign authority. Whereupon Yoshinobu, who was staying at Kyoto, immediately called an assembly of the representative samurai of the lords then staying in the city to the Nijo Castle on October 13, 1867, and asked their opinion on his determination to surrender. The assembly gladly agreed to his decision on the advice of Shojiro Goto and Tatéaki Komatsu, a subject of the Satsuma lord. On October 14, Yoshinobu presented a written request for the Imperial permission, and on October 24 the resignation of the Shogun was formally tendered to the Throne. Thus the Yédo Shogunate ended with the 15th Shogun, after having continued for 265 years, and after a total period of 675 years the sovereign authority was restored to the Throne.

THE NEW JAPAN

Meiji Era
(1868–1912 A.D.)

The Meiji Restoration

In December of the same year, the Emperor Meiji issued an important order abolishing the old officialdom and forming a new Dajokan which should consist of the president, councillors and vice-councillors, and proclaiming the direct rule of the Throne in every line of national government. The Imperial Prince Arisugawa was appointed President of the Dajokan, and those court nobles and feudal lords who had faithfully worked for the restoration were given the position of councillors, while some other men of ability from among the nobles and common samurai were made vice-councillors. The people were allowed to live in complete equality, discarding the old castes of nobles and common people. This change was called "Ishin" or the renovation of all things. In the following year, 1868, or the first year of Meiji, the Emperor by the advice of Takayoshi (Koin) Kido, a vice-councillor, called together the princes and high officials to the Shishinden or central palace and took the famous oath of five articles before the ancestral gods. These five articles of the Imperial oath provided the foundation to the new régime. They were as follows: "(1) We will call councils and rule the nation according to public opinion; (2) Men of upper and lower classes without distinction shall be united in all enterprises; (3) Civil officials and military officers shall be in one accord and all the common people shall be so treated that they can attain their aims and feel no discontent; (4) Old unworthy ways and customs shall be destroyed and the people shall walk along the highway of heaven and earth; and (5) Knowledge shall be sought among the nations of the world and the Empire shall be led up to the zenith of prosperity. To accomplish this unprecedented reformation, We go before the people, and proclaim the fundamental national principles, even in the pres-

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ence of the gods of heaven and earth, to establish the way for the public welfare. Ye, Our subjects, shall be united all together, according to these principles." In August of the same year, the formal celebration of the Emperor's ascension to the Throne was held at the central palace, and in September the year-name Meiji was given.

Removal of the Capital The Emperor Meiji paid his first visit to Tokyo in the first year and made the castle of Yédo his permanent palace in the second year of the new era. The Government was subsequently removed to Tokyo.

The Organization In the first year of Meiji, 1868, a new Central Government was established in accordance with the five principles above mentioned. It was called Dajokan, or Great Government, and there were seven departments in it. The council played the part of the future parliament; the five departments of general political, religious, financial, military and foreign affairs were administrative; and the last, the penal department took charge of justice, and the mutual independence of the legislature, the executive and the judicature was for the first time established. In a few years several adjustments were made, but by the fourth year all the official machinery of the central government was systematically arranged.

Surrender of Fiefs The Imperial Court had confiscated all the territory belonging to the old Shogunate, and set up prefectural offices and appointed governors, but the feudal lords still owned their lands and their feudal subjects. In the first year of Meiji, Takayoshi (Koin) Kido submitted an opinion on the surrender of all feudal possessions to the Emperor to complete the purpose of the Restoration, through Sanétomi Sanjo and Tomomi Iwakura; and at the same time he advised Lord Mori, Daimyo of Nagato, to return his territory to the Court. The latter was quite willing to do so, thereupon Takayoshi Kido worked with Toshimichi Okubo and succeeded in getting the consent of Lord (Daimyo) Shimazu of Satsuma, Lord Nabéshima of Hizen and Lord Yamanouchi of Tosa. These four lords tendered their petition for the territorial surrender in joint signature. Other lords followed them, and their petition was accepted in the second year. The lords gave up all their land and people, asking for nothing in return in a most admirable spirit of patriotism and loyalty. For the time being they were requested to continue as governors of their districts, and the feudal system was completely destroyed.

The country was divided into 8 urban prefectures, 26 prefectures and 262 clan districts. But the governors of clan districts, the former feudal lords, governed their people mostly in the old style, preserving the "chief-and-subject" relationship. The orders and ways of administration were greatly distorted and the authority of the Central Government was ineffective. Fortunately, however, Yoshii of Gumma and Sayama of Osaka soon resigned their governorships, realizing the defects of the system, and many others followed their lead. Kido again was quick enough to grasp the situation, and taking advantage of the general trend he endeavoured with his powerful friends Toshimichi Okubo and Takamori Saigo to do away with the clan governors and unify the whole nation under the same form of prefectural government. The Emperor called all the clan district governors to Tokyo in 1871, and kindly explained to them about the abolition of their office. They were given conveniences to live in Tokyo, and were replaced by the prefectural governors. Through many changes, the country was finally divided as at present into one "Do" or district, three urban prefectures and forty-three prefectures in 1889. (Foreign relations are dealt with in Chapter VI.)

Social Reforms

After the cessation of samurai government the social system could not remain unaltered. In 1869, when the resignation of the lords was accepted, the names "Kugé" (court noble) and "Daimyo" (feudal lord) were abolished and the nobles and lords were all made "Kazoku" (flowers of the nation) or peers. Clan samurai were given the class-name of Shizoku, and in the following year the common people were allowed to take their own family names, which they had not previously borne. In 1871, intermarriage was permitted between the peers and Héimin or common people, while the peers and Shizoku were allowed to engage in the ordinary business of agriculture, industry and commerce. Thus the social castes of the feudal age were entirely broken to pieces. Social institutions and customs changed also. With the official recognition of friendly intercourse with foreign people, international traffic and relations became busier and more intimate. Many a Japanese who went abroad brought back Western customs and introduced new institutions, and the people were quick to adopt them in their daily social

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life. In the second year of Meiji telegraphic communication was opened between Tokyo and Yokohama; in the fourth year, the regular mail service between Tokyo, Kyoto and Osaka was begun; and in the fifth year, the first train ran between Tokyo and Yokohama. In the fourth year, men were ordered to cut off their topknots and walk on the streets without wearing swords. In the same year, laws regarding European costumes and uniforms of officials were issued, the old lunar calendar was discarded and the solar calendar was adopted in its place, and national holidays were newly appointed. In 1871, the Department of Education was added to the Government and, in 1872, the national educational system was established and it became compulsory for all children to be sent to public elementary schools. Buildings in European styles began to appear in the cities and people gradually acquired a taste for foreign food.

New Military System

After the appearance of the Samurai class in the middle age they held all the military power in their hands, and the people at large had nothing to do with it. But with the reforms following the Restoration, the military system was also revised and in the fifth year of Meiji the provisional Department of Military Affairs was changed into the two departments of Army and Marine, and in the following year the law of conscription was issued and, in accordance with the old-time ideas of the Japanese and on the pattern of most of the European powers the people were all ordered to share in universal military service for the protection of the country. The military system made singular progress through the many national crises of the Meiji Era.

Cultivation of Hokkaido

At the beginning of the Meiji Era the cultivation of the waste land of the north was proposed, and in the second year the Colonization Bureau was opened. The name Hokkaido, or north-sea-district, was given to the land, formerly known as Ézo. In the third year, Kiyotaka Kuroda was appointed vice-president of the Bureau and he made untiring efforts to civilize the natives, to construct roads, to promote industry and to encourage immigrants from the other islands. In 1875, he invited the Samurai class of the three northeastern prefectures of the Main Island to form a colonial militia to guard and cultivate the land at the same time. The farming and other population of Hokkaido has rapidly increased since. A troublesome question in the north was the boundary between Japan and Russia. The Shogunate had several diplomatic negotiations with the Russian admirals, and at the beginning of the Meiji Era this question again arose with the opening of the Colonization Bureau. Japan's wish was to divide the Island of Saghalien into two with the border line at 50° north latitude. Kuroda wished to abandon Saghalien and concentrate all efforts on the colonization of Hokkaido, and the Government sent Vice-Admiral Takéaki (Buyo) Énomoto to Russia and tried to settle the question. In 1875 a compromise was reached and the whole of Saghalien was adjudged to belong to Russia and all the Kurile Islands were given to Japan. This so-called exchange of Saghalien and the Kuriles finally settled the long dispute over Japan's northern boundaries.

Civil Wars

The Cause The political and social reforms of the Meiji Restoration were so vast in scale and so rapid in progress that the mass of the people could hardly understand their need and meaning, being still prone to the old ways and systems. There were some who were offended by various policies of the Government. These people became a constant cause of political and social unrest, there were repeatedly assassinations of high officials; while in the country districts disturbances broke out one after another. Shimpéi Éto, caused some trouble in Saga prefecture; but he was soon subdued by the Imperial army. In Kumamoto, an adjacent prefecture to Saga, Otaguro and others formed a party called the Jimpuren or Divine-wind-party, and made an attack on the Kumamoto garrison in 1876, only to be defeated by the soldiers of the garrison. At Hagi, the north-western end of the Main Island, Maéhara rose in accord with the Jimpuren party, but he was killed and his men dispersed.

The Saigo Rebellion Takamori Saigo could not realize his ideas about the Korean problem, and was deeply grieved at the failure. After his resignation he went back to his native place, Kagoshima, at the southern end of Kyushu Island. Over a hundred officers and soldiers who had been under him in the Tokyo Imperial Guard followed him to the city thus causing a great commotion in the country. His followers, such as ex-major-generals Kirino and Shinowara, elected Saigo to the leadership of their party and the head of their

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private school. In 1877 Saigo, Kirino and Shinowara gathered an army of over 15,000 soldiers, proclaiming their intention of impeaching the Government for its social and political failures, and came up to Kumamoto and besieged the Kumamoto castle of the Imperial garrison. But the commander of the garrison, Major-General Tatéki Tani, bravely fought against Saigo's army and did not surrender. The Emperor Meiji was then travelling in the districts near Kyoto and Osaka, and stopped in Kyoto to take command of the Imperial army. He appointed the Imperial Prince Arisugawa to be Commander-in-Chief, and Lieutenant-General Aritomo Yamagata and Vice-Admiral Sumiyoshi Kawamura to be the heads of the army and navy respectively. Saigo's troops were compelled to raise the siege under the pressure of the big Imperial armies, and they retreated in disorder back to Kagoshima, and made Shiroyama their final stronghold. Shiroyama was a promontory in the outskirts of the town and there the great Saigo killed himself with his colleagues in the face of the assailing Imperial soldiers. This rebellion was really the last of the civil wars accompanying the Restoration. After this South-Western Civil War, the wounded soldiers, loyalist and rebel alike, were cared for impartially at the Imperial army hospitals, and the Emperor Meiji, the Empress and the Empress-Dowager showed them special kindness. It may be mentioned that the Japan Red Cross Society was founded on this occasion.

Dawn of Constitutional Government

The Genro-in In the first year of Meiji, government institutions were reformed in many ways, and representatives of prefectures were made members of the lower council. In the following year the public assembly was opened, and the prefectural representatives became its members. But this assembly consisted of members who were all chosen by the Government, and it gave rise to a demand for the establishment of an assembly of representatives really elected by the people. In 1873 Kido, who had come back from his European tour of investigation, proposed the establishment of the national constitution; while in 1874, Soéjima, Goto, Itagaki and Éto presented a petition for the establishment of parliament by popular election. The Government did not adopt either proposal as the time was not yet ripe, but in 1875 they established the Genro-in, a kind of Senate, as the chief seat of legislation, and the Supreme Court of Judicature for the administration of justice, and summoned district governors to Tokyo to learn of the requirements of the people. In 1876, the Emperor ordered the Genro-in to make plans for the formation of the Imperial Constitution and in 1879 prefectural assemblies were opened for deciding on district finances and representative government was first tried in the local districts.

Prefectural Elections The South-Western Civil War was ended and the foundation of the Central Government became unshakable. But in a few years Japan lost most of her able statesmen one after another. Saigo died in the battle just mentioned, Kido passed away from illness, and Okubo was assassinated in 1878. These were the three pillars of the Reformation, and Shigénobu Okuma, Hirobumi Ito and the like had to carry on their strenuous task. Public faith in these new statesmen was not yet assured, but they were young and progressive and endeavoured to absorb Western ways and civilization for the benefit of the rising generation. In April, 1878, the second local governors' conference was held and Ito was its chairman. The items for discussion were rules on prefectural assemblies, local taxes, and the organization of towns and villages. In July of the same year the rules on prefectural assemblies were issued, and according to the articles public election of representatives and local self-government were for the first time to be put into practice in the following year. This was a further step toward constitutional government. As a matter of fact, it might be considered a rehearsal of the formation of a national diet. The election was most sincerely carried out, because the people honoured the candidates as those who must in truth represent them not only in wisdom and political ideas but also in personality and social standing. The result was that the prefectural assemblies were composed of the best class of men in the districts. For instance, the chairman of the Tokyo prefectural assembly was Genichiro Fukuchi and the vice-president was Yukichi Fukuzawa, founder of Kéio-Gijuku University, while the members were all men of honour. The famous members of the Imperial Diet and great statesmen of later days mostly came out of these primitive local assemblies.

Political Dissensions Political dissensions, which had appeared even under the turmoil of military struggles, came

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to the fore, and hot discussions on both sides were carried on both in debates and through printed pamphlets. The one who attracted most public attention with his progressive opinions was Taisuké Itagaki of Tosa. In September, 1878, a meeting was held at Osaka under the leadership of Itagaki's society to pass a resolution calling for the realization of the national assembly. It was a meeting of Samurai-class people as yet. But their second meeting, in March, 1879, gathered together 80 members who represented 21 societies in 19 prefectures, and the third meeting in November made resolutions to send a petition to the Emperor, and drafted a letter with a long heading, "Letter of Appeal to the Public for demanding the establishment of the National Assembly," which was printed and distributed among the people.

Petition for Opening Diet In the city of Okayama, a little west of Kobé, hot-blooded young politicians composed a manifesto and distributed it, this moved their youthful contemporaries more strongly than the first had done. When the fourth meeting of the Patriots' Society was held at Osaka in April, 1880, 114 delegates from the 87,000 members of different societies met together, formed the "Volunteers' Association for Demanding the Opening of the National Assembly," and drafted a petition. It is said that over 50 such petitions were presented to the Government during the one year of 1880. In the midst of such movements a new scholar of French politics, Kimmochi Saionji, the last Genro or Elder Statesman came back from Paris and published the "Toyo Jiyu Shimbun" (Eastern Liberal News), and to the great surprise of the authorities, instructed the people in the principles of liberal politics. The acute state of affairs seemed to presage the early appearance of an Imperial Diet when the political events of 1881 occurred.

Imperial Edict Issued In that year the Government was going to sell to the Kansai Trade Society the land, buildings, ships, dock and hunting fields which belonged to the Colonization Bureau. The actual price was estimated at a little over ¥360,000, while the Government had invested and spent as much as ¥14,096-809 on them. There was a strong suspicion of favouritism for the Kagoshima merchants of the said Society, for many of the high officials came from that district, and criticisms arose against the abuse. This public criticism caught up by those who demanded liberty and they bitterly censured the official autocracy. The very evening of his return from a tour of the north-eastern districts on the 11th of October, the Emperor Meiji gathered together the members of the Cabinet and the councillors and a meeting was held in his presence at which it was resolved that the government sale should be stopped at once and that the Imperial Diet should be summoned in the twenty-third year of Meiji, (1890). These resolutions were published in the Imperial edict issued on the following day, October 12th, 1881. With the issuing of this edict the boisterous outbursts of discussion and debate among the people gradually died down and political parties began to be organized for carrying out their political principles in readiness for the opening of parliament ten years later. The principal ones were the Jiyu-to, Liberal Party of Taisuké Itagaki and the Kaishin-to, or Progressive Party of Shigénobu Okuma.

Preparation of Constitution In 1882 the Government sent Hirobumi Ito to make thorough investigations regarding Western institutions, to find good models and suggestions for the Japanese parliament. Ito and his attendants mostly stayed in Germany and there studied Western politics and constitutions, and came back in the following year. In 1884 the Government established an Investigation Bureau in a part of the Imperial Palace and appointing Ito the president of the Bureau, ordered him to make a draft of the Constitution and plans for the new institutions. It was in this year that a law for the peers was enacted and the five ranks of nobility—prince, marquis, count, viscount and baron—were first defined. In 1885, at the instance of Prince Sanjo and to lay the foundation for true constitutional government, the officialism of the Central Government was reformed and a real cabinet of a modern nature was formed for the first time, the old positions of councillor and minister being abolished. It consisted of the Premier and Ministers for Home Affairs, Foreign Affairs, Finance, Army, Marine, Justice, Education, Agriculture and Commerce, and Communications. The function of these ministers was to take joint responsibility on national politics in place of the Emperor and help him in good government over his faithful subjects. In the Court there were the Naidaijin or Grand Keeper of the Imperial Seals and the Minister of the Imperial Household. The first Premier was Ito himself, who held the additional post of the Ministership of the Imperial Household. In 1888 the Privy Council was established,

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the most excellent and patriotic statesmen were appointed to its membership, and it was made the highest body for Imperial consultation on important political affairs. Ito also was the first President of the Privy Council. The draft of the Constitution was completed by this year and the Emperor put it before the Privy Council as the first item of discussion. The Emperor Meiji was present at all sessions on the Constitution, earnestly listening to the opinions of the different members, and playing a great part in framing and discussing the resolutions.

Promulgation of the Constitution On the 11th February, the 2,549th anniversary of the accession of Jimmu Tenno, 1889 in Western reckoning, the Emperor Meiji reverently reported the promulgation of the Constitution to the ancestral gods and appeared in person with the Empress before the Imperial Princes, Cabinet ministers, high officials, representative people, and foreign ministers, and solemnly issued the Imperial Constitution (See Appendix). He is sued an accompanying law relating to the Imperial family which regulated future accessions, and relative positions of the Imperial Princes, that no trouble might ensue on the question of the successor to the Throne. Other laws which were to accompany the Constitution were on the election of the members of the lower house of parliament and the institution of it. They were issued in the same year, and in November, 1890, the first Imperial Diet was convened in Tokyo and the opening ceremony was held in the presence of the Emperor. Local self-government had been established and improvements made in the institutions of cities and towns for the past two years, and in this year another improvement in the prefectural and county institutions was made, confirming their self-government, although county government was abolished later.

Laws Since the downfall of feudalism and return of fiefs to the Emperor, enacted uniform laws for the proper control of the people became an acute necessity and the Government first took in hand the criminal laws and issued revised ones in the sixth year of Meiji. Other laws were revised or newly compiled according to the need of progressive society and with due regard to foreign relations. The code of civil procedure, the commercial law and the civil law were enforced by 1899. The criminal law was revised in 1908 and the code of civil procedure in 1924 according to the advanced ideals and needs of the times.

Revision of Treaties
(See Chapter VI)

Sino-Japanese War

In August, 1894 Japan declared war against China, the Emperor setting-up his headquarters at Hiroshima. Lieutenant-General Notsu routed the Chinese soldiers and drove them back from the boundaries of Korea in that month, and Vice-Admiral Yukyo Ito, Commander-in-Chief of the combined fleet, defeated the Chinese North-Sea fleet on the Yellow Sea. In October, Commander Aritomo Yamagata led his First Army through Chosen to Southern Manchuria and advanced victoriously to the west, while Commander Iwao Oyama, head of the Second Army, crossed the Yellow Sea and entered China direct, to act in conjunction with the Imperial fleet on the sea. Port Arthur was captured in November and Weihaiwei in February, 1895, and the Chinese naval power was annihilated. In March, the peninsula of Liaotung was seized by the Japanese armies and Peking was threatened by attack, while Southern China lay at the mercy of the Japanese fleet. The Emperor Meiji appointed Imperial Prince Akihito Arisugawa generalissimo over the whole army and navy to reduce China to submission. China yielded and asked for peace, appointing Li Hung-chang ambassador. Japanese ambassadors Premier Ito and Foreign Minister Mutsu met him at a peace conference at Shimonoséki. According to the peace treaty concluded in April, 1895, China recognized Korean independence, gave Japan the Liaotung Peninsula, Formosa and Boko Islands, paid about ¥300,000,000 to her, and opened four new ports for trade.

Return of Liaotung In alliance with Germany and France, Russia intervened and advised Japan to give back the territory to China, and the Peninsula was returned to China at the end of 1895 for an indemnity of about ¥45,000,000.

The newly acquired territory of Formosa was first governed by Governor-General Kabayama. In 1896, the whole island of Formosa was pacified and the new people began to understand the Japanese rule. In 1898 Gentaro Kodama became the Governor-General and encouraged industry and improved traffic so much that the island was really transformed into a valuable part of the Empire. After the Sino-Japanese War, the Japanese Government and people united their efforts in many enterprises.

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Military preparations were strengthened, schools improved in number and quality, industry and commerce throve, communications were also greatly improved, and the national power remarkably augmented. In 1897 Japan adopted the gold standard, on the foundation of the gold coin received from China as indemnity.

The Boxer Rebellion In the meanwhile, anti-foreign feeling began to spread among the Chinese people, and, in 1899, the so-called "Boxer Rebellion" suddenly broke out in Shantung. The rebels hoisted the banners of "protect China, exterminate foreigners", murdered many Christian missionaries, destroyed churches, and, in the following year, advanced to Tientsin and attacked the residences of Europeans there. Later they united with the Government soldiers controlled by the Empress-Dowager and coming up to Peking attacked the foreign legations, some Japanese and German delegates being killed. Japan headed the combined forces of the Powers which marched on the capital for the relief of the legations. The Chinese yielded, asked for peace, punished the leaders of the anti-foreign movement, and agreed to pay a 450,000,000 tael indemnity, and to send delegates to Japan and Germany to make apology.

Anglo-Japanese Alliance After the experience of the North China incident, England abandoned her historical policy of "splendid isolation" and allied with Japan in 1902 for mutual help in Far Eastern problems. According to the terms of alliance, Japan and England were to be united in maintaining Chinese and Korean territorial integrity and to help each other if any two other nations united to attack either one of the allies in the Far East.

Russo-Japanese War

Russia Reluctant to Go Under pressure of the Anglo-Japanese Alliance and the American Government, Russia promised China to return Manchuria, but was by no means ready to keep her promise and on the contrary, in 1903, she sent larger armies to Manchuria and was busy constructing permanent strongholds at Port Arthur, dispatched warships to the port, appointed Alexeiev, Governor-General with his headquarters at Port Arthur, acted as the sovereign power in diplomatic, civil and military affairs in the Far East, and in August of the same year invaded the northern part of Korea. This unrestrained Russian advance menaced the territorial integrity of Korea, the existence of Japan, and the peace of the Far East, and Japan was compelled to take a firm stand against these designs, proposing a mutual understanding about the limitations of rights of both nations to avoid the impending danger of collision. But during the course of the negotiations, Russia continued to menace Japan, treating her with contempt and preserving her own aggressive attitude. The Japanese final proposal on the problems in Manchuria, of the 12th January, 1904, was left unanswered by Russia for two weeks, and the Imperial declaration of war against Russia was issued on the 10th February, 1904.

War on Sea The combined fleet of Admiral Togo immediately attacked the Russian warships off Port Arthur and Chinnampo and constantly pressed the Russian navy in Port Arthur. The warships in Vladivostok often came out into Japanese waters, harassed the communications of the Japanese army on the continent and hindered the transport of soldiers, but they were also destroyed in August by the second squadron under Rear-Admiral Kamimura.

War on Land On land, General Kuroki headed the First Army and marched into Manchuria through Korea in May; the Second Army, with General Oku in command was landed on the Liaotung peninsula and devising a united stratagem with the Fourth Army, General Notsu, defeated the enemy in every place, and the three armies simultaneously advanced to Liaoyang. In June the Emperor ordered Generalissimo Oyama, Commander-in-Chief of all the armies, and General Kodama, Chief of the General Staff, to go to the front, and they spurred the whole army to victory over the Russian soldiers in the town. In October the Russian reinforced armies came down to retake the town, but the Japanese armies encountered them at Sha-ho and defeated them.

In the meantime the Third Army under General Nogi turned from Liaotung to the attack of Port Arthur. Nogi began the famous but awful siege warfare, and captured the so-called "203-metre hill" in December. In January, 1905, General Stoessel, head of the Russian garrison, surrendered to General Nogi and sued for peace.

After the unsuccessful Battle of Sha-ho the Commander-in-Chief of the Russian army, General Kuropatkin, gathered over 600,000 soldiers at Mukden and awaited his chance. In February, 1905, the Japanese Manchurian armies were reinforced by the Third Army from Port Arthur and General Kawamura's Yalu River army, and rallying 400,000

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soldiers they advanced towards Mukden from three directions. After a fierce battle of 14 days the Japanese armies defeated the immense armies of the enemy, who returned to the north in a complete rout. This momentous event took place on the tenth of March, 1905.

The Baltic Fleet Before the downfall of Port Arthur and the defeat at Mukden, Russia had seen that the weakness of her naval power in Japanese waters delayed any possible victory over Japan. She therefore formed the Second and Third Pacific Squadrons out of her Baltic fleet and sent them to the Pacific under the leadership of Vice-Admiral Rozdhestvensky. The Russian squadron made a long voyage to the Far East and Togo was able to make full plans to meet them in the most convenient place for the Japanese fleet. Had the Russian warships safely entered the port of Vladivostok the defenceless shores of Japan would have been exposed to their bombardment while the Japanese Manchurian armies might have been starved to death, unable to get supplies from the home islands. Togo was right when he hoisted high on the main-mast of his flagship the signal, "The fate of Japan will be decided with this battle; every sailor is requested to exert his best for the country," at the moment the outlines of the Russian fleet came into sight. The 38 boats of the two Russian squadrons sailed straight in majestic lines for their destination across the East China Sea. Togo kept the utmost secrecy as to his hiding place and chose the narrow Tsushima Straits to encounter the Russian fleet. It took only a few hours from the evening of the 27th May to the following morning to sink most of the Russian warships or blow them to pieces, and Rozdhestvensky and his staff were taken captive. In July of the same year a part of the Japanese army was landed in Saghalien and subduing the Russian resistance quickly captured the whole island.

The Peace Mr. Roosevelt, President of the United States seeing the disastrous conditions, financial and otherwise, which threatened both countries after the battles at Mukden and the Japan Sea initiated peace-proposals between Japan and Russia, and was successful in pursuading the rival parties to open a peace conference in America. Japan sent Jutaro Komura and Kogoro Takahira as her ambassadors extraordinary and plenipotentiary to Portsmouth to meet with the Russian ambassadors Witte and Rosen. The peace treaty was concluded in September, 1905. Russia recognized the supreme rights of Japan over Korea, surrendered the southern half of Saghalien to Japan, and handed over the special rights of lease which she possessed in Kwantung, the railroad south of Changchun and the mining of coal along it.

After the Russo-Japanese War

Post-war Readjustment The Russo-Japanese war raised Japan's position in world politics, putting her almost on the same level as the European Powers, especially in regard to Oriental affairs. The international relations of Japan with the Western Powers became so intimate and important that all of them exchanged ambassadors with Japan in place of the former ministers. In home affairs Japan made special efforts in the education of the people to keep abreast with the times. Industry in all lines leaped forward under the leadership of able business men. The state-ownership of railroads was realized to improve the traffic of the islands. The patriotic contributions of the business men and merchants after the war must not be overlooked. In 1906 Port Arthur was made a naval station for the defence of the Kwantung littoral, and the South Manchuria Railway Company was established to manage the railroad and mining business which had been handed over by Russia. Dairen and a part of Port Arthur were opened for international trade. In 1907 the Saghalien national boundary was fixed at 50° north latitude, and the Government opened an office there and encouraged the emigration of Japanese to the island.

Relation with Korea
(See Chapter VI.)

Treaties with Powers
(See Chapter VI.)

Blending of East and West Immediately after the Restoration the Government had been eager to invite and introduce all things Western, and the people had responded to the policy with alacrity. There followed, as a matter of fact, an age of Europeanization. It was during those days that so many Japanese treasures of Buddhism and fine arts went out of the country for very meagre amounts of money, and many beautiful old customs and precedents were carelessly dropped. But then came the victories over China and Russia to give confidence and conviction to the Japanese and turn them from a mere imitation of the West to the recognition of their own special abilities and valuable inheritances. Cries for the preservation of national characteristics were raised and the blending of

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the Occidental and Oriental civilizations, the creation of a new Meiji civilization, was started and the nation began to make a steady and healthy advance in all phases of national life.

Demise of the Emperor Meiji In July, 1912, the Emperor Meiji passed away after only a few weeks of illness in his Tokyo Palace. His demise caused such profound grief among the people that an English correspondent was said to have telegraphed home "Japan is going into a decline!" with the death of the great Emperor. He died beloved of all, a love which was attested by the splendid Meiji Shrine which was built in his honour, and which draws more worshippers than any other shrine. The Emperor Yoshihito (the late Emperor Taisho) came to the Throne immediately after his father's death, according to the provisions in the Imperial code on the succession.

Taisho Era
(1912-1926)

The World War

Japan's Contribution In August, 1914, the World War broke out and Japan was compelled according to the terms of the Anglo-Japanese Alliance to take necessary steps to combat German activities in the Orient. She requested Germany to withdraw her war vessels from Japanese and Chinese waters, and to return Shantung by a fixed date to China. Needless to say, Germany did not comply, and Japan declared war in the same month.

Tsingtao Falls Japan lost no time in dispatching her army and navy to Tsingtao. The Second Squadron commanded by Vice-Admiral Sadakichi Kato blockaded the gulf while the First Squadron of Vice-Admiral Tomosaburo Kato kept watch over the Yellow Sea and other China north-eastern seas. The 18th Divisional Commander Kanwo attacked the fortress from behind, in conjunction with the navy. Some British troops also took part and they all besieged the fortress in October, 1914. The attack was so aggressive that in but ten days all the batteries were captured and in November the German Governor Waldeck and his staff surrendered the port and fortress. In deeper waters, the Japanese Third Squadron commanded by Rear-Admiral Tsuchiya kept watch over not only the China seas but also went as far as Philippine waters. A detachment of the First Squadron was sent to the South Seas and acting in concert with the British navy tried to destroy the German Asiatic fleet. The Marshall Islands were occupied in September, and the Mariana and Caroline Islands in October, and possession was taken of all German naval stations in the South Seas. British vessels met the German fleet in the Indian Ocean, and off the coast of South Africa, and destroyed it in December, 1914. Germany's strength in the Orient was thus completely wiped out.

Japan helped Russia also, chiefly by enabling her to attend to the War without any anxiety about Eastern affairs, and by supplying her with as much ammunition as she could. Russia was grateful for this friendly attitude of Japan and the relations between the two nations becoming more intimate a new treaty was concluded in 1916 to cooperate for the maintenace of perpetual peace in the Far East, and to negotiate freely with each other for the protection and defence of the special rights and territorial domination already recognized, instead of competing. With the progress of the World War, Japan dispatched a special-service fleet as far as the Mediterranean. The special-service fleet tried its best to protect trade and communications in that part by bravely and effectively attacking German submarines in co-operation with the Allied fleets and in harmony with the orders of the British Mediterranean Fleet Commander. In 1917 the Russian Revolution broke out in the midst of the War. The Romanoff dynasty was overthrown and the radical revolutionaries came into power and concluded a separate peace with Germany. This resulted in the permeation of the military influence of Germany and Austria into Russia and even to the Far East. A large body of Czechoslovak troops who had escaped into Russia, and were trying to make their way home to Europe by way of Siberia, suffered greatly in consequence. Japan kept a keen watch on these Russian disorders. In 1918 she sent ships to Vladivostok for the protection of the Japanese residents and to maintain order in that district for international benefit, in co-operation with the warships of other nations. And later, in agreement with America, Japan dispatched an army under General Otani to Vladivostok and helped the Czechoslovak army, in conjunction with the soldiers of other nations.

Japanese Massacred In March 1920 the Japanese garrison and citizens, about 700 in all, were massacred by Russian communists at Nikolaievsk. This caused intense indignation in Japan. She sent armies to Siberia immediately and occupied a part of the coast district

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and the remainder of Saghalien. Negotiations were opened again between the two nations and in 1925 a new Russo-Japanese treaty was concluded. According to its terms Japan withdrew her soldiers from North Saghalien while Russia gave Japan the mining rights and freedom of cultivating under licence the oil-fields in that district (See Chapter VI on Foreign Relations.)

The Kanto Earthquake On Sept. 1st, 1923, Japan underwent the sad experience of the Kanto earthquake, in which tens of thousands of houses were destroyed or damaged in Tokyo, Kanagawa, Shizuoka, Saitama and Chiba prefectures, and a hundred thousand people were killed or injured, with an estimated loss of several thousand million yen. (See Chapter I.) The great fires caused by the earthquake in Tokyo and Yokohama caused far more deaths than those which were directly attributable to the shocks. But, undaunted by the terrible disaster, the people not only of the metropolis but of all Japan stood up in a splendid spirit of determination to reconstruct all her damaged cities and towns by the help of the sympathetic nations of America and Europe. The wonderful improvement in the streets and buildings of the new cities materially exhibited the strength of Japan's national power, so that the great earthquake rather quickened than retarded the splendid advance of Japan as a whole.

Demise of the Emperor Taisho In December, 1926, the Emperor Taisho passed away at the Hayama Winter Palace and the Regent, Crown Prince Hirohito, succeeded him as Ruler, the year-name of Showa, or Enlightened Peace, being given to his era. Under his rule Japan is continuing her painstaking efforts to keep pace with world progress and cope with complicated international relations.

The birth of Manchoukuo in 1932 and the trade and industrial expansion in recent years have greatly strengthened Japan's position in the Orient.

Chronicle of Important Events

Age of Traditions
(660 B.C.–531 A.D.)

1. Beginning of the Empire
   - 660 B.C.—The Emperor Jimmu ascended the Throne at the Kashiwara Palace, Unébiyama, Yamato province, near the present Nara.
2. Subjugation of Clans and Tribes.
   - 88 B.C. Neighbouring clans subdued by the armies of the Imperial Princes.
   - 11 A.D. The Great Shrine of Isé built by the Emperor Suinin in honour of Amatérasu-Omikami.
   - 97–110 Clans and tribes in Kyushu and the eastern half of the Main Island subdued by the armies of the Emperor Kéiko and Prince Yamatotakéru his son.
   - 135 The Emperor Séimu divided his dominion into administrative districts.
3. Intercourse with Korea
   - 200 The Empress Jingo conquered Silla.
   - 285 Confucianism introduced.
   - 313 The Emperor Nintoku established the capital at Naniwa (Osaka) for the convenience of intercourse with Korea.
   - 463–512 Troubles with Korea.

Age of Foundation
(532–709)

4. Introduction of Continental civilization.
   - 552 Buddhism introduced.
   - 562 Japanese Office in Mimana is destroyed by Silla.
   - 593 Imperial Prince Shotoku became Regent, and propagated Buddhism, building Horyuji and other temples.
   - 604 The Regent Shotoku proclaimed the Constitution.
   - 607 An Embassy sent to Sui.
   - 630 An Embassy sent to Tang.
   - 645 The Sogas punished and extirpated.
   - 592–645 The Asuka or Empress Suiko's Period of Art history.
5. The Taika (Taikwa) Reformation and After.
   - 645 The custom of 'year-names' introduced, the first one being called Taika (great reformation).
   - 646 The Taika Reformation.
   - 660 Ézo (Hokkaido) subjugated by the army of Hirafu Abé.
   - 663 Control over the Korean Peninsula abandoned.
   - 701 The Taiho Law promulgated and the organization of the Imperial Government is fixed.

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646–707 The Hakuho Period of Art history.

Nara Age
(710–793)

6. Establishment of the Capital at Nara and Compilation of a History of Japan.
   - 710 The Empress Gemmyo founded Nara as her capital.
   - 620–720 The first books of Japanese history, Nihon Shoki (Japanese Annals) and Kojiki (Antiquities) compiled.
7. Spread of Buddhism and Progress of Religious Fine Art.
   - 747 Building of Todaiji temple and other provincial temples.
   - 756 The Empress Kōmyo donated the treasures of the late Emperor Shomu to Todaiji temple. They are kept in the Shosoin Museum, built a little later.
   - 769 Dictatorship of Dōkyo, Buddhist pope, opposed by the great loyalist Kiyomaro Waké.
   - 710–781 The Tempyo Period of Art history.

Héian Age
(794–1191)

8. Founding of Héian (Kyoto) the Capital, and troubles in the north.
   - 794 The Emperor Kammu founded the new capital Héian and the Government removed there from Nara.
   - 801 Revolts broke out in Ézo, finally subdued by the expedition of Tamuramaro Sakanoué.
   - 794–800 Establishment of governmental and private schools.
   - 794–887 The Konin period of Art history.
9. Rising of the Fujiwaras.
   - 858 Yoshifusa Fujiwara assumed the Regency.
   - 887 Mototsuné Fujiwara the Daijo Daijin and Regent became Kampaku (Chief Councillor) at the same time.
   - 901 Michizané Sugawara, candidate for Kampaku reduced to the position of governor of Kyushu by the Fujiwara scandal.
10. Foreign Relations.
    - 894 Official intercourse with Tang broken off by the advice of Michizané Sugawara.
    - 727–900 Bokkai, a maritime monarchy in Manchuria, traded with Japan.
11. Disorder in Rural Districts and Rise of the Samurai.
    - 939 Masakado Taira rebelled and proclaimed himself Emperor.
    - 941 Sumitomo Fujiwara disturbed the coasts of the Inland Sea but is suppressed.
    - 950 The Samurai families of Minamoto (Genji) and Taira (Héishi or Héiké) gradually rose to power.
12. Fujiwara Despotism.
    - 1016 Michinaga Fujiwara assumed the Regency for the next 20 years and his son Yorimichi for 50 years. Climax of the Fujiwara despotism and prosperity.
13. Incessant Wars.
    - 1019 Toi tribe in the north-eastern part of Korea invaded the islands of Iki and Tsushima.
    - 1028 Tadatsuné Taira's treason in Shimoosa province.
    - 1039 Armies of Buddhist monks rose in revolt.
    - 1054–1062 The Abés in the Ohu district declared independence.
    - 1086 The ex-Emperor Shirakawa took part in politics for nearly 40 years and set a precedent for government by ex-Emperors.
    - 1085–1087 The Ohu district again disturbed by the Kiyowaras.
    - 1087 For about a century the family of Kiyohira Fujiwara who subdued the Kiyowaras ruled over the Ohu district.
    - 1156 Strife between the armies of the Emperor and the ex-Emperor (Hogen war).
    - 1159 The Fujiwaras and Minamotos waged war against another branch of the Fujiwaras and the Tairas (Héiji war).
14. The Gen-péi (Minamoto and Taira) Period.
    - 1167 Kiyomori Taira promoted to Daijo Daijin.
    - 1167–1180 Autocracy of Kiyomori and his family.
    - 1180 Rise of the Minamotos in rivalry to the Tairas. Yoritomo Minamoto established headquarters at Kamakura.
    - 1185 The Tairas destroyed by the armies of Yoshitsuné, brother of Yoritomo.
    - 1185 Yoritomo appointed local military police and tax-gatherers for rural districts.

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889-1185 The Fujiwara Period of Art history.

Kamakura Age
(1192-1337)

15. Beginning of the Kamakura Shogunate Régime.
    1192 Yoritomo Minamoto promoted to Séii-Taishogun (Generalissimo) and the Shogun Government formally sanctioned. For the next 675 years Japan ruled by the samurai statesmen.
    1204 Tokimasa Hojo became chief executive of the Shogunate régime.
    1219 Minamoto Shogunate ended with the third Shogun, Sanétomo. But Masako, widow of Yoritomo, (called the 'Ama' or Nun Shogun) officiated as Shogun for several years.
    1221 Trouble between the Kyoto Court and the Hojos (Shōkyu affair).
16. Hojo Rule.
    1224 Yasutoki Hojo became chief executive of the Kamakura Shogunate.
    The Hojos continued to exercise the Shogun's duties for over a century.
    1232 The Joéi Code promulgated for the discipline of the samurai.
    1274 Yuan invasion.
    1281 Second Yuan invasion and defeat by the armies of Tokimuné Hojo, the chief executive.
    1324 An attempt for the restoration of the Imperial Rule.
    1331 War between the Imperial and the Hojo armies.
    1333 The Hojos destroyed.
17. The Emperor Godaigo and Takauji Ashikaga.
    1333 Temporary restoration of the Imperial direct rule by the Emperor Godaigo.
    1335 Takauji Ashikaga rebelled against the Emperor.
    1336 Masashigé Kusunoki, famous loyalist, died in the battle of Minatogawa (Kobé).
    1336 The Emperor Godaigo moved to Yoshino mountain.
    1336 The Imperial House divided into two, the South and the North (Yoshino and Kyoto) for 57 years.
    1192-1337 The Kamakura period of Art history.

Muromachi Age
(1338-1602)

18. Beginning of the Muromachi Shogunate and the luxurious age of Yoshimitsu.
    1338 Takauji Ashikaga proclaimed himself Shogun and established the Muromachi Shogunate in Kyoto.
    1342 Takauji sent the Tenryuji-buné (trade boats) to China.
    1368 Yoshimitsu Ashikaga publicly appointed Shogun and the Muromachi Shogunate officially sanctioned.
    1399 The Ōéi Rebellion.
    1401 Yoshimitsu traded with Ming: indulged in luxurious living.
19. Corruption of the Muromachi Shogunate and Political Commotion.
    1438 The Éikyo Rebellion. Rising of military lords in Kanto district.
    1441 The Kaki Rebellion.
    1467-1475 The Ohnin war: Kyoto reduced to ashes in the street fighting. The Court and the Shogunate both lost power and the whole country became a scene of warfare among the military lords.
20. A Century of Civil Wars Among the Feudal Lords.
    1491 Soun Hojo captured Odawara Castle and ruled over the Kanto district.
    1476-1573 Feudal lords struggled for supremacy, the greater lords being as follows: Kanto district; Hojo, Uésugi. Ohu district; Daté, Ashina, Mogami, Tamba, Akita. Central district; Uésugi, Takéda, Imagawa. Kinki (Kyoto-Osaka) district; Saito, Asai, Asakura, Oda, Matsudaira. Chugoku (Western Main Island) district; Ukida, Amako, Ohuchi, Mori. Shikoku Island; Miyoshi, Kono, Chosokabé. Kyushu Island; Otomo, Ryuzoji, Shimazu.
    1543 Coming of the Portuguese.
    1543 Introduction of fire-arms.
    1549 Christianity introduced.
    1337-1573 The Muromachi Period of Art history.
21. The Oda and Toyotomi Period.
    1568 Nobunaga Oda came up to Kyoto by Imperial order and repaired the Palace.
    1571 Nobunaga destroyed Énryakuji

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temple to suppress the power of the monks.
1573 Downfall of the Muromachi Shogunate.
1576 Building of the Azuchi castle.
1582 Nobunaga assassinated.
1582 Hidéyoshi Toyotomi's supremacy.
1588 Hidéyoshi promoted to be Kampaku and Daijo Daijin.
1590 Unity of the Empire realized by Hidéyoshi, all the lords completely subdued.
1592 Invasion of Korea by armies of Toyotomi.
1597 Second invasion of Korea.
1598 Hidéyoshi Toyotomi died at Fushimi castle (Momoyama Palace).
1574-1598 The Momoyama period of Art history.

Yédo Age
(1602-1867)

22. Beginning of the Tokugawa Shogunate.
1600 Battle of Sékigahara assured the supremacy of Iyéyasu Tokugawa (1542-1616).
1603 Iyéyasu appointed Shogun and founded the Yédo Shogunate.
1609 Began trade with Hollanders.
1609 The Loochoo Islands subjugated by Lord Shimazu.
1610 Sending of official letters to Nova-Hispania and Spain.
1612 Iyéyasu prohibited the preaching of the Catholic Faith.
1613 The lord Masamuné Daté sent Hasékura to Rome.
1613 Opened trade with the English.
1615 The Toyotomis destroyed at the Battle of Osaka.
23. Stabilization of the Yédo Shogunate.
1615 Proclamation of the Kugé Hatto (Court Nobles Law) and the Buké Hatto (Samurai Law).
1616 Death of Iyéyasu.
1623 Iyémitsu (1604-1651) became the third Tokugawa Shogun. Under his enlightened rule the position of the Yédo Shogunate became unshakable.
1630 Introduction of Western literature prohibited.
1636 Japanese forbidden to go abroad.
1637-1638 The Shimabara Rebellion.
1651 Death of Iyémitsu and attempted rebellion by Yuino Shosétsu and his colleagues.
24. The Golden Age of the Yédo Shogunate.
1657 Mitsukuni Tokugawa, lord of Mito began the compilation of the Dai Nippon Shi (Great Nippon History).
1687 The Shogun Tsunayoshi's Edicts for the protection of animals caused much loss of human life.
1688-1708 The Genroku Era of luxurious living.
1702 Revenge of the '47 Akao Ronin.'
1709 Hakuséki (Kunmi) Arai's Reformation.
1716 The 8th Shogun Yoshimuné regulated officialdom and improved the administration, reigned for 30 years.
1720 Yoshimuné loosened the Prohibition Law against Western books.
1759 Punishment of Takénouchi Shikibu, a loyalist.
1764 Norinaga Motoori commenced his commentary on the Kojiki (Antiquities).
1772-1784 Misrule of the Roju Okitsugu Tanuma.
Succession of natural calamities.
1787 Adjustment of the administration by the Roju Sadanobu Matsudaira (Rakuo).
25. Waning of the Shogun Régime.
1792 Punishment of Shihéi Rin (Hayashi) who warned the Government of possible invasion by foreign Powers.
1792 Coming of Laxsman to Hokkaido.
1804 Coming of Lesanov to Nagasaki.
1808 Coming of an English boat to Nagasaki.
1825 Shogunate order to shut out all foreign ships by force.
1830 Great famine of the Tempo Era.
1837 Rebellion of Héihachiro Oshio to relieve the starving masses.
1837 Coming of the American ship Morrison.
1841 The Roju Tadakuni Mizuno's attempt at reformation.
1842 The 1825 order removed. A step towards the 'open door' policy.
1842 Controversies between the anti-foreign party and the liberalists became hotter.
1844 King of Holland gave advice to the Shogunate.
1846 First request of America for the 'open door.'
1853 Arrival of the American fleet under Commodore Perry.
1853 Coming of the Russian delegate

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Poutiatine to Nagasaki.

1854 Institution of the Sun Flag to symbolize Japan. (Sanctioned by the Meiji Government in 1870.)

1854 Conclusion of Amity Treaties with America, England and Russia.

1855 Conclusion of Amity Treaty with Holland.

1856 Arrival of the American envoy Townsend Harris.

1858 Conclusion of Commercial Treaties with Foreign nations by the Shogunate.

1858 The Ansei coup d'Etat by the Tairo Naosuké Ii.

1860 The Japanese envoy Masaoki Niimi sent to America.

1860 The Tairo Ii assassinated at the Sakurada gate of the Shogun Palace.

26. Downfall of the Yédo Shogunate.

1862 Rise of the Anti-Shogunate movement.

1862 The Namamugi Affair.

1863 The Anti-Foreign Law, and attack on foreign ships at Shimonoséki and Kagoshima.

1863 Defeat of the Anti-Foreign party; the seven Court nobles flee to Nagato.

1864 The Anti-Foreign party demanded the release of the seven Court nobles by force; battle at the Hamaguri gate of the Kyoto Imperial Palace.

1864 A combined fleet of America, England, France and the Netherlands bombarded Shimonoséki.

1865 Imperial Sanction given to the treaties of 1858.

1865-1867 Hostilities between the Shogunate forces and the army of the Choshu (Nagato) Lord who represented the Anti-Shogunate and Anti-Foreign Party.

1866 Demise of the Emperor Koméi.

1867 Ascension of the Meiji Tenno (1852-1912), the 122nd Emperor.

1867 The Emperor ordered armies opposed to the Nagato Lord to withdraw.

1867 Rapid progress of Anti-Shogunate movement and a definite scheme promoted by Sanjo, Iwakura, Saigo, Okubo and Kido.

1867 The Emperor gave orders to the lords of Nagato and Satsuma to move their armies against the Yédo Shogunate in compliance with the request of Sanjo, Iwakura and their colleagues, October 14.

1867 On the same day (October 14) the Shogun Yoshinobu Tokugawa asked Imperial sanction for the return of all authority of the Government to the Throne. On October 24 the Emperor complied with his request and accepted Yoshinobu's resignation.

1867 Proclamation of the Restoration, December 9.

1868 The rise of the lords and warriors loyal to the Shogunate. Battle of Toba-Fushimi. March of the Imperial armies to Yédo. Surrender of the Yédo Castle without bloodshed. Battles at Uéno, Utsunomiya and Aizu.

1869 Battle at Hakodaté, May, after which all disturbances in the wake of the political change completely subdued.

1602-1867 The Yédo period of Art history.

The New Japan

(1868-)

27. The Meiji Era.

1868 Enthronement of the Emperor Meiji.

1868 The first year of Meiji, beginning with September.
Proclamation of the Five Imperial Pledges.
Establishment of the Dajokan.

1869 Removal of the Capital to Tokyo.
Surrender of fiefs by the lords.
New organization of the Government.
Telegraphic communications opened.

1870 Ministers sent to foreign countries.
Social castes done away with.

1871 Japan is divided into 1 "Dō," 3 urban prefectures and 72 prefectures for administrative purposes. (The number being reduced in 1889 to the present 1 Dō, 3 urban prefectures and 43 prefectures.)
The people allowed to cut off their cues and the samurai forbidden to wear swords.

1872 Institution of the national school system.
The Loochoo Islands definitely

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included within Japanese territory.
Opening of railway line between Tokyo and Yokohama.

1873 Adoption of the solar calendar.
Institution of the Conscription system of military service.
Controversy over Korean affairs.

1874 Expedition to Formosa.
Request for opening the House of Representatives.
The Saga Affair.

1875 Karafuto exchanged for the Kuriles.
First Convention of the local governors.

1876 Kumamoto incident, a reactionary movement by the Jimpuren band of Kumamoto Samurai. Similar events occured at Akitsuki and Hagi.

1877 The South-Western Civil War, the rebellion of Takamori Saigo and his colleagues.

1879–1890 Rapid influx of things and ideas from Europe, called Rokuméi-kan period.

1879 First opening of local assemblies.

1880 Promulgation of new penal code.

1881 Imperial Edict promising the opening of the national assembly.

1882 Hirobumi Ito sent to Europe for the study of Western constitutional governments.

1884 Drafting of the constitution started.

1885 Institution of the cabinet.
The Tientsin Treaty.

1886 Japan became a member of the International Red Cross Society.

1888 Institution of city, town and village divisions.

1889 Proclamation of the Dai Nippon Téikoku Kempo (The Constitution of the Great Empire of Japan), Feb. 11.

1890 The First Imperial Diet convened in November.
Issuance of the Imperial Rescript on Education.
Institution of the system of courts of justice and promulgation of court procedures.

1894 New Anglo-Japanese Treaty.

1894–1895 Sino-Japanese War.

1895 Shimonoséki Peace Treaty, April.
The Three Powers' Intervention and return of the Liaotung Peninsula to China.
Formosa ceded to Japan.

1898 Promulgation of the Civil Law.

1899 Promulgation of the Commercial Law.
Boxer Uprising in China.

1902 Anglo-Japanese Alliance.

1904–1905 Russo-Japanese War.

1905 Capture of Port Arthur, January 1.
Battle of Mukden, March 10.
Battle of the Japan Sea, May 27.
Portsmouth Peace Treaty, September.
Korea became Japan's protectorate, November.

1906 Establishment of the Kwantung Government-General.

1907 Opening of the Karafuto Office.
Promulgation of the Revised Penal Code.

1910 Annexation of Korea, August.

1911 Revision of the Anglo-Japanese Alliance.
Revision of Treaties with Western countries on equal footing.

1912 Demise of the Emperor Meiji, July 30.

28. The Taisho Era.

1912 Ascension of the Emperor Taisho, July 30.

1914–1918 The World War.

1914 Capture of Tsingtao, November.

1915 New Treaty with China. So-called '21 Demands'.

1917 Gold embargo.

1918 End of the World War, November.

1919 Conclusion of the Versailles Treaty.
The South Sea Islands mandated to Japan.
Japan became a member of the League of Nations.

1921 Crown Prince's tour to Europe.
Crown Prince became Regent.

1921–1922 The Washington Conference.
Termination of the Anglo-Japanese Alliance.

1923 Great Earthquake of Kanto district, September 1.

1925 Conclusion of Treaty with the U. S. S. R.
Promulgation of the new Election Law (Universal Suffrage).

1926 Demise of the Emperor Taisho, December 25.

29. The Showa Era.

1926 Ascension of the present Emperor, December 25.

1927 Financial Panic.

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1930 Removal of gold embargo.
The London Disarmament Conference.
1931 Outbreak of the Manchurian Incident, September 18.
Replacement of gold embargo.
1932 The Shanghai Affair.
Independence of Manchoukuo, March 1.
The 'May 15 Affair' (assassination of Premier Inukai).
1933 Withdrawal from the League of Nations, March.
The World Economic Conference at London.
1934 Manchoukuo became an Empire with Kangte (Mr. Pu Yi) as first Emperor, March 1.
Japanese Government notified the U.S. Government their intention to terminate the Washington Naval Treaty, December 29.
1936 Japan withdrew from the London Naval Conference, January 15.
The 'February 26 Affair' (assassination of three political dignitaries, M. Saito, K. Takahashi, and General J. Watanabé).
1937 Beginning of the China Incident, July 7.
Beginning of the fight in Shanghai, August 13.
Complete occupation of Shanghai by the Japanese Army, November 10.
Downfall of Nanking, December 13.

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CHAPTER IV

GOVERNMENT

The Constitution

The fundamental source of all laws and ordinances, and of the administrative system is the Constitution of the Japanese Empire. This document, however, contains simply an outline of the principles involved, and there are many constitutional laws, written and unwritten, which condition the functioning of state organs. There are four fundamental sources of the laws of Japan; (1) the Constitution, (2) the Imperial House Law, (3) certain laws containing constitutional provisions, and (4) the unwritten constitution.

The Constitution of the Japanese Empire was promulgated on Feb. 11, 1889, and is composed of 7 chapters and 76 articles (given in full in Appendix). It was accompanied by an Imperial Declaration, the essence of which has the same legal force as the articles of the Constitution. In the declaration, the Emperor Meiji made four points clear: first, that the purpose of the establishment of the Constitution is to promote the welfare of his subjects and sustain the progress of the nation; secondly, that the monarchy of Japan is unchanged in form and identical with what it has always been, in the principles of the harmonious rule of sovereign and subjects and of constitutional and responsible government; thirdly, the proper means for revision of the Constitution, and that it limits not only the lawful actions of the subjects, but also the powers of the sovereign; and fourthly, the date of its coming into effect, that of the opening of the first session of the Imperial Diet on November 25, 1890.

The Highest Expression of State Will The Constitution was given by order of the Emperor and is the highest expression of the will of the State. All laws must conform to it, while the functions of the highest political organs of the nation are stated in it. But there is no means specified for prevention or correction of a breach of the Constitution by those organs, whether they be constitutionally established or not, except in so far as the interpretative power of the Privy Council, (See section on Privy Council), can be said to constitute such a check. Otherwise, this can only be provided for by the reciprocal restraint exercised by the Executive and the Legislature, the power of public opinion, or other means which are not specified by law. It must be remembered that not all the parts of the Constitution are new creations. Most of them are rather the expression of old laws in a new written form; many of the important political customs had already been incorporated in legal enactments before the Constitution came into being.

The Constitution does not include the whole of the law of the Constitution nor all the constitutional laws. It is one of the simplest constitutions in the world. For instance, such laws as the Imperial House Law or the laws concerning the composition of the Imperial Diet are not included in the Constitution, the reason being that, whereas the revision of these laws in accordance with changes in public thought may be necessary, it is undesirable that the Constitution itself should be revised easily and often. Revision of the Constitution must be initiated by the Tenno (Emperor), and the Imperial Diet has the power of deciding only on such revisions as are indicated by the Throne. No revisions have been made or constitutionally suggested since its establishment.

Other Constitutional Provisions The Imperial Household Law (See Appendix) mainly regulates matters concerning the Imperial Household and Family, but there are many constitutional provisions contained in it. Of special importance are the articles concerning the succession to the Throne and Regency, which determine the form of the sovereignty of the State and are therefore clearly of equal importance to the Constitution itself.

Other legal enactments containing constitutional provisions are the following: The Law of the Houses, the Imperial Ordinance concerning the House of Peers, the Imperial Ordinance concerning the Election of Members of the House of Peers, the Imperial Ordinance concerning the Cabinet, the Penal Law concerning the infringement of Ordinances, the Judicial Court Formation

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Law, the Court of Administrative Litigation Law, and the Board of Audit Law, which were enacted simultaneously with the Constitution; the Imperial Ordinances concerning the Privy Council and the Military Establishments, which were enacted before the promulgation of the Constitution; the Electoral Law and the common law for the formation of departments of the central government, which were promulgated after the Constitution. In addition there are many examples of post-Constitution laws with minor constitutional provisions.

Unwritten Provisions The Constitution of Japan is a written one in principle, but it does not exclude all unwritten provisions. There are still some spheres of governmental action which are not regulated by any document. Moreover, there are many cases in which the written laws have to be interpreted by unwritten laws or by national political custom or reason. For instance, the relation of the Japanese nation to the Shinto Shrines, the relation of State and religion, the site of the capital, the nature of the National Flag, the Calendar, and the customary procedure of the Imperial Diet are not defined in written laws, but are nevertheless constitutional observances. Other political customary observances of importance are that the Cabinet is formed, as a rule, by the members of the majority party in the House of Representatives, and that the Genro, Elder Statesmen, (at present only one, Prince Saionji) are consulted by the Emperor on the choice of a new Prime Minister.

The Form of Government

The form of the Japanese Government is that of a constitutional monarchy. The Empire is ruled by the Emperor (Tenno) according to the first article of the Constitution, "the Empire of Japan shall be reigned over and governed by a line of Emperors unbroken for ages eternal." The representatives of the people in the Imperial Diet participate in the rule of the State, but have no sovereign power. Sovereignty belongs entirely to the Emperor and all power is exercised in his name only. The Japanese Reigning House is the oldest dynasty in the world and, in stability and historical continuity, the Japanese monarchy is unique in history. The actual power of the Emperor at the present time is much greater than that of other constitutional monarchs.

The actions of all governmental organs are regulated by the Constitution and the collateral laws and usages above mentioned, and all the organs are coordinated by the central government. The supreme power is concentrated in the State, and the exercise of sovereignty is all in the hands of the central government which gives orders to all other administrative organs.

The People

All Japanese subjects are registered with the census authorities according to the Law of Nationality, and are recognized as the constituency of the State and protected by the State laws. They are required to submit completely to the control and orders of the State. By the terms of the Constitution they may, subject to qualifications determined by law or ordinance, be appointed to civil or military offices equally and may fill any other public positions. They are liable to service in the army and navy and to the duty of paying taxes according to the provisions of law. The duties they owe to the State are numerous, but these two are specially mentioned in the Constitution.

Japanese subjects are guaranteed liberty of abode and of changing the same. Within the limits of law, they shall not be arrested, detained, tried or punished unless according to law, shall not be deprived of their right of being tried by the judges determined by law, except in cases provided for by the law, their houses shall not be entered or searched without their consent, the secrecy of their letters shall remain inviolate, and their right of property shall remain inviolate. They enjoy freedom of religious belief, speech, writing, publication, public meeting and association; and they may present petitions to the authorities in the forms provided by law.

The feudal social castes were abolished at the Meiji Restoration, and the class names of Kazoku (Peers), Shizoku (Samurai class), and Héimin (Common people) were given according to family standing and lineage. The two last are purely social and represent no political distinction. Peerage carries with it the privilege of membership of the Upper House of the Legislature (Kizokuin, House of Peers), subject to certain conditions. In 1884 the peerage was divided into the following five ranks: Prince, Marquis, Count, Viscount, and Baron. The class name of "Héimin" has fallen into complete disuse, while that of "Shizoku" is being rapidly forgotten.

Tenno, The Emperor

The Japanese Throne is hereditary. The custom was established with the

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foundation of the State 2,597 years ago, and had been a constitutional unwritten law till it was clearly stated in the Imperial House Law by order of the Emperor Meiji. According to this law, the Japanese Throne "shall be succeeded to by male descendants in the male line of Imperial Ancestors" (Art. 1). In the history of Japan there were some Empresses in their own right, but their cases were always regarded as exceptional. The succession to the Throne as defined by the Imperial House Law is as follows:

(1) Imperial eldest son. (Kotaishi)
(2) Imperial eldest grandson. (Kotaison)
(3) Other male descendants of eldest son.
(4) Imperial son next in age.
(5) Male descendants of same in the same order as above.
(6) Other Imperial sons in order of age.
(7) Male descendants of same in the same order as above.
(8) Imperial brothers in order of age and their male descendants in the same order as shown above.
(9) Imperial uncles and their male descendants in the same order as above.
(10) Next nearest relative of the Emperor.

In all cases precedence is given to descendants of full blood over those of half blood.

The Three Sacred Treasures The Imperial heir ascends the Throne and is invested with the three Sacred Treasures, the Mirror, the Jewel, and the Sword, of the Imperial Ancestors upon the demise of the Emperor, and in no other circumstances. In ancient days, the Throne was succeeded to only for this natural reason, but the good custom was broken in the middle ages. The Imperial House Law aims at the re-establishment of the oldest custom and absolutely prohibits the abdication of the Throne in the Emperor's life time. The Imperial heir ascends to the Throne immediately upon the demise of the Emperor, although the ceremonial ascension comes later. For instance, the present Emperor came to the Throne in a room of the Hayama Winter Palace, where his father died, immediately after the demise was announced by the doctor on December 25, 1926, while the formal ceremony of accession was held about two years later in accordance with Art. 11 of the Imperial House Law which states that the ceremonies of Enthronement shall be performed and a Grand Enthronement Banquet (Daijosai) in honour of the Ancestral Gods held at Kyoto. Upon the accession, a new era is inaugurated and the name of the era remains unchanged during the whole reign of the Emperor.

The Regency As abdication of the Throne is impossible, Art. 19 of the Law provides for a regency to be instituted when the Emperor is a minor (the Tenno, Kotaishi and Kotaison attain majority at 18 years of age), or when he is prevented by some permanent cause from personally governing. In the second case the advice of the Imperial Family Council and of the Privy Council is required. The Regency shall be assumed by major members of the Imperial Family in the following order:

Family Status	Majority Age
(1) The Imperial Eldest Son	18
(2) Imperial Eldest Grandson	,,
(3) Imperial Prince	20
(4) Prince	,,
(5) The Empress	,,
(6) The Empress Dowager	,,
(7) The Grand Empress Dowager	,,
(8) Imperial Princess or Princess	,,

Imperial Prerogative

According to the provisions of the Constitution, the Japanese Emperor is the head of the Empire, combining in himself all the rights of sovereignty. According to the provisions of the Imperial House Law, he is the head of the Imperial Family, and he carries out his function as such by the advice of the Minister of the Imperial Household without reference to the Diet. By hereditary custom he assumes the position of the Highest Priest of the national cult of Shinto and conducts august ceremonies in honour of the gods of heaven and earth and of the ancestral gods directly and in person. He is in supreme command of the Imperial Army and Navy and exercises this power with the help of special organs established to that end and independently of the advice of State ministers. Lastly, he has power to confer all titles of nobility, rank, orders and other marks of honour.

The Emperor uses these sovereign powers with the assistance of various organs. In exercising legislative power he gets the consent of the Imperial Diet as a rule, although Imperial ordinances are often issued independent of the Diet, (under Article 9 of the Constitution), and for the colonies the exercise of ordinance power is unlimited

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by the Constitution. In the administration of State affairs he is advised by the Ministers of State, and in certain special cases by the Genro, the Grand Keeper of the Imperial Seals, and the Privy Council. In Military administration he is advised by the chiefs of the Naval and Military General Staffs, while in the exercise of judicial power, he is represented by the Courts of Law.

"The Emperor is sacred and inviolable" (Constitution, Art. 3). He cannot be removed from the Throne for any reason; and he is not to be held responsible for over-stepping the limitations of law in the exercise of his sovereignty. All responsibility for the exercise of his sovereignty must be assumed by the Ministers of State and other organs. Thus, no criticism can be directed against the Emperor, but only against the instruments of his sovereignty. Laws are not to be applied to the Emperor as a principle, especially criminal laws, for no court of law can try the Emperor himself and he is not subject to any law.

The Cabinet

The Cabinet is composed of 14 State ministers headed by the Prime Minister. The 13 ministers are (1) the Minister for Foreign Affairs, (2) the Minister for Home Affairs, (3) the Minister of Finance, (4) the Minister of War, (5) the Minister of Marine, (6) the Minister of Justice, (7) the Minister of Education, (8) the Minister of Agriculture and Forestry, (9) the Minister of Commerce and Industry, (10) the Minister of Communications, (11) the Minister of Railways, (12) the Minister for Overseas Affairs and (13) the Minister of Welfare (The "Kōsei Shō", or the Department of Welfare, was established in January, 1938).

Though all the ministers are separately responsible to the Emperor for all the administrative work under their respective jurisdiction, they are united by the Prime Minister (Naikaku Sori Daijin), one of whose functions is to preserve unity among the State ministers. Through this specific function of the Premier (which, though not mentioned in the Constitution, is prescribed in the Cabinet Organization Ordinance), and the rapid growth of party government, his controlling power over the other State ministers has, of late, been greatly augmented, and as all matters of national importance are decided upon in cabinet meetings, State ministers are now, as a matter of fact, held jointly responsible to the Emperor.

Thus, each departmental minister has a twofold function, first as a State minister and secondly as a departmental executive head. As a State minister he is an adviser to the Emperor in the exercise of his sovereign power over national administration, and for the advice given assumes a joint responsibility with his colleagues. As the head of a department his function is to direct, control and supervise all the administrative affairs within his departmental jurisdiction, for which his responsibility is individual.

As it is imformed in the chapter on parties and politics the Hirota Cabinet resigned early in February, 1937, and was succeeded by the Hayashi Cabinet which assumed position for but four months followed by the Konoé Cabinet which was formed on June 4, 1937. This was succeeded by the present Hiranuma Cabinet which was formed on January 5, 1939. The names and careers of members of the cabinet are given below.

The Members of the Hiranuma Cabinet (April, 1939) Prime Minister, Baron Kiichiro Hiranuma, D.L., born in September, 1867; graduated from the Law Department, Tokyo Imperial University, 1888; entered service at the Justice Ministry, 1888; judge at various courts and later public procurator at the Tokyo Court of Appeal and concurrently the chief of the civil and criminal bureau, Justice Ministry; sent to Europe and America for the study of the judicial system, 1907; Doctor of Law, 1907; Vice-Minister of Justice, 1911; Procurator-General, 1912-21; President of the Supreme Court, 1921-23; Minister of Justice, 1923; Privy Councillor, 1923; Vice-President of the Privy Council, 1926; Baron, 1926; President of the Privy Council, 1936-39.

Minister without Portfolio, Prince Fumimaro Konoé, President of the Privy Council. (See the Japan Year Book, 1938-39, p. 99.)

Minister for Foreign Affairs, Hachiro Arita, born in September, 1884; graduated from the Law Department, Tokyo Imperial University, 1909; entered the Foreign Office service, 1909; Consul-General at Tientsin, 1925-27; Councillor at the Japanese Embassy in Berlin, 1927; Director of the Asia Bureau, Foreign Ministry, 1927-29; Minister to Austria and Hungary, 1930; Vice-Minister for Foreign Affairs, 1932; Ambassador to Belgium, 1933-35; Ambassador to China, 1936; Minister for Foreign Affairs, 1936-37.

Minister for Home Affairs, Marquis Koichi Kido, M.H.P., born in July, 1889;

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graduated from the Law Department, Kyoto Imperial University, 1915; in service at the Ministry of Agriculture and Commerce and later Ministry of Commerce and Industry, 1915-1930; Chief Secretary to the Grand Keeper of the Imperial Seals, 1930; Minister of Education, 1937-38; concurrently Minister of Welfare, 1938.

Minister of Finance, Sotaro Ishiwata, born in October, 1891; graduated from the Law Department, Tokyo Imperial University, 1916; entered service at the Finance Ministry and assumed various positions, 1916-1937; Vice-Minister of Finance, 1937-39.

Minister of War, Lieutenant-General Seishiro Itagaki. (See the Japan Year Book, 1938-39, p. 100.)

Minister of Marine, Admiral Mitsumasa Yonai. (See the Japan Year Book, 1938-39, p. 100.)

Minister of Justice, Suéhiko Shiono. (See the Japan Year Book, 1938-39, p. 100.)

Minister of Education, General Baron Sadao Araki. (See the Japan Year Book, 1938-39, p. 100.)

Minister of Agriculture and Forestry, Yukio Sakurauchi, M.H.R., born in 1880; rendered service for the establishment of the Nippon Electric Light Company which later merged into the present Tokyo Electric Light Company, 1911; President of the Kotokawa Power Company and has had relations with many other companies for many years; elected member of the House of Representatives, 1920; Secretary-General of the Minseito, 1931; Minister of Commerce and Industry, 1931; member of the Executive Board of the Minseito, and now an Adviser to the Minseito.

Minister of Commerce and Industry, Yoshiaki Hatta, M.H.P., born in September, 1879; graduated from the Engineering Department, Tokyo Imperial University, 1903; engineer of the Sanyo Railway Company, and that of the State Railways; sent to Europe and America, 1920; Director of the Construction Bureau, Railways Ministry; Vice-Minister of Railways, 1926-29; member of the House of Peers by Imperial Order, 1929; Vice-President of the South Manchuria Railway Company, 1932; Minister for Overseas Affairs, 1938-39.

Minister of Communications, Harumichi Tanabé, born in October, 1878; graduated from the Law Department, Tokyo Imperial University, 1905; entered service at the Communications Ministry, 1909; sent to France for investigations, 1911-1913; Director of the Insurance Section, Deposits Bureau, 1916; Governor of Osaka prefecture, 1927-28; Councillor to the Government of Manchoukuo, 1933; Secretary-General of the Cabinet, 1939.

Minister of Railways, Yonezo Maeda, M.H.R., born in 1882; began his career as a lawyer after graduation from Chuo University; Director of the Legislation Bureau, 1927; Minister of Commerce and Industry, 1931; Minister of Railways, 1936; member of the Cabinet Advisory Council, 1937-39; member of the House of Representatives since 1917; member of the Presidential Board of the Seiyukai, 1937-39.

Minister for Overseas Affairs, General Kuniaki Koiso, born in March, 1880; graduated from the Military Academy, 1900; later graduated from the Staff College; Major-General, 1926; Lieutenant-General, 1931; Vice-Minister of War, 1932; General, 1937; Commander of the Chosen Army, 1937-1938; attached to the General Staff Office, 1938.

Minister of Welfare, Hisatada Hirosé, born in January, 1889; graduated from the Law Department, Tokyo Imperial University, 1914; served as official at local governments, 1914-1929; Deputy-Mayor of Tokyo, 1929-30; successively Governor of Mié prefecture, Governor of Saitama prefecture, and Director of the Public Works Bureau, Home Ministry, 1931-36; Chief of the Social Bureau, 1936; Vice-Minister for Home Affairs, 1937; Vice-Minister of Welfare, 1938-39.

The Hiranuma Cabinet tendered resignation to the Throne on August 28, 1939, and the new cabinet under General Nobuyuki Abé was formed on August 30. The members of the new cabinet are as follows:

The Present Cabinet Prime Minister and Foreign Minister, General Nobuyuki Abé, born in 1875; Sub-Lieutenant 1898; after graduating from the Staff College sent to Germany for study and then served as Assistant-Military Attache to the Japanese Embassy in Austria; assumed varied posts of Director of General Affairs Department, General Staff Office, Director of Military Affairs Bureau, War Vice-Minister and Acting War Minister in 1931 under the Hamaguchi Cabinet; Commander of the 4th Division, Commander of the Chosen Garrison; promoted to General, 1933; became a Supreme War Councillor in 1936; retired from active service, 1936.

Minister for Home Affairs and Minister of Welfare, Naoshi Ohara, M.H.P., born in January, 1877; graduated from the Law Department of Tokyo Imperial University, 1902; a judge of the Tokyo

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District Court, 1904; successively public procurator of the Chiba District Court, Counsellor to the Justice Ministry, chief public procurator of the Yokohama District Court, Tokyo District Court and Nagasaki Court of Appeal, and public procurator of the Supreme Court, 1905-1927; Vice-Minister of Justice, 1927-31; President of the Tokyo Court of Appeal, 1931-34; Minister of Justice, 1934-36; member of the House of Peers by Imperial order, 1936.

Finance Minister, Kazuo Aoki, born in November, 1889; graduated from Tokyo Imperial University, 1916; entered service at Finance Ministry and sent to England for study; assumed various posts in the Ministry, 1920-34; Director of the Bureau of Fund Employment, 1934-36; Vice-Director of the Manchurian Affairs Bureau, 1936; Vice-Chief of the Cabinet Planning Board, 1937-38; Chief of the Cabinet Planning Board, 1939, and concurrently remains in the post.

War Minister, General Shunroku Hata, born in 1879; finished the Military Academy, 1901; served in a number of positions, 1901-34; Commander of the 14th Division, 1935; Chief of the Aviation Department, 1935; Commander of the Formosan Garrison, 1936; member of the Supreme War Council, 1937; General, 1937; Supreme Commander of the Japanese Forces in Central China, 1937-38; again member of the Supreme War Council, 1938; Chief Aide-de-Camp to the Emperor, June, 1939.

Navy Minister, Vice-Admiral Zengo Yoshida, born in 1885; finished the Naval Academy, 1904; served in various capacities until he became Director of the Naval Affairs Bureau in 1933; Vice-Admiral, 1934; Commander of the Training Squadron, 1936; Commander-in-Chief of the Second Fleet, 1937; Commander-in-Chief of the Combined Fleet and the First Fleet, 1938-39.

Minister of Justice, Chōgorō Miyagi, born in September, 1878; graduated from the Law Department of Tokyo Imperial University, 1906; a judge, 1908; served in the capacity of a judge, public procurator, etc. in various courts and in the Ministry of Justice, 1908-36; Chief public procurator of the Nagoya Court of Appeal, 1936-39.

Minister of Education, Kakichi Kawarada, M.H.P., born in January, 1886; graduated from Tokyo Imperial University, 1909; successively assumed sectional directorship of several prefectural governments and in the Home Ministry; sent to Geneva as the Government representative at the International Labour Conference, 1919, 1924, and 1928; Vice-Governor-General of Taiwan, 1928-29; Vice-Minister for Home Affairs, 1931-32; a trustee of the Labour Arbitration Society, 1932-37; Minister for Home Affairs, 1937; President of the Board of Trustees of the Patriotic Industrial League, 1938-39.

Minister of Agriculture and Forestry and Minister of Commerce and Industry, Vice-Admiral, Dr. Takuo Godō, born in September, 1877; graduated from the Technical Department of Tokyo Imperial University, 1901; entered service at the Kuré Naval Dockyard and after assuming several sectional directorships became Chief of the Kuré Naval Dockyard, 1923-28; Constructor Rear-Admiral, 1923; Constructor Vice-Admiral, 1926; Doctor of Technology, 1928; retired from active service and became the president of the Showa Steel Works, 1929-37; a trustee of the South Manchuria Railway Company, 1930-34; Minister of Commerce and Industry and Minister of Railways, 1937; member of the House of Peers by Imperial order, 1937; President of the Tokyo Chamber of Commerce and Industry, 1938-39.

Minister of Communications and Minister of Railways, Ryutaro Nagai, M.H.R., born in April, 1881; graduated from the Political Department of Waseda University, 1905; sent to England and Germany for study, 1905; professor at Waseda University, 1907-17; Parliamentary Vice-Minister for Foreign Affairs, 1929-31; Minister for Overseas Affairs, 1932-34; Minister of Communications, 1937-39; member of the House of Representatives since 1920 and is the chief executive of the Minseito.

Minister for Overseas Affairs, Tsuneo Kanemitsu, M.H.R., born in March, 1877; entered service at the Finance Ministry and held positions at the Nagasaki Custom House, Kumamoto Revenue Superintending Bureau, etc. till 1908; entered the Suzuki Concern, 1908; became president of the Taisho Life Insurance, the Nippon Theatre, the Oji Electric Railway Company, and other firms; sent to Geneva as the Capital representative of Japan at the International Labour Conference, 1931; member of the House of Representatives since 1920 and Vice-Speaker of the House of Representatives, 1937-39.

The Prime Minister

The Prime Minister presents reports on administrative matters of importance to the Emperor as the head of the Cabinet. When necessary he can order the

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suspension of an administrative operation or of the application of an administrative order by any executive organ, pending the final decision of the Emperor. The Premier issues Cabinet Orders in virtue of this official function or by special commission. He is empowered within his functional jurisdiction to direct the Metropolitan Chief of Police and the Prefectural Governors. Matters that should be presented to the Cabinet Council are prescribed as follows:

(1) All legislative and budget bills.
(2) Treaties and other international matters of importance.
(3) Ordinances to be issued.
(4) Disputes among the various Departments regarding jurisdiction.
(5) Petitions from the people received from the Emperor or from the Diet.
(6) Outlays not prescribed in the budget.
(7) Appointments and removals of officials of "chokunin" rank and also of prefectural governors.

PREMIERS SINCE 1885

Date of Formation of Cabinet	Premier
Dec. 22, 1885	H. Ito
April 30, 1888	K. Kuroda
Dec. 24, 1889	A. Yamagata
May 6, 1891	M. Matsukata
Aug. 8, 1892	H. Ito
Sept. 18, 1896	M. Matsukata
Jan. 12, 1898	H. Ito
June 30, 1898	S. Okuma
Nov. 8, 1898	A. Yamagata
Oct. 9, 1900	H. Ito
June 2, 1901	T. Katsura
Jan. 7, 1906	K. Saionji
July 14, 1908	T. Katsura
Aug. 30, 1911	K. Saionji
Dec. 21, 1912	T. Katsura
Feb. 20, 1913	G. Yamamoto
April 16, 1914	S. Okuma
Oct. 9, 1916	M. Térauchi
May 29, 1918	T. Hara
Nov. 13, 1921	K. Takahashi
June 12, 1922	T. Kato
Sept. 2, 1923	G. Yamamoto
Jan. 7, 1924	K. Kiyoura
June 11, 1924	Takaakira Kato
Aug. 2, 1925	"
Jan. 30, 1926	R. Wakatsuki
April 20, 1927	G. Tanaka
July 2, 1929	O. Hamaguchi
April 14, 1931	R. Wakatsuki
Dec. 13, 1931	T. Inukai
May 26, 1932	M. Saito
July 8, 1934	K. Okada
March 9, 1936	K. Hirota
Feb. 2, 1937	S. Hayashi
June 4, 1937	F. Konoé
Jan. 5, 1939	K. Hiranuma
Aug. 30, 1939	N. Abé

Cabinet Advisory Council

The Imperial Ordinance No. 593, promulgated on October 14, 1937, established an extraordinary system of Cabinet Advisory Council. The Councillors are chosen from among experienced political, military and businessmen, and are to give advices to the Premier and the Cabinet on important national policies pertaining to the present national and international situations.

The first Councillors were: General Kazushigé Ugaki; Mr. Chuji Machida, President of the Minseito; Admiral Kiyokazu Abo; General Sadao Araki; Admiral Nobumasa Suétsugu; Mr. Yonezo Maéda of the Seiyukai; Mr. Kiyoshi Akita of the Seiyukai; Mr. Yosuké Matsuoka, President of the S. M. R.; Baron Seinosuké Goh, former President of Nippon and Tokyo Chambers of Commerce and Industry; and Mr. Seihin Ikéda, former Governor of the Bank of Japan and President of the Mitsui Bank.

The present (April, 1939) members are Mr. Chuji Machida, Admiral Kiyokazu Abo, Admiral Nobumasa Suetsugu, Mr. Kiyoshi Akita, Mr. Yosuké Matsuoka, Baron Seinosuké Goh, Mr. Seihin Ikeda, General Iwane Matsui, Mr. Sonyu Ohtani, and Mr. Toshio Shimada.

Cabinet Bureaux

Important offices of the Cabinet are the Secretariat, Pension Bureau, Statistics Bureau, and Printing Bureau. There are three other bureaux which are affiliated to the Cabinet and which are under the Premier's direct control, namely the Legislation Bureau, Merit Bureau and Board of Planning. All bills to be submitted to the legislature by the Government and all ordinances to be promulgated are drafted at the Legislation Bureau in accordance with the order of the Premier. Proposals of amendment or repeal of laws or ordinances are also submitted to this bureau. In the discharge of his duties the Chief of the Legislation Bureau is at liberty to present his opinion to the Cabinet.

The Merit Bureau handles all business pertaining to the Orders of Merit, decorations and the pensions affiliated to them, national and international. The

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Board of Planning was established in October, 1937, in the place of the former Bureau of Planning and the Resources Bureau. The function of the Board are to make recommendations to the Prime Minister in regard to important national policies and to their co-ordination and adjustment, to investigate the important policies proposed by Ministers and make recommendations based on due observation of them, to make recommendations concerning control over budget estimates, and to make plans for the control and unification of Departmental businesses for carrying out the national mobilization scheme.

On December 26, 1934, the Bureau for Manchurian Affairs was established. The bureau is under the Premier's direct control as are the other three bureaux. Its function is to supervise all matters concerning Kwantung Leased Territory and the South Manchuria Railway Zone through the Kwanto Bureau in the Japanese Embassy in Hsinking.

Two bureaus were established in 1937, the Tohoku Kyoku (Bureau for the North-Eastern Districts) and the Cabinet Bureau of Information.

The China Affairs Board was created, in December, 1938, as the central office for carrying on works pertaining to the rehabilitation and development of China.

There are many committees under the direct control of the Premier, important ones being as follows :—(a) The Higher Civil Service Examination Committee which is in charge of the higher civil service examinations, and of recommendations to certain higher posts. It consists of 8 members who are chosen from among high officials of the Government and its chairman is the Premier, (b) the Pensions Arbitration Committee, (c) The Resource Investigation Committee, (d) The Merit Examination Committee, (e) The Welfare Promotion Committee for the North-Eastern Districts, (f) The Committee for the Celebration of the 26th Centenary of the founding of the Empire, (g) The Election System Investigation Committee organized in July, 1936, and (h) the Diet Organization Investigation Committee instituted in July, 1936.

The Executive Departments

Department of Foreign Affairs. The Minister for Foreign Affairs administers all the diplomatic affairs of the Empire ; organizes the protection of the Empire's commercial interests and Japanese subjects resident in foreign countries ; and directs and supervises Japanese diplomats and consuls. The Department of Foreign Affairs is subdivided into five bureaux, namely, (1) East Asiatic, (2) European and Asiatic, (3) American, (4) Commercial, and (5) Treaties.

The East Asiatic Bureau is divided into three sections : the First Section handles diplomatic matters related to China, Hong-Kong and Macao ; the Second Section those concerning Siam and protection and control of Japanese residents in those countries ; and the Third Section those concerning Manchoukuo.

The European and Asiatic Bureau is divided into two sections : the First Section handles diplomatic matters related to the U.S.S.R., Finland, Estonia, Latvia, Lithuania, Turkey, Poland, Persia and Afghanistan ; the Second Section those of all the European and other countries not coming under the control of any other bureau or section.

The American Bureau is divided into three sections : the First Section handles diplomatic matters concerning Canada, the United States of America and her territories ; the Second Section, the Central and South American countries ; the Third Section handles matters concerning emigrants and passports.

The Commercial Bureau is divided into three sections : the First Section handles matters concerning institutions and policies of trade and navigation ; the Second Section control, promotion and protection of trade and navigation ; the Third Section commercial affairs and reports.

The Bureau of Treaties is divided into three sections : the First Section handles matters concerning drafting, interpretation, sanction, publication and revision of treaties with foreign countries ; the Second Section international judicial matters ; the Third Section the League of Nations.

There are three other offices of importance. The Information Bureau is divided into three sections. The First Section handles matters concerning news in daily papers and broadcasting ; the Second Section books, magazines, publication, foreign news agencies, propaganda, international meetings ; the Third Section distribution of diplomatic knowledge.

The Investigation Bureau is divided into five sections and their duties are as follows : the First Section general business and study of diplomatic facts ; the Second Section keeping of records and materials ; the Third Section investigations on diplomatic and commercial situations in Asia and the Near

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East; the Fourth Section investigations on Europe and Oceania; the Fifth Section political and diplomatic investigations on North and South American countries.

The Cultural Works Bureau handles matters concerning the cultural works for China which mainly consist of promotion and assistance of cultural investigations and enterprises on China.

Japanese Embassies, etc. (See Chapter VI, List of Envoys.)

Department of Home Affairs The Minister for Home Affairs is in charge of national shrines, prefectural administration, national and local political elections, police, public undertakings, town planning, publication and copyrights, etc. It is also his function to supervise the Chief of the Metropolitan Police Board and the prefectural governors. The Ministry of Home Affairs has in recent years become the most important Government office politically, inasmuch as it supervises elections and administers local public works. The Minister is assisted by a parliamentary vice-minister, a vice-minister and a counsellor. The department has five bureaux, respectively in charge of the following affairs:—(1) Shrines, (2) Local Affairs, (3) Public Order, (4) Public Works, and (5) Planning.

The Bureau of Local Affairs has a vast field to supervise. It has to be in close touch with (1) all matters affecting elections, (2) all the work concerning local public associations and other general administration, (3) financial and economic matters of various local public associations, (4) all matters concerning conscription and requisition to be executed by the prefectural governments, (5) all matters concerning forests, reclamation and settlement in Hokkaido and other matters in Hokkaido which do not come within the scope of any other bureaux.

The Bureau of Public Order is invested with the highest authority over ordinary as well as political police matters, and the publication of books and other printed matter.

The Bureau of Public Works is in charge of all public undertakings, not only those under the direct control of the Home Department but also those of all the prefectural governments. All matters regarding expenditure for public works of all sorts directly undertaken by the Department of Home Affairs and the subsidies to be granted for prefectural public works are handled by this Bureau.

The Bureau of Planning makes plans for the improvement of cities and some 400 municipalities and for the air defence of all districts.

The following institutions also come under the control of the Minister for Home Affairs:— the Asylum for Disabled Soldiers, the National Shrines Building Office, the Police Educational Institute, the National House of Correction for the Improvement of Juvenile Criminals, and the National Leper-Houses.

The Department of Finance The Minister of Finance is in charge of accounting, payments and receipts of public money, taxation, government bonds, coins, money in deposit and custody, negotiable instruments owned by or in custody of the Government and all matters concerning banking, trust business, "ko" (an oriental mutual loan association), and sale of negotiable instruments. He also supervises the finances of the prefectural governments and other local public bodies.

The Finance Department has the following four bureaux:— (1) The Accounts Bureau, which handles all matters concerning the national budget and settlement of accounts, special accounts, co-ordination of treasury business, control of accounting officials, etc. (2) The Bureau of Taxation, which handles matters pertaining to the levying of national taxes, supervision of taxation affairs, the land register, and customs and excise tariffs. (3) The Bureau of Fund Employment, which is in charge of matters concerning the employment of national funds, the administration of national treasury money, the coinage, general circulation of money, national loans, accident and relief funds, deposits and negotiable securities, annuities, and public loans floated by public associations. (4) The Banking Bureau, which takes charge of matters concerning special, ordinary and savings banks, other matters pertaining to banks, the central chest of co-operative societies and credit unions in the cities.

The following other bureaux and institutions are attached to the Department of Finance and are under the direct jurisdiction of the Minister:— (1) The Deposits Bureau, which handles a huge amount of deposits from the middle and lower classes of the people, special importance being always attached to the question of how to utilize this money, (2) The Foreign Exchange Control Bureau, (3) The National Property Bureau, which is in charge of all national properties, and makes arrangements for their disposal or acquirement. (4) The Mint Bureau, located in Osaka, which is in charge of the minting and melting down of all coins, the casting

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of national medals or decorations, and laboratory work on metals. (5) The Customs Bureaux, which not only handle matters concerning the collection of import duties but also take charge of the control of ships going in and out of the trade ports, medical and health examination of passengers and crews, plants and animals, and registration of epidemics in accordance with the epidemics or tuberculosis prevention laws for men and animals. Customs Houses under these Bureaux are located at the seven trade ports, namely, Yokohama, Kobé, Osaka, Nagasaki, Moji, Nagoya and Hakodaté. (6) The Revenue Superintending Bureaux, which handle matters concerning tax collection. (7) The Monopoly Bureau, which administers the four government monopolies, salt, camphor, tobacco, and pure alcohol (newly included in 1937).

One laboratory and several committees are under the direct control of the Minister of Finance, namely, the Brewing Laboratory and the Committees on Tariff Petitions Examination, the National Property Survey, Building Central Offices of the Government, Tariff Investigation, etc.

The Department of War The function of the Minister of War, who is appointed from among Generals or Lieutenant-Generals in active service, is to direct the military administration. He controls all the men enlisted in the Army and supervises all branches of the Army. Though the War Minister is assisted by a parliamentary vice-minister and a counsellor they have nothing to do officially with military secrets and military orders (for the organization of the Department and its detailed functions, see Chapter VII).

The Department of Marine The Minister of Marine is appointed from among Admirals or Vice-Admirals in active service and is responsible for all naval administration. He controls all the men enlisted in the Navy and supervises all branches of the Navy. The parliamentary vice-minister and counsellor have nothing to do with naval secrets and naval commands (for the organization of the Department and its detailed functions, see Chapter VII).

The Department of Justice The Minister of Justice supervises courts and procurators' offices; and controls all judicial proceedings. The Department contains three bureaux, dealing respectively with civil affairs, criminal affairs, and prisons.

Judicial procedure is divided into three instances. The courts of first instance are the Local and District Courts. In the Local Court are tried civil cases of minor importance and those involving sums not exceeding one thousand yen. The Court also deals with criminal cases which are not felonies and those which do not require preliminary examination. The Local Court handles cases of bankruptcy and those concerning personal status and arbitration. In rent and commercial disagreements, an arbitration committee, composed of one judge and two laymen experienced in the matters involved in the dispute, may be appointed. The jurisdiction of a Local Court covers an average area of 2,587 square miles and a population of about 219,000.

The District Court conducts trials of first instance of cases beyond the jurisdiction of the Local Court and preliminary examinations of criminal cases of a complicated character.

The District and Appeal Courts are the courts of second instance. The former handles cases on appeal from the Local Courts, and the latter appeals against the first instance decisions of the District Courts.

The court of third instance is the Supreme Court, which tries all civil and criminal cases which are brought before it, and conducts preliminary trials for (1) serious offences against the Imperial House, (2) high treason, and (3) offences committed by members of the Imperial Family.

There are one Supreme Court, 7 Courts of Appeal, 52 District Courts and 282 Local Courts in Japan proper.

Attached to each of these courts is a procurators' office, its functions being to conduct investigations, institute prosecutions, supervise the execution of sentences in criminal cases, and act as representative of the public interest in civil cases (For further details, see Chapter XXVII).

The Department of Education All matters relating to education, art, science, literature, and religion are under the direction and supervision of the Minister of Education. There are seven bureaux and one division in the Department, i. e. (1) Bureau of College Education, (2) Bureau of Common Education, (3) Bureau of Technical Education, (4) Bureau of Social Education, (5) Bureau of Books, (6) Bureau of Religion, and (7) Bureau of Thoughts.

Six imperial universities, 2 commercial universities, 7 medical universities, 1 technical university, 2 normal universities, 4 higher normal schools, and 79 colleges and special educational institutions come under the direct administration of the Department (see Chapter

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XXVIII).

The following institutions are also established and controlled by this Department:—the Imperial Library; the Tokyo Observatory; the Central Meteorological Observatory; the Marine Meteorological Observatory; the Aerological Observatory; the Latitude Observatory; Epidemic Laboratory; Aeronautical Laboratory; Seismological Laboratory; Hot Spring Cure Laboratory; the Tokyo Science Museum; the Physical Education Laboratory; the Navigation Institute; the Geodesy Committee; the Examining Committee for Teachers' Licences; the Physical Sciences Literature Committee, for preparing a national list of books on physical sciences, as a branch of the International Committee for the same purpose; the Imperial Academy, which is composed of one hundred scholars appointed by the Emperor and is established for the promotion of science and culture; the Imperial Academy of Arts, which is composed of less than 80 members under a president, for the progress of fine art, literature and music; the Text Book Committee; the Science Council; the National Language Committee; the Aeronautics Council; the School Hygiene Committee; the Earthquake Disaster Prevention Committee; the Religious System Investigation Committee; and the National Treasure Preservation Committee.

The Department of Commerce and Industry The Minister of Commerce and Industry is assisted in administration of the Department by a parliamentary vice-minister, vice-minister and counsellor.

There are eight bureaux in this Department, dealing respectively with commerce, industry, mining, foreign trade, insurance, control (rationalization of commerce and industry), fuel and patents. Examination and control of weights and measures is under the Central Weights and Measures Office. Other affiliated office of importance is the Mine Supervision Bureau.

In May, 1932, an ordinance was issued empowering the Minister of Commerce and Industry to establish two industrial laboratories, in Tokyo and Osaka respectively. These laboratories are opened for the examination, analysis, and appraising of industrial commodities for the benefit of interested parties. Other institutions under the Department are as follows: the Fancy Mat conditioning Houses, the Silk Experimental Stations, the Earthenware and Porcelain Experimental House, the Silk Goods Export Conditioning House, the Industrial Advice and Information Office, the Fuel Laboratory, the Industrial Art Examination Committee, the Unreasonable Low Price Investigation Committee, the Gas Business Committee, the National Products Promotion Committee and the Motor-car Manufacturing Business Committee.

The Department of Agriculture and Forestry The Minister of Agriculture and Forestry controls all matters concerning agriculture, forestry, marine industry, stock-breeding and the enforcement of the Rice and Cereals Law. The Department is divided into the following seven bureaux:—(1) The Agriculture Bureau, which takes charge of matters concerning agriculture, tea production, subsidiary industries among farmers, industrial unions, the central chest of the co-operative associations, and the enforcement of Cereals Law. (2) The Forestry Bureau, which deals with all matters concerning forests and meadows. (3) The Fisheries Bureau. (4) The Stock Breeding Bureau, which deals with the improvement and breeding of domestic animals, their hygiene, insurance and hunting. (5) The Silk Bureau handles matters concerning sericulture and the silk industry. (6) The Horse Bureau, which was established in July, 1936, deals with improvement, breeding and other matters concerning horses and their pastures; and (7) The Rice Bureau for control of price of rice and its supply.

The following institutions are under the direct control of the Minister:—the Agricultural, Horticultural, Tea and Forestry Experimental Stations, the Fisheries Institute and Fisheries Experimental Stations, the National Stock-sheep Pastures, the Animal Disease Examination Institute, the National Bull Pastures, National Poultry Station, the Sericultural Laboratory, the Raw Silk Conditioning Houses, the Tea Experimental Houses, the Rice and Cereals Committee, and the Silk Price Committee.

The Department of Communications The Minister of Communications administers the State post, telegraph, telephone, broadcasting and beacon services, and is in charge of all matters relating to electricity, hydraulic power and aviation. All business enterprises of electricity, ship-building, and water transportation together with navigation routes, ships and seamen are under his supervision. He also directs the operations of the Nippon Wireless Telegraph Company.

The Minister is assisted by a parliamentary vice-minister, and a counsellor.

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The Secretariat, beside the ordinary secretarial work, supervises the training of clerks who are expected to enter the communications service and all matters concerning communications exhibitions. There are seven main bureaux in the Department :—Postal Service Bureau ; Telegraph and Telephone Service Bureau ; Bureau of Engineering ; Bureau of Electricity ; Bureau of Mercantile Ships ; Aviation Bureau ; and Bureau of Accounts and Supplies.

There are in addition the following affiliated offices :—Bureau of Savings, Lighthouse Bureau, and Communications Bureau. The Savings Bureau handles matters concerning the Post Office savings, and their transfer to the national deposit.

The following institutions are under the direct supervision of the Minister : —the Electro-Technical Laboratory, the Marine Court of Inquiry, the Marine Labour Exchange Committee, the Post-Office Life Insurance Investigation Committee, the Post-Office Life Insurance Reserve Fund Utilization Committee, the Electricity Committee and the Aviation Control Committee.

The Department of Railways The Minister of Railways administers all the affairs relating to the railways operated by the Government and supervises the operations on land of all private railway companies. The Department is divided into seven bureaux, namely, Bureau of Local Railway Administration, Bureau of Traffic and Operation, Bureau of Construction, Bureau of Mechanical Engineering, Bureau of Maintenance and Improvement, Bureau of Electricity, and Bureau of Finance and Purchasing. During the last few years there has been operated a special Tourist Industry Bureau for attracting foreign tourists, which is subdivided into the Controlling and Investigating Section and the Promoting Section. The administrative work of the state railways is apportioned to six local regions : Tokyo, Nagoya, Osaka, Moji, Sendai and Sapporo. Each region is in charge of a director who has full powers to conduct all but the most important affairs within his jurisdiction.

There are three committees affiliated to the ministry, the Railway Council, the Tourists Committee and the Railway Fare Investigation Committee. (See Chapter XXV, State Railways.)

The Department of Overseas Affairs The Minister of Overseas Affairs supervises the administrative work of the Chosen Government-General, the Taiwan Government-General, the Kwantung Government, the Karafuto Government, and the Government of the South Sea Islands. He also supervises the business operations of the South Manchuria Railway Company and the Oriental Development Company. He directs all matters concerning emigration excepting those of a diplomatic nature. For the performance of these duties,the Minister is empowered to direct and supervise consuls stationed in foreign countries in consultation with the Foreign Minister. There are, besides the Secretariat, the following four offices in the Department ; the Chosen Office, (having a special status and being always under the direction of the vice-minister), Industry Development Bureau, the Supervision Bureau, and the Exploitation Bureau.

The Department of Welfare The Minister of Welfare administers all the matters relating to the health and well-being of the people. The Department is divided into five bureaux of Physical Strength, Public Hygiene, Disease Prevention, Social Affairs and Labour, which are responsible for matters relating to national health, social welfare and labour, and a Board of Insurance which is responsible for matters relating to health insurance, accident relief liability insurance for labourers, and other systems of social insurance as well as post office life insurance and post office life annuities. The following is the list of matters coming under the jurisdiction of the Department, classified according to the Bureaus and the Board: (1) Bureau of Physical Strength; matters concerning planning for the improvement of physical strength, matters concerning measures and institutions for the improvement of physical strength, matters concerning investigations of physical strength, matters concerning physical education and sports, matters concerning infant's, children's and maternity hygiene. (2) Bureau of Public Hygiene ; matters concerning sanitation in food, clothing and dwelling places, matters concerning hygienic guidance, matters concerning medical and pharmaceutical affairs, other matters relating to public health which do not come under the supervision of other governmental institutions. (3) Bureau of Disease Prevention ; matters concerning the prevention of infectious, local and other diseases, matters concerning quarantine, matters concerning mental diseases, matters concerning the hygiene in connection with venereal and other diseases detrimental to survival of the race. (4) Bureau of Social Affairs ; matters concerning social welfare measures and institutions, matters concerning relief and free medical

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treatment, matters concerning military relief, matters concerning the protection of mothers, infants and children, matters relating to other social welfare works, matters concerning employment exchange and supply and demand of labour. (5) Bureau of Labour; matters concerning labour conditions, matters concerning labour hygiene in factories and mines, matters concerning the general control of affairs in connection with the International Labour Organization, other matters relating to labour. (6) Board of Insurance; (a) Section of General Affairs, matters concerning personnel, documents and accounts, matters concerning actuarial work, matters concerning the planning of social insurance and post office life insurance systems and the planning and general control of hygienic measures for the insured, similar matters not coming under the jurisdiction of other governmental institutions, (b) Section of Social Insurance, matters concerning health insurance, accident relief liability insurance for labourers and other systems of social insurance, (c) Section of Post Office Life Insurance, matters concerning post office life insurance and annuities.

The Privy Council

The Privy Council is a consultative body to advise the Emperor on questions of grave importance. The Council is composed of one President, one Vice-President (non-voting) and 24 Councillors. All the Councillors are officials of shinnin (highest) rank. All these members are appointed by the Emperor on the advice of the Prime Minister. Cabinet Ministers are entitled by virtue of their office to sit in the Privy Council as councillors and have the right to vote. Princes of the Blood who have attained their majority and are resident in Tokyo can sit in the Council under the same conditions.

The questions that are to be submitted to the Privy Council for deliberation cover :

(1) All matters that fall within its jurisdiction according to the provisions of the Imperial House Law.

(2) All matters concerning interpretation of the provisions of the Constitution and laws and ordinances supplementary thereto.

(3) Proclamation of Martial Law under Article 14 of the Constitution, Imperial ordinances under Article 8 and Article 70, and any other Imperial ordinance which has a disciplinary clause.

(4) Treaties and all other international pledges.

(5) All matters involving an amendment in the organization and procedure regulations of the Privy Council.

(6) Other matters submitted to the Council by the Emperor.

Though the Privy Council is thus the highest consultative organ of the Emperor in important matters of State, it has nothing to do with the actual government administration.

Ministers Outside the Cabinet

There are two important offices of a quasi-administrative character of which the holders are styled "Daijin" (Minister). These "Ministers" are not members of the Cabinet and do not change with the Government.

The Office of the Grand Keeper of the Imperial Seals is generally regarded as the senior of these offices. Its holder has the duty of keeping the Imperial Seal and the Seal of State, and of supervising secretarial work in connection with Imperial Edicts and Rescripts and other documents of the Imperial Court. The other office is that of Minister of the Imperial Household Department. The Minister is in charge of all business concerning the Imperial Household. (Consult the chapter on Imperial Court for fuller information as to their duties.)

The Board of Audit

The Board of Audit is provided for by Article 72 of the Constitution and is on an equal footing with the Ministers of State. It is composed of a president, three divisional chiefs and 12 inspectors, who are appointed by the Emperor on the advice of the Prime Minister, but cannot be dismissed, transferred or placed on the retired list except by effect of either a criminal or a disciplinary trial.

The function of the Board is to audit accounts of the central government and other corporate bodies, public or private, receiving government subsidies or guarantees.

The Court of Administrative Litigation

The law of 1890 which established this Court is envisaged in Article 61 of the Constitution. The Court is entirely distinct from ordinary judicial courts and its function is to decide on the validity of administrative acts. The Court is not interfered with by the Government. According to the law the Court of Administrative Litigation is to be located in Tokyo and no local court established. It is composed of a President and 11 Counsellors. Its members are appointed by the Emperor on the advice of the

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Prime Minister and are not to be removed, suspended from office or deprived of position, without their consent. This is exactly the same as with ordinary judges (see Chapter XXVII), but the differences are that the former's position is not for life, while the latter's is and that there is no institution of the retiring age for the former. The present head of the Court is Dr. Hyoji Futakami.

The Court passes on cases relating to (1) the levying of taxes and fees except the customs tariff; (2) dispositions for the recovery of taxes in arrears, (3) the prohibition or suspension of business, (4) water-ways and public works, and (5) fixing the boundary between the Government and private owned lands.

An appeal is immediately taken by the Court and the decision on it is given by a majority vote of the council of more than 5. The decision is the first, and at the same time, final.

Government Officials

Civil officials are divided into four ranks according to their grade of merits, education and ability, and their salaries differ accordingly. The four ranks are: (1) Shinnin rank, appointed by His Majesty directly, (2) Chokunin rank, appointed by His Majesty's order indirectly, (3) Sonin rank, appointed by His Majesty's approval, and (4) Hannin rank of minor officials appointed by the heads of different offices.

At the end of 1937, civil officials who received salaries from the State Treasury numbered 159,877 in total, their salaries amounting to ¥190,788,126, of which officials of shinnin and chokunin rank numbered 1,786 with an aggregate salary of ¥9,088,915 a year, officials of sonin rank 16,194 with ¥42,048,598, and officials of hannin rank 141,811 with ¥110,764,448. The average salary of officials of chokunin rank was ¥5,089 a year, that of officials of sonin rank ¥2,596 and that of officials of hannin rank ¥781.

As to the number of officials of chokunin, sonin, and hannin ranks classified according to departments, the Department of Railways had the largest with 38,074, which was followed by 36,323 of the Department of Communications, 17,339 of the Government-General of Chosen and 15,228 of the Department of Finance. Departments other than those given above had less than 10,000 each, viz. the Department of Justice had 8,975, the Department of Education 8,186, the Government-General of Taiwan 6,921, the Department of Agriculture and Forestry 4,438, the Home Department 2,923, Department of War 2,806, Bureau of Kwantung Leased Territory 1,870, the Department of Commerce and Industry 1,590, the Department of Marine 1,898, the Government of Saghalien Island 1,395 and the Department of Foreign Affairs 1,183. Other Departments had less than 1,000 each. Among prefectural offices, Hokkaido Office had 1,430, Tokyo Metropolitan Police Office had 309, and all other prefectures together 9,232. Each prefectural government office had 200 on the average.

Number and total amount of salaries paid to civil officials of the Government in the past 10 years follow:

Year	Number	Salary
1928	128,792	¥156,572,037
1929	134,831	163,745,391
1930	126,995	160,265,485
1931	134,537	160,644,249
1932	130,988	157,688,618
1933	132,987	159,579,259
1934	135,692	163,333,026
1935	142,543	170,419,940
1936	148,984	176,848,499
1937	159,877	190,788,126

Note:—The number of the other employees was 328,110, the wages paid to them amounting to ¥179,197,235.

The Imperial Diet

The Parliamentary system could not develop in Japan before the Meiji Restoration because politics was controlled by the Samurai class for hundreds of years. Thus, the Imperial Diet was established solely according to the pattern of Western countries. In accordance with the promise contained in the Charter Oath of the Emperor Meiji, councils or assemblies of various kinds were established at the beginning of the Meiji Era, but their members were not elected by the people and consequently they were of a different nature from the parliaments of the West. In 1881 it was promised to convoke a National Assembly within 10 years, and the Imperial Diet on Western lines was first opened in 1890.

The Diet is much limited in its power and the duration of its sessions, but in its fundamental nature it has much in common with the national assemblies of Western countries. According to Art. 5 of the Constitution, the legislative power belongs to the Emperor and the Diet's function is only to give (or presumably withhold) consent to legislation proposed by the Throne. But this is a formality, and the Diet has almost the same power of legislation, including that

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of initiative as the parliaments of other civilized nations. At the same time, the Diet, in virtue of its being an assembly of representatives, has been invested with the power of supervising the administrative organs, as represented by the State ministers. It is a bicameral legislature, consisting of the House of Peers and the House of Representatives, and the decisions which are harmoniously made by both Houses are the decisions of the Imperial Diet.

The House of Peers The House of Peers is composed of the Imperial Princes, Peers, and the Imperial nominees, according to the provisions of the House of Peers Ordinance. This Ordinance was promulgated at the same time as the Constitution and has been revised several times since. In 1925, important revisions were made, the number of the peerage members being lessened while that of the representatives of the wealthy people was increased, also there was an addition of representatives of the Imperial Academy. Thus the former majority of peerage members was brought to an end and their number became equal to that of members chosen by Imperial order.

According to the present House of Peers Ordinance, the House is composed of the following members :

(a) all the Imperial Princes above 20 years of age, and the Kotaishi and Kotaison, if above 18.

(b) all Princes and Marquises above 30 years of age, with the term of office for life.

(c) 18 Counts, 66 Viscounts and 66 Barons elected by the Peers of their respective ranks. They must be above 30 years of age and their term of office is 7 years.

(d) Imperial nominees from among statesmen and scholars who have made valuable contributions to politics or science. They must be above 30 years of age: their term of office is for life. Their number must not exceed 125.

(e) 4 members of the Imperial Academy, elected by the members thereof and nominated by the Emperor. Their term of office is 7 years.

(f) Members elected by and from among the highest tax-payers, in any prefecture, in direct national taxation on land, income and business profits. Each member represents 100 such high tax-payers, his age must be above 30, and his term of service is 7 years. The number of this class of members must not exceed 66.

The House of Peers, therefore, consists of 150 Counts, Viscounts, and Barons, 195 representatives of statesmen, scholars and wealthy businessmen, and a certain number of Imperial Princes, Princes and Marquises, the number of the last named not being fixed for obvious reasons. The present (December 24, 1938) total of the members of the House of Peers was 413.

The House of Representatives The House of Representatives is composed of members elected by the people in accordance with the provisions of the Electoral Law. This Law was first promulgated simultaneously with the enactment of the Constitution in 1886, and has undergone many minor revisions since. Important revisions were made in 1900, 1919 and 1925. The Law of 1889 required yearly payment of direct national tax of ¥15 as a qualification for both candidates and voters, and prescribed the system of small constituencies and the open ballot. In 1900, the requirement of tax payment was removed in the case of candidates and lowered to 10 yen voters. Constituencies were divided into two classes municipal and rural, making each city an independent district and each prefecture one district; and the secret ballot was adopted. In 1919, the tax requirement was again lowered to 3 yen and the old small constituency system revived. In 1925, the male universal suffrage system was finally adopted, the division of municipal and rural districts was abolished, and a system of constituencies electing from 3 to 5 representatives each was established.

The universal suffrage of Japan is restricted as yet in comparison with that of Western countries, as to sex, age, residence and the conditions of eligibility. Women are totally ineligible and the age qualification for male voters is 25. The Electoral Law itself says nothing of the restriction on residence, but the list of voters must be made by Sept. 15 of the year previous to that of the general election and only persons who have lived a minimum period of one year in the same city, town or commune are eligible for inclusion. The Law also contains provisions for withholding the right to vote from criminals, legally disabled persons, such as bankrupts, etc., actual holders of a peerage, persons engaged in the active combative services.

Candidates must be 30 years of age; otherwise their qualifications are the same as those for voters, except that of residence. The number of the members of the House of Representatives was 460, vacancies 6, on December 24, 1938.

According to the relevant articles of the Constitution, the Diet has power over all affairs of state which belong to the responsibility of the State Ministers.

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There is, however, a working but not complete separation of the legislative and executive powers between the Diet and the Ministers. There are certain statutory limitations of the Diet's power to control the executive. The Imperial Diet must not interfere with matters pertaining to the Imperial House. Except in regard to matters within the Diet itself, it can neither use the power of administration directly upon the people nor represent the State vis-à-vis foreign nations.

Fixed Number of Lower House Representatives and Number of Votes at Recent General Elections

Date of Election	Representatives	Voters
March, 1904	379	757,788
May, 1908	379	1,582,676
May, 1912	381	1,503,650
March, 1915	381	1,546,341
April, 1917	381	1,422,118
May, 1920	464	3,069,787
May, 1924	464	3,288,368
Feb., 1928	466	12,409,078
Feb., 1930	466	12,813,192
Feb., 1932	466	13,095,621
Feb., 1936	466	14,479,553
April, 1937	466	13,938,456

Function of the Diet The Diet has five functions, namely, constituent, legislative, financial, general supervision of the administration, and executive on matters in the Diet itself.

(1) The constituent power of the Diet is confined to deliberation on constitutional amendment initiated by the Throne. Action can only be taken by a two-thirds majority of a quorum of two-thirds of the membership of both Houses, as provided for in Article 73 of the Constitution.

(2) The Emperor exercises the legislative power with the consent of the Imperial Diet, all laws and legislative ordinances must obtain that consent. Bills may be presented by the Diet itself as well as by the Government. The right of consent of course contains the rights of amendment and rejection. This right is subject only to the condition that the Diet's action does not contravene the Constitution, the Imperial House Law, and international law. Thus the power of legislative "consent" contains within it that of initiative. Legislative ordinances promulgated by the Emperor must be submitted to the Diet at the next session for approval or rejection but not amendment.

The legislative authority of the two Houses is equal in theory, and projects of law may be initiated in either. Naturally, therefore, no legislative enactment is complete without the consent of both Houses to all its provisions.

(3) The national budget must get the consent of the Diet. The budget is presented by the Government first to the Houses of Representatives, but consent to it must be accorded by both Houses. Article 70 of the Constitution, however, empowers the Government to take all necessary financial measures by Imperial Ordinance, and Article 71 empowers it, if the Diet has not voted on the budget or if the budget "has not been brought into actual existence" to carry out the budget of the previous year. National loans must obtain the consent of the Diet. All contracts outside the budget which involve state financial liability must also be approved by the Diet. Any disbursement of public money by the Government made without the Diet's consent between sessions must be submitted for approval at the earliest opportunity. The restrictions of the Diet's financial power, other than those mentioned above, are clearly stipulated in Article 67 of the Constitution. It is to be noted that the Budget as a project of administrative action is confined to expenditure. Revenue is determined by law, so that the Diet's control thereof comes within its general legislative competence.

(4) The responsibility of Ministers, collective or individual, to the Diet is not clearly established either in law or custom, but so far as the responsibilities of Ministers are concerned, the Diet clearly has a certain supervisory power. The Government can do what it wishes without the consent of the Diet in its administrative function, but the Houses can express independently of each other their judgement on what the Government has done. They may present written appeals to the Emperor against the actions of State Ministers. They can make proposals by resolution to the Government concerning administration. They may receive petitions from the people (the only function of the Diet to keep a direct contact with the people), and if these concern administrative matters, they are handed to the Government with the opinion thereon of the Houses to which they were addressed. The Houses may also pass resolutions on important state matters which are not addressed to the Government directly, but which, being made public as they are, naturally have an effect on the Government's popularity if they contain adverse criticisms. In these

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ways the Diet subjects the Government to a limited measure of control.

The Diet has the right of investigating the conduct of the administration, although this is very narrowly limited and rarely used. The Diet has the right of making inquiries on the responsibilities of the Ministers, the right of receiving reports from the Government on the income and disbursements of the National Treasury, on the handling of petitions sent in by the people through the Houses, and on serious diplomatic questions, unless they are such as require absolute secrecy.

(5) The Houses of the Diet have the right of self-government as to the regulations of their own Houses, on the procedures of session, on the police system in the Houses. The House of Peers has also the right to be consulted by the Emperor as to the privileges of peers.

The Diet is convoked annually by the Emperor (under Article 41 of the Constitution) for a period of ordinary session of 90 days. This period may be prolonged if necessary by Imperial Order. Extraordinary sessions can be convened in the same way. The annual session is usually called at the end of the year, although there is no regulation to this effect in the Constitution, and continued to the end of the following March, so that the budget can be voted before the new fiscal year begins. The Emperor may give orders to open or close the Diet; or suspend the session for a certain number of days for negotiations between the Diet and the Government or the two Houses; or dissolve the House of Representatives. All these actions are taken on the advice of the Prime Minister.

Officials of the Houses Each House has a President and Vice-President. The President not only presides and keeps order during the sessions but also directs the business of the House between sessions. The manner of appointment of the officers differs in the two Houses. In the House of Peers, they are appointed by the Emperor from among its members for a term of 7 years, the House itself having nothing to do with the appointment. In the House of Representatives, the House chooses three candidates for each of these positions and the Emperor makes the appointments from among the candidates. Their term of office is that of the life of the House.

There is an Official Bureau attached to each of the Houses, and officials such as the Chief Secretary, secretaries, stenographers, and the chief sergeant are appointed by the Government, although they act under the orders of the respective House Presidents. Several things in the Japanese parliamentary system have been copied from the British and this official bureau is one of them.

The House of Peers has five and the House of Representatives four standing committees, and special committees are appointed when the need arises. Each House may sit as a committee of the whole for which chairmen are elected at the beginning of the session. The procedure of discussions and resolutions is similar to that customary in the English-speaking countries.

Local Government

The units of local government are four: the prefecture, the city, the town, and the commune.

The Prefecture Japan proper, except Hokkaido, is administratively divided into 3 urban prefectures and 43 prefectures which are administered by governors. The function of the governor is to be the highest local administrative organ of state, and, at the same time, the head of the prefecture as a unit of local self-government. He is directly controlled by the Ministers of State and takes charge of the general national administration within his prefecture. In a prefecture all administrative business is unified under the control of the governor who supervises every kind of administrative work in the district according to the orders of the Premier and Ministers of the Central Government. Thus, the scope of his function is quite large and complicated. The appointment and dismissal of governors is made by the Minister of Home Affairs.

The system of prefectural government has undergone several changes and the nature of the work done is not necessarily the same in all the prefectures, but it is common, at present, to divide the duties into three divisions, namely, the Home Affairs Division, the Educational Division and the Police Division. Some prefectures have an Engineering Division.

As a unit of local self-government the prefecture stands between the state and the municipalities. It has a prefectural assembly and a prefectural council as organs for decision, but the right of decision of these organs is much narrower than that of the city assembly and council, while the chief executive is the governor who is officially appointed by the Central Government.

The prefectural Assembly is elected by universal suffrage, and the number of

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members is fixed by the law. Membership of the assembly is honorary and the term of service is four years.

The Prefectural Council is composed of 10 members elected by and from among the assemblymen. The Governor is ex-officio chairman of the council, which is in fact a standing committee of the assembly, although entrusted with certain functions of arbitration which are not specifically devolved from the larger body.

Hokkaido is not divided into prefectural districts, but is itself an administrative unit as a whole, under a governor, although it covers an area of 88,775.04 square kilometres and is thus many times as large as most of the perfectures. The Governor is controlled by the Minister of Home Affairs directly and his function and duties are mostly the same as those of a prefectural governor. The special features of his function are that he undertakes colonization work, that as there is no national forestry law applied to the district the administration of forestry is left altogether in his power, and that he has to take care of the native Ainu according to the Protection Law for the Hokkaido Natives. The Hokkaido office is divided into five divisions, namely, Home Affairs, Education, Civil Engineering, Colonization and Police. The organization and rights of the Hokkaido Assembly and Council are almost the same as those of similar bodies in the prefectures. (On the governmental system of the Colonies see Chapters XL-XLIII.)

The Municipality (City, Town, Village) On April 1, 1937 there were 141 cities, 1,707 towns and 9,568 villages in Japan proper. (A village here means an administrative unit composed of a village or villages.)

There was some measure of local self-government in old Japan. The heads of villages were chosen from among the villagers and were asked to rule over them. For some time after the Meiji Restoration, these customs were continued, although the official names of the heads of villages were changed. Moreover, towns and villages were allowed to exercise the right of managing public affairs with their own money as financial units. But it was with the formation of prefectural assemblies according to the new laws issued in July, 1878, that the local self-government of Japan began to assume a modern form. The self-government system of cities, towns and communes has been several times revised, the last revision being that of 1929.

There were formerly several restrictions on citizenship of the local communities, but according to the laws now in force every man is entitled to it in virtue of the male universal suffrage principle. The requirements of citizenship are about the same as those for the right to vote in parliamentary elections. Every male inhabitant of and over 25 years of age who has resided for a minimum period of two years in the same municipality is a citizen of the same and has the right to vote or to be elected and, at the same time, has the duty of accepting any honorary post of service to which he may be elected.

The organs of local self-government are the assemblies of the representatives and the chiefs of the municipalities. The fixed minimum number of representatives in these assemblies is 30 in the cities and 12 in the towns and communes. The cities have also councils of ten members elected by and from among the assemblymen.

The Mayor of a city is a salaried official while the corresponding posts in a town or commune are honorary in principle. Mayors are elected by their respective assemblies for a term of four years. Their function and responsibilities are diverse, for they not only administer the affairs of the municipalities but also handle matters delegated to them by the central and prefectural governments and are entrusted with the supervision of some public bodies. As servants of the central government they take charge of the census register and all the business related to it, the election of the members of the Lower House, several kinds of national investigation, public engineering, public hygiene, relief work, educational supervision and encouragement, and certain work under the Conscription Law. This work is done without consulting the local assemblies, but simply as entrusted by the respective national officials.

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CHAPTER V

PARTIES AND POLITICS

Pre-party Cabinet Period

Japan's modern political life fairly started with the promulgation of the Constitution on February 11, 1889, and the opening of the Diet on November 25, 1890. The Imperial Edict for opening the national assembly within ten years was issued (see Chapter III) on October 12, 1881.

Party Formation Upon the issuance of the Imperial Edict parties began to be formed with a view to be prepared for the opening of the Diet. On October 18, 1881, the colleagues and comrades of Taisuké Itagaki drafted the rules of the new Jiyu-to Party and elected Itagaki President and N. Nakajima Vice-President at a preparatory meeting which was held at Asakusa, Tokyo. The governing principle of this party was that of Rousseau's social contract.

The next great party to be organized was the Kaishin-to. It came into being in March, 1882, with Shigenobu Okuma as President. The leading thought of this party was English liberalism, and it aimed at a healthy, mild policy with the educated class of people as its central constituency. It was, therefore, natural that the Kaishin-to won the sympathy of the intelligentsia of the cities, while the Jiyu-to got a hold on the people in the country districts, where the inhabitants were peasants who sympathized with more radical political thought because of their long sufferings under the feudal governments. Many parties were born contemporaneously. Besides the Kaishin-to and the Jiyu-to, 40 other parties, mostly local, were said to have been formed.

The first Ito Cabinet, which was organized in 1885 was not, of course, connected with any political party.[1]

The First Election The Jiyu-to was once dissolved into smaller groups, and the first general election was carried out on July 1, 1890, amid a general confusion of political parties. Its result, so far as the political parties were concerned was as follows:

Daido Club 55, Kaishin-to 46, Patriotic Public Party 35, Conservative Party 22, Kyushu Association 21, Jiyu-to 17, Jichi-to 17, Officials 18, neutrals 69, independents 2.

This result presented a grave problem to the political parties, for none had a clear majority in the House of Representatives, so various amalgamations were effected before the opening of the first session of the Imperial Diet, and when it opened on November 25, 1890, the classification of the 300 members became as follows :

The Rikken-Jiyu-to (or Constitutional Liberal Party) 130, the Rikken-Kaishin-to (or Constitutional Progressive Party) 41, Taisei-kai 79, National Liberal Party 5, and outsiders 45. The first two were anti-government parties, while the second two were pro-government. The remaining 45 were neutral.

The House of Peers consisted of 252 members, classification being as follows : 10 Imperial Princes, 10 Princes, 21 Marquises, 15 Counts, 70 Viscounts, 20 Barons, 45 High-Tax-Payers, and 61 "Chokusen," i. e. those nominated by Imperial order.

According to the report of K. Suematsu, Director of the Prefectural Bureau, Home Ministry, on the first election on July 1, 1890, the number of voters was 450,365 in all Japan of which abstention was but 6.1 per cent.

Franchise was given only to those who paid national tax of more than ¥15 a year and the prefecture which had the greatest percentage of voters as against the number of population was Shiga prefecture with 2 in every 100 of population, while Osaka and 25 prefectures had more than 1, and all other prefectures had less than 1, Tokyo standing lowest with 0.38. At that time Shiga was the richest prefecture, and Tokyo had but a small number of landowners who comprised most of the voters in the election in the previous century when Japan's industrialization was in its infancy and the accumulation of wealth in cities was just beginning.

Of the 300 members elected, 109, or one-third, was of the samurai class. As to the rate of representation Shizoku or

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1 For the political movement before the issuance of the Imperial Edict see the Japan Year Book, 1933.

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the samurai class sent 1 person in every 18,132 to the House of Representatives while Heimin or the common people sent 1 person in every 207,438. The number of people of the samurai class was 1,976,480, while that of the common people was 37,630,754 out of Japan's total population of 39,607,234 in 1890.

The average age of members was 42.3 classified as follows :

Age	No. of members
31	7
32–37	85
38–43	99
44–47	40
48–61	59
Above 62	10

The average age was more than 10 years younger than that of the members of the House in the 17th election in 1930, which was 52.6. Several reasons may account for this change, but probably the strongest was that, political questions rather than business enterprises held by far the greater attraction for the ambitious men in their thirties and forties, for politics was almost the sole topic of national interest at the time of the first election. Another reason is in the natural increase of the age of old members who have been elected many times.

The first platform of the Constitutional Liberal Party was : (1) To maintain the sacredness of the Imperial House and to extend the rights of the people, (2) To oppose such policies as might interfere with the individual freedom of the people in home affairs, and to conclude treaties on equal terms in foreign affairs, (3) To realize parliamentary government and organize a party cabinet. And with these ideals the party men waged a fight for the establishment of a real parliamentary government. The number of anti-government members in the Lower House far exceeded that of the pro-government, and the bureaucratic Yamagata Cabinet feared for its very existence. Hostilities between the two started with the choice of the President of the House of Representatives and continued over the first budget subjected to the discussion of the House. The budget amounting to ¥83,075,000 was cut down to ¥75,194,300, or about 9% reduction. But the first session of the Imperial Diet was closed in March, 1891, without dissolution.

Itagaki's Party Suffers The party which suffered most from the poison of secret governmental control was the Constitutional Liberal Party, and they held a general meeting at Osaka immediately after the first session of the Diet. At the meeting, Itagaki, who had retired when the party had been once dissolved, was again chosen President, its name was made simpler by cutting away the first word "Constitutional," and the unity of its members was strengthened. The Matsukata Cabinet was formed in May of the same year ; its head was as strong a foe to political parties as Yamagata, if not more so. Then there occurred, on May 11, 1891, the attack of a murderous fanatic on the Crown Prince of Russia at Otsu near Lake Biwa and a great earthquake wrought fearful destruction in Gifu and Aichi prefectures ; the Government was unable to cope with these emergencies while it was discredited in its policy against the parties.

Matsukata Cabinet Falls The second session of the Imperial Diet was convoked on Nov. 21, 1891, in a menacing atmosphere from the outset, and was finally dissolved on Dec. 25. The general election of Feb. 15, 1892, was carried out under extreme interference of the Government. Shinagawa, Minister of Home Affairs, ruled the local governors with an iron hand and used every measure for obtaining as many pro-governmental members as possible, the freedom of the vote being completely trodden underfoot. It was reported that 25 persons were killed and 388 were injured in this savage struggle. The result was, however, the victory of the anti-governmental party men, who numbered 163 against 137 of the pro-governmental. The unconstitutional policy of the Home Minister provoked the indignation of the people and Ito, President of the Privy Council, and compelled the Cabinet to change the Home Minister, and caused a discord among Cabinet members. The House of Representatives passed a vote of non-confidence in the third session, although the stubborn Matsukata Cabinet clung to its position in defiance of it.

But the Cabinet fell to pieces from within, right after the third session of the Diet, and the second Ito Cabinet was formed in August, 1892. It was Ito who drafted the Constitution and stood aloof from the political parties, although he later became the President of the Jiyu-to or the Liberal Party himself. And the Ito Cabinet cleverly managed the fourth session of the Diet which threatened a collision between the Cabinet and the Diet over the question of the Budget. But the Cabinet was taken to task by the Diet over the misbehaviour of some Ministers and the fifth

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session was dissolved without any reason given on Jan. 30, 1894. At the third general election which occurred on March 1, 1894, the Ito Cabinet took a very fair attitude because Ito was always anxious to be or at least to seem constitutional. Its outcome was again disadvantageous to the Government, and the sixth session, which was convoked on May 12, 1894 was dissolved on June 2 because of the non-confidence resolution on the last dissolution and the diplomatic inability of the Government. It may be remarked here that Tsuyoshi Inukai, the late Premier, appeared on the surface of the political world for the first time at this session. He was a member of the Lower House from the beginning and had organized a progressive party of his own a little before this, but his motion of wholesale non-confidence was the first occasion that his earnestness and sincerity for the maintenance of parliamentary authority began to show itself.

The Sino-Japanese War The interval between the sixth and seventh sessions was but half a year, yet it was marked by many important political and diplomatic affairs. The Sino-Japanese War, 1894–1895, broke out in July, 1894. The general election was carried out on September 1 of the same year. The seventh session had been expected to witness a repeated collision of the Diet and the Government, but the first international war drew all the attention of the people and the session closed peacefully after lasting but four days instead of a week as fixed, on the 22nd of October, 1894, at Hiroshima, where the Emperor was staying during the war to command the Imperial Army and Navy. All parties were united for the national cause and supported the Government with one accord, and the military emergency budget amounting to ¥150,000,000 was immediately passed without any reduction. All the political conflicts at home were stilled in the face of the international war and the eighth session convoked on Dec. 22, 1894, was quietly carried out. The peace treaty with China was sanctioned on March 20, 1895. But the interference of the Three Powers on the lease of the Liaotung Peninsula aroused indignation throughout Japan, and this feeling soon centred in an attack on the Government.

A Political Bloc The Kaishin-to, Kakushin-to, People's Association, Chugoku Progressive Party, Financial Kakushin-to and Ohté Club were united in criticizing the Government's weak diplomacy, and formed a union called the Central Representative Club. The Liberal Party did not join the Club, because it had come to some understanding with the Government, and had a special connection with Ito, who gradually had drawn nearer to this political party. Just before the 9th session the Liberal Party took off its mask and openly declared its coalition with the Ito Cabinet. This was the first instance of a political party being publicly united with the Government.

The Progressive Party Ito's policy was a success and the 9th session ended in the victory of the Government by the faithful support of the Liberal Party. The defeated parties recognized the need of a stronger union and on March 1, 1896, the Kaishin-to, Kakushin-to and three other bodies dissolved themselves and organized the Shimpo-to or Progressive Party under Okuma. The platform of the new party was to exalt the sacredness of the Imperial House and to advance the rights and welfare of the people, (1) by establishing a responsible cabinet with the removal of political evils, (2) by enlarging the national power with the renovation of diplomacy, and (3) by developing private enterprises with the readjustment of the financial policy.

Since then the Liberal Party and the Progressive Party, as the two greatest political parties in the country, became rivals. The members of the Lower House, by party grouping, were as follows at the end of March: the Liberal Party 110, the Progressive Party 100, People's Association 32, Yamaguchi Group 5, Kishu Group 4, unaffiliated 49.

Itagaki Joins Ito After the 9th session, Itagaki of the Liberal Party entered the Ito Cabinet and took the post of Home Minister. The Ito Cabinet was in power three full years and managed numerous political matters of importance but it collapsed in August, 1896, mainly because of the difficulty of making the Budget meet the post-war financial need. The Matsukata Cabinet which came next was a coalition of Matsukata's Satsuma clan and Okuma's Progressive Party, for these two characters were most fitted to manage the financial difficulty of the country. This cabinet took a very progressive policy in removing long existing political evils and financial defects and its activity was welcomed with much expectation. But the Liberal Party, now in opposition, was ready to make attacks against the Cabinet which contained Okuma, their political enemy. The tenth session which was convoked on Dec. 25, 1896, passed off with little trouble for

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the Government, although the Liberal Party attacked it on the score of its foreign diplomacy. It is to the credit of the Matsukata Cabinet that it established the gold standard of national currency.

Exit Okuma Okuma, Foreign Minister, resigned in November, 1897, and the relation between the Cabinet and his party was severed. Matsukata now endeavoured to get the support of the Liberal Party but in vain, and the Cabinet faced the 11th session of the Diet without any assistance from political parties. A non-confidence resolution was proposed by 38 members in the session and seconded by 150. On Dec. 25, 1897, the Lower House was suddenly dissolved, but the Cabinet itself resigned in miserable defeat. Ito was ordered to form a cabinet for the third time, and it was again a transcendental one. The 12th session was begun on May 14, 1898. The Government proposed an increase of taxes on land, saké, and incomes, but was defeated by an absolute majority of 247, and the House was dissolved in revenge. This action of the Government, however, greatly stimulated the development of anti-governmental parties and brought about an extraordinary political phenomenon. It was but a faint herald of the dawn of party government, but it gave a real shock for the first time to the foundations of the clan and bureaucratic forces in Japanese politics. Both the Liberals and the Progressives had had a very hard time in the past to wage war against clan statesmen and bureaucracy, but in most cases they had been treated by the latter like mere instruments for accomplishing their own purposes. Now they came to their senses and saw that their real foes were these same clansmen and bureaucrats who monopolized the government, and that their first aim must be the destruction of them. On June 21, 1898, both parties held final meetings simultaneously and dissolved themselves, and on the 22nd they all met at the Shintomi Theatre, Tsukiji, Tokyo, and amalgamated themselves into a new party, the Kenseikai, or Constitutional Party, to put an end to bureaucratic government and to establish a party government.

The Kenseikai and Ito All the elder statesmen, clan and bureaucratic bodies were alarmed in the extreme by this organization of the Constitutional Party. A meeting was called before the Emperor on the 24th and a hot discussion on counter measures against the power of the party was continued for several hours. Ito asserted that there were but three ways for him to meet the situation: either to form a governmental party himself to carry on the government, or to resign first and form a party to support the Government from outside, or lastly to surrender altogether before the Constitutional Party and let them organize a cabinet with Okuma and Itagaki at their head. Yamagata of the Nagato or Choshu clan was firmly opposed to this proposal and declared, "It is against the Japanese Constitution to establish a cabinet upon a party foundation; let us quit the Constitution for the time being if necessary to meet the critical moment!" On June 27, 1898, however, Okuma and Itagaki were finally called to the Imperial Court and ordered to form a cabinet. A coalition cabinet was thus formed on the 30th of that month, all the posts except those of Navy and War Ministers being filled by party men. Its composition was as follows:

Premier and Minister of Foreign Affairs, Okuma (Progressive); Home Minister, Itagaki (Liberal); Minister of Finance, Matsuda (Liberal); Minister of Justice, Daito (Progressive); Minister of Education, Ozaki (Progressive); Minister of Communications, Hayashi (Liberal); Minister of Agriculture and Commerce, Oishi (Progressive); Minister of War, Katsura (Choshu clan); and Minister of the Navy, Saigo (Satsuma clan).

It was, however, a combination of antagonistic forces for convenience' sake, and the partisans soon began to quarrel among themselves, so that the Constitutional Party, which tried to advance too quickly, soon split up again into the former Liberal and Progressive Parties, largely by the tactics of Toru Hoshi, who played an influential part in politics as a member of the Liberal Party, and was assassinated later in a room of the Tokyo City Hall. So the first party cabinet was compelled to dissolve without meeting a session of the Diet on Oct. 31, 1898, within four months of its formation.

Yamagata Returns Now came the turn of bureaucracy again, under Yamagata of the Nagato or Choshu clan (these two Japanese words indicate the same Nagato province at the south-western end of the Main Island), in November, 1898. Yamagata had had bitter experience with political parties and this time he succeeded in getting the support of the Liberal Party (which called itself Kenseito as yet) and handled the 13th session of the Diet as he wished, many important revisions of the national laws being made.

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and the military preparations being enlarged by raising the taxes on many important items.

It was during the life of this cabinet that the new treaties which had been concluded with foreign nations at the time of the former Ito Cabinet were put into force, and Japan came to stand on an equal footing with the other civilized countries of the world politically and diplomatically. This was on July 17, 1899. The Yamagata Cabinet accomplished great feats in the administration of complicated and extensive political affairs after the Sino-Japanese War, and laid the foundations for the future development of Japan. But as a representative of the old bureaucracy, a survivor of the discarded clan officials, he left many bureaucratic traces in the law and the governmental system by establishing the rule that the posts of War and Navy Ministers can be held only by officers on the active list, and by enlarging the power of the Privy Council, which hindered the healthy development of political parties in later days.

Satisfied with his own performance in the enlargement of military preparations, completion of laws and institutions in general, revision of the election law, improvement of local governments, and advancement in the educational system and institutions, Yamagata tendered his resignation to the Throne in September, 1900.

Ito Forms the Seiyukai A little before that, Ito returned from his tour of China and wanted to organize a powerful political party himself, and the Liberal Party was anxious to get him to revive its power after its separation from the Yamagata Cabinet. The party wished to put Ito at its head, while Ito wanted to organize a party purely of his own without the help of any existing party. But the general trend of political affairs at this time finally compelled these two to become united into one, and the Liberal Party was renewed by Ito, assuming a new name, Rikken Seiyukai, or Constitutional Party, on Sept. 15, 1900. On Oct. 9, 1900, Ito formed a cabinet for the fourth time, and it was welcomed by the party men and the people at large, but the reactionary movement of the House of Peers shortened its life, and Ito never again had an opportunity for organizing a cabinet, although he had much to do yet for national politics, especially in the field of Korean affairs.

The Katsura Cabinet On June 2, 1901, General Katsura formed his cabinet upon the basis of bureaucracy again. Katsura and the members of his Cabinet were rather young compared with those of the preceding cabinets, and the Elder Statesmen were anxious about their ability, but Katsura was quick to see the unrest in the Seiyukai and immediately took steps to control it for the convenience of the Government. In this he succeeded fairly well, and the 16th session of the Diet passed off in peace, at the beginning of the year 1902, winning, at the same time, the general applause of the people on the conclusion of the Anglo-Japanese Alliance on Feb. 12, 1902. The 7th general election was held on Aug. 10, 1902, in which the number of the Lower House members was enlarged from 300 to 376, and as the result the Seiyukai gained 189 seats, the Kensei-honto (Progressive Party) 104, the Empire Party 18, the San-shi Club 7, and independents 58. As is always the case with a bureaucratic cabinet, even this clever and skilled tactician met with strong opposition from the Elder Statesmen and the two great parties over the problem of raising funds for naval expansion by increasing the land tax, and the 17th session was dissolved because of a direct collision between the Lower House and the Katsura Cabinet. It did not end in the victory of the Government, but Katsura again made a painstaking effort to utilize parties, and found a way out in the 18th session by changing his policy from raising the land tax to floating a public loan to obtain the necessary means for the proposed naval extension.

Saionji Succeeds Ito The Katsura Cabinet had been in power over two years already and the general atmosphere suggested a change when the threatening state of affairs in Manchuria was further complicated by the aggressive policy of the Russian Government. Katsura was ordered to stay at his post although he tendered his resignation, largely because of the pressure of Ito, who was a Genro (see Chapter IV, Government, for the meaning of "Genro") and the head of the Seiyukai at the same time. According to the advice of Yamagata and Matsukata, who were also Genro, Ito and Saionji exchanged positions and President Ito of the Seiyukai was appointed President of the Privy Council; while Saionji, President of the Council, succeeded Ito as President of the Seiyukai.

Saionji is the only remaining Genro at present. He was a progressive statesman, and it was his earnest desire to see a pure party cabinet come into existence. He had been many times suggested as Premier but had always re-

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fused, as he considered it unreasonable and bureaucratic to form a cabinet with no backing in the House of Representatives, so he gladly accepted this proposal of the Seiyukai and made great efforts for the revival of the party, which had shrunk to 120 from its absolute majority of 193 at the beginning of the 18th session largely because of long inner disturbances.

At the same time, the rival party Kensei-honto was also experiencing the same kind of internal troubles because of Katsura's despotic policy for reducing the power of all parties, and it was natural that the two parties should unite to impeach the Katsura Cabinet. The 19th session was convoked at the end of 1903, with Kono as President of the House of Representatives and Iyesato Tokugawa, that of the House of Peers. But this session was dissolved immediately after its opening meeting because of the resolution impeaching the Government.

War with Russia War was declared against Russia on Feb. 10, 1904. The emergency session of the Diet was convoked on March 18 and the regular one on Dec. 28 of the same year, and in the latter the Diet unanimously passed a budget of ordinary expenses ¥110,000,000 and war disbursement ¥780,000,000. The famous victories at Port Arthur, Mukden and the Japan Sea finally brought peace, and by the mediation of President Roosevelt the peace treaty was concluded between Japan and Russia on Sept. 5, 1905. On the same day riots broke out in Tokyo and other big cities because of the general dissatisfaction with the terms of the peace treaty, and Tokyo was put under martial law. Ito, President of the Privy Council, went to Korea by Imperial Order in November and that country was made a protectorate of Japan, Ito becoming the first Resident-General, while Komura, who returned from Portsmouth, immediately went to Peking and concluded treaties with China on Japanese rights and privileges to settle the problems arising from the peace treaty.

The Saionji Cabinet The Katsura Cabinet remained in power as long as 4 years and 7 months and accomplished several important enterprises, but taking the responsibility for the riots and for a disturbance in the Tokyo Imperial University, which also occurred in connection with the conclusion of the Peace Treaty, resigned in January, 1906, and Saionji was ordered to form a cabinet but failed to organize one of pure party-government because of the great power of bureaucracy behind the national politics. The most important measure in the 22nd session of the Diet was that for the State ownership of all railways. With great difficulty it was passed with an amendment by the House of Peers. The peace-loving Saionji strove for the civilization of Manchuria, transforming the military rule into civil administration. It was an expression of this policy that the South Manchuria Railway Company was established in this year.

While the Seiyukai became prosperous as the government party, the Kensei-honto had a hard time and Okuma finally left it on Jan. 20, 1907.

The Saionji Cabinet continued for two-and-half years fighting against the forces of bureaucracy, and the Seiyukai obtained an absolute majority of 190 at the 10th election, May, 1908. But Saionji left his position a little after the election partly because of his illness and partly owing to the stubborn pressure of the bureaucrats, who were specially critical of his liberal policy toward the socialists, who had gradually increased in number since the Sino-Japanese War.

The Second Katsura Cabinet The second Katsura Cabinet which was formed on July 14, 1908, was of course bureaucratic. One notable event of the 10th election was the appearance of representatives of business men in the Lower House, prophetic of the rise of the business class who now rode on the universal tide of capitalism. Katsura saw the change of the times and allied himself with business men to realize his policy for a readjustment of the taxation system and consolidation of the public loan. But the Seiyukai having no less than 193 seats in the Lower House at the 25th session, Katsura could do nothing without their agreement. With his usual tactics he came to a full understanding with them and the 25th and 26th sessions passed off very quietly.

The Kensei-honto kept only 65 seats in the Lower House and internal discord caused it to dwindle further. But stimulated by the increase of the Seiyukai, it united with other forces on March 13, 1910, and merged itself into a new party named the Rikken Kokuminto or Constitutional Nationalist Party. This new party had 92 members in the Lower House and was led by Inukai and Oishi.

During the three years' régime of the second Katsura Cabinet the outstanding events were the first general arrest of socialists and the annexation of Korea. The latter was hastened by the assassination of Ito by a Korean at Harbin

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station on Oct. 26, 1909. Terauchi, Minister of War, was appointed to the additional post of Resident-General of Korea in May, 1910, and on Aug. 29 of the same year Korea was at last annexed to Japan.

Army Division Increase Question Saionji became Premier for the second time on Aug. 30 1911. His Cabinet was supported by 214 Seiyukai members in the House of Representatives and this time he could form it without much regard for bureaucracy, although he could not yet wholly get rid of its interference, both public and secret. While he was in power, the Emperor Meiji passed away amid the sorrow and lamentation of the people on July 30, 1912, and the Emperor Taisho came to the Throne. After this national event, bureaucratic forces began to work again and caused General Uyehara, Minister of War, to propose an increase of two Army divisions. Uyehara resigned his position independently because of the rejection of his proposal by the Cabinet. Saionji asked Yamagata to recommend his successor, but this Elder Statesman, who had himself established the military minister system for military and naval departments, and was the leader of the bureaucratic and military forces, rejected Saionji's request, and the Cabinet collapsed at once.

But this plot of the dark forces stirred up the party men to the extreme, and loud cries arose for the destruction of bureaucracy and protection of constitutional government, when Katsura appeared for the third time to form his bureaucratic government. Katsura tried every means to still the general antagonism, but in vain. Inukai, Ohoka and other influential party men led the national movement with the backing of public opinion for putting an end to bureaucracy, and the situation became so critical that to push Katsura's policy further meant something like the outbreak of a civil war, consequently he was compelled to resign after but 53 days. This was an epoch-making event in the political history of Japan and real party-government was now at hand although Katsura was succeeded by Yamamoto, who was one of the foremost navy men at that time.

Yamamoto to Okuma The defeated Katsura sadly realized the power of parties and organized the Rikken Doshikai or Constitutional Comrades Party after his resignation, and the 31st session of the Diet was held at the beginning of 1914, with the classification of members of the Lower House as follows :

Seiyukai	203	Chuseikai	37
Doshikai	93	Independents	7
Kokuminto	40		

The Yamamoto Cabinet was supported by the Seiyukai and had no doubt about passing the Navy Increase Bill, but the unexpected exposure of bribery in high naval circles, the so-called "Commission Scandal", caused the overthrow of the Government at the end of March, 1914. The council of Genro had difficulty in choosing the person to be recommended for the Premiership and after considering several candidates Okuma was finally ordered to form a cabinet.

About 15 years had passed since Okuma left his party the Kenseito, and when he once more took the position of Premier the public welcomed him with sympathy and he answered to the public goodwill by reducing the power of navy men in politics with the support of the Doshikai which contained many former members of the old Kenseito. It was during his premiership that Japan entered the World War on Aug. 23, 1914.

It was the Seiyukai's turn to tread the thorny path of opposition. President Saionji had left it in 1913, and Hara had been its practical leader since then, and the number of members was declining when the question of election of the President arose. Opinions were divided and many a member wanted to call Saionji back, but he was too unselfish to accept the proposal and earnestly recommended Hara to be the new President of the Seiyukai.

The new President Hara was a plain untitled man, but a man of rare ability, and the Seiyukai renewed its strength under his leadership.

Okuma's Sweep The 35th session was dissolved because of the rejection of the Army Division Increase Bill by the Seiyukai and the Nationalist Party. The general election of March, 1914, ended in victory for the pro-government parties, largely because of the aggressive interference of Oura, the Home Minister, the backing of a business clan and the sympathetic campaign conducted by the faculty and students of Waseda University, which had been founded by Okuma. The Doshikai gained 150 seats in the House of Representatives against 104 of the Seiyukai, which was reduced to half its former number. But the latter stubbornly attacked the Government on Oura's interference with the election and other matters, and compelled Oura to leave the Cabinet by bringing a public suit against him. O-

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kuma once tendered his resignation to the Throne in relation to this matter, but was asked to stay at his post and reorganize the Cabinet on July 30, 1915, thereby prolonging its existence for three months.

The Rice Riots At this time the Kenseikai was organized under Takaaki (Komei) Kato by the combination of the Doshikai Party, the Koyu Club, and the Chuseikai on Oct. 10, 1915, in the expectation of organizing the next cabinet. But Masataké (Seiki) Terauchi was recommended instead, and he again formed a transcendental government, a sort of off-shoot of the old Choshu clan; he soon met with a vote of non-confidence by the Lower House, and the 38th session was instantly dissolved. After the general election the Terauchi Cabinet got the support of the Seiyukai and the Nationalist Party and managed to get through the 39th and 40th sessions without damage to the Government. But the general cost of living shot up to unreasonable heights owing to the vast increase of capitalistic business during the World War, and the artificial rise in the price of rice caused nationwide rice riots in August, 1918, which shook the foundation of the Cabinet, so that Terauchi was forced to resign on Sept. 21.

Formation of Party Government

Among the five Genro, Inoué and Oyama, who had been the commander of armies at the time of the Russo-Japanese War, had died, and Yamagata, Matsukata and Saionji were the only ones now left, and they chose Saionji, the youngest, to be the next Premier. The Emperor requested Saionji to form a cabinet, but he was clever enough to see the progress of democracy among the people and courteously declined the Imperial appointment and recommended Hara instead. Yamagata finally yielded and gave his consent to this decision, but asked Hara to form a coalition cabinet of the Seiyukai and the bureaucrats.

The First Party Cabinet Hara rejected his suggestion and for the first time in Japanese party history a cabinet was organized by party men only, except for two or three ministers who were mostly pro-Seiyukai.

As was mentioned above, the political parties of Japan were originated by the statesmen of the samurai class and had much of the bureaucratic element in themselves, and the clan statesmen had the confidence of the Imperial Court and wielded real power in general politics as a matter of fact, regardless of the public opinion represented and expressed by the political parties or through the press. Up to the first half of the Taisho Era the political parties could not make much progress as independent bodies, and were almost always made use of by the clan statesmen or military leaders, not having enough power of their own to form a party cabinet, but allowing themselves to become tools of bureaucracy even when the head of the party himself organized a cabinet. But the remarkable development of capitalism and the rapid progress of democratic thought among the people at the time of the World War and afterwards caused a decline in the power of the bureaucrats. The coming of Hara, President of the Seiyukai, who was a commoner, into power gave almost the last blow to the old bureaucracy, which gradually faded away by the beginning of the Showa Era.

Hara's Policy The policy of the Hara Cabinet was, in outline, the completion of national defence, the improvement of the educational system, the promotion of all business and the adjustment of traffic organs. The establishment of the jury system, the improvement and enlargement of the higher educational organs, and the revision of the Election Law must be counted to the credit of this Cabinet. Hara showed his democratic spirit in revising the military governmental system of Taiwan and Chosen so that a civil official might become the Governor-General of a colony. The 41st session passed without much disturbance. But the Seiyukai had not yet an absolute majority and when the anti-cabinet parties proposed the bill of universal suffrage at the following session, Hara took advantage of it and dissolved the Lower House to get his much-wanted majority. The result of the general election held on May 10, 1920, was as follows:

Seiyukai	279	Kokuminto	29
Kenseikai	108	Neutrals	48

Hara was able to do as he pleased, for he again had the support of the great Seiyukai, and pushing aside all opposition from his political foes he was advancing brilliantly toward the completion of the said policies when he fell a victim to the dagger of a young assassin at Tokyo Station on Nov. 4, 1921. He was succeeded as President of the Seiyukai by Korekiyo Takahashi, who organized his Cabinet after the incident, but it was short-lived and was compelled to resign within 6 months. The Seiyukai had troubles among them-

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selves, while the other great party, the Kenseikai, was rather weak so that bureaucratic cabinets were organized one after another for about three years. When Count Kiyoura formed his bureaucratic Cabinet in Jan., 1924, the Seiyukai was divided into two on the question of supporting or not supporting the new cabinet, and the majority of its members who were pro-cabinet seceded from the Seiyukai and organized the Seiyu-honto under the leadership of Yamamoto, Motoda, Nakahashi and Tokonami.

The General Election of 1924 The Kiyoura Cabinet dissolved the 48th session of the Imperial Diet and at the general election which was held in May, 1924, the opposition parties, namely, the Kenseikai and the Kakushin Club stood up against the Government rallying their forces in defence of parliamentarism, and under Premier Kato who was the head of the then largest party, the Kenseikai, a coalition cabinet of the three parties was realized. This was a death-blow to the bureaucracy of Japan; the clan chieftains and bureaucrats entirely lost their power as a political class and the bourgeois parties completely took their place, the final blow being the passing of the Universal Suffrage Law at the 50th session of the Diet.

Universal Suffrage

The 50th session of the Diet was convoked on Dec. 25, 1924, and it became a memorable one by passing the Universal Suffrage Bill. The demand for universal suffrage had a long history, but it seemed impossible to realize it as long as bureaucracy had its iron grip on all such questions. But the time had come for the mass of the people to voice their convictions on politics with freedom. This time the Government itself drafted the bill and it was first subjected to the examination of the Privy Council. The conservative Council advised revisions and the Government sent to the House of Representatives which passed the original bill of the Government and sent it to the House of Peers. The latter House could not directly oppose it, but passed it with amendments on weighty points pretty nearly to the same degree as those of the Privy Council. The consultations between the two Houses were repeated, and the Universal Suffrage Bill was at last passed, to come into force on May 5, 1925. The antagonistic attitude of the House of Peers toward universal suffrage resulted in a revision of the House of Peers Law to the effect that the number of Kazoku or noblemen among its members was decreased.

Side by side with the accession of the bourgeois parties to power, there broke out many political movements of radicals and proletarians in the form of political parties (see the following articles on these parties). Radicals among the existing parties organized their own party, the Kakushin Club, mentioned above, in Nov., 1922, by the combination of the group of Ozaki, Shimada and their comrades who had left the Kenseikai, with the Nationalist Party which was led by Inukai, and one other group. But in May, 1925, it broke up, and Inukai and his colleagues joined the Seiyukai. Later the Kakushin Club dwindled into a very small party, although it played an important part in the doings of the Imperial Diet.

There was another movement organized by businessmen under the leadership of Sanji Muto in April, 1923, but this party was unable to get much sympathy from the general public.

Tanaka to Hamaguchi Viscount Takahashi resigned the Presidency of the Seiyukai and General Baron Tanaka was called to succeed him in April, 1925. This change broke up the unity of the Coalition Cabinet of the three parties mentioned above, and it was forced to give up office. It was followed by a Kenseikai Cabinet under Premier Kato in August of the same year. The Premier fell ill and died, and Wakatsuki, the new President of the Kenseikai was ordered to form a cabinet in January, 1926. Tokonami, who led the Seiyu-honto, took a very ambiguous attitude toward the other parties, but finally joined Wakatsuki and the two parties became one on June 1, 1927, assuming the new name of Minseito. Of this new party Hamaguchi became President while Wakatsuki and Tokonami were made advisers.

On the other hand, the Seiyukai began to rally its power gradually under the leadrship of Tanaka, inviting Inukai and his comrades and a part of the Seiyu-honto to join them and after the collapse of the Wakatsuki Cabinet in April, 1927, the Tanaka Cabinet came into being. But unsatisfied with the result of the first general election by universal suffrage in 1928, they tried to collect as many members as possible from among the neutrals and the Minseito. At the same time, Tokonami, who had lost hope of becoming the head of the new Minseito Party, seceded from it in August of the same year, and afterward, when the Hamaguchi Cabinet was formed in July, 1929, he went back to his old home, the Seiyukai.

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In July, 1929, Hamaguchi organized the Minseito Cabinet and his party won an absolute majority in the House of Representatives as the result of the second universal suffrage election in the following year. But on Nov. 14, 1930, Hamaguchi was shot at Tokyo Station, and although he lived another year his wound finally proved fatal and hard times again visited the Minseito. Wakatsuki became its President again and formed a Cabinet in April, 1931.

With retrenchment as its warcry, the Wakatsuki Cabinet carried out a general reduction of the salaries of officials and tried to make readjustments in the administrative, financial and tax systems, but without success. The Manchurian Incident of Sept. 18, 1931, occurred near Mukden. The Manchurian problem and the relations between Japan and China had been becoming more acute year by year and the Manchurian railway affair called the attention of the world to the impending collision of the two nations. The incident proved a turning-point in the drift of national politics which now headed in a very different direction not only in diplomacy, but also in many home affairs. The Army and Navy took the lead over the Manchurian problem, no doubt, but they could do so only because the people at large sympathized with and supported them. The budget for the fiscal year 1931-1932 could not be made out without floating a national loan or increasing the taxes, which would of course be most unwelcome to the people. Rowdiness and riotous struggles in the House of Representatives at the 59th session which was held at the beginning of 1931, greatly lowered the standing of the House in the eyes of the people and the inability of the Imperial Diet to take any decided course of action after the Manchurian Incident brought parliamentary government into discredit with the nation, and this state of affairs much affected the stability of the Wakatsuki Cabinet. In October, 1931, Wakatsuki expressed his wish to resign, and there arose discussions on the wisdom of forming a new cabinet which might combine the forces of the Minseito and Seiyukai. But opinion was divided, and in the end the Wakatsuki Cabinet was forced to resign on December 11.

Inukai and the Embargo Inukai, who became President of the Seiyukai in 1929 after the death of Tanaka, publicly announced his idea of reimposing the gold embargo at the general meeting of his party on November 10, and the resignation of the Wakatsuki Cabinet, which came immediately after it, therefore, suggested the possibility of something serious taking place with the choice of the succeeding government. Saionji, the Genro, laid the nomination of Inukai to the Premiership before the Throne, and on December 13, 1931, the single Seiyukai Cabinet came into power.

The Inukai Cabinet proclaimed the reimposition of the gold ban on the day following its installation, as had been expected. This Cabinet had a minority in the Lower House, so they intended to dissolve the Diet at the coming session when suitable occasion arose, to seek for an expression of national confidence at the general election, and hastened to make preparations for it. Hardly had a week passed before it changed most of the local governors to those who were favourable to the Seiyukai, because these officials had direct influence over the general election. The new Cabinet assumed the post but two weeks before the 60th session of the Diet and had no time for planning a budget of its own, which made it necessary for it to borrow that of the Wakatsuki Cabinet. It was, nevertheless, presented to the Diet with some changes or revisions, but it failed to be passed because of the dissolution of the Diet on January 21, 1932.

Previous to this, an unexpected event endangered the life of the Cabinet. It was nothing less than a bomb thrown at the Emperor's procession near the Sakurada Gate of the Palace Grounds and before the headquarters of the Metropolitan Police. The Emperor and an Imperial Prince narrowly escaped injury. This act of "lèse majesté" compelled the cabinet to resign, but the Emperor did not ask them to assume responsibility, and encouraged them to continue in office, and Inukai and other members of the Cabinet pledged their patriotism and loyalty to the Throne, in spite of public opinion which was rather against their holding on to the reins of power.

The Seiyukai's Victory The general election of Feb. 20th was carried out amidst the apparent apathy of the people because their attention was absorbed by the Manchurian problem and the events in Shanghai which seemed to be impelling the nation towards international discord, with war as a final outcome. But the result was that the Seiyukai, the government party, piled up the grand majority of 304 while the Minseito dwindled to 146.

The Seiyukai Cabinet, which had gained the absolute majority in the House of Representatives, was to call an extraordinary session of the Diet in

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March to decide upon the emergency military expenses.

The May 15 Affair In the meantime, the new State of Manchoukuo was born, and the activities of international diplomacy helped to solve the complications in Shanghai, warfare there being terminated by mutual agreement. But Japan's international relations became strained and the world's attitude toward Japan became increasingly unfavourable, which reacted badly on the Inukai Government. The financial condition held out little hope for the business world, and the Government was unable to make any positive plans for the present and future of the public welfare. On the other hand, the general social and political unrest, and the discredit brought on parliamentary government helped the rapid growth of national socialistic thought in the minds of the people, and the organization of various Fascist associations among the hot-heads, both young and old. The repeated assassinations disturbed the public mind to the last extreme, and alarming rumours spread from the metropolis to the remotest parts of the Empire. The veteran statesman Inukai, the Premier, was eager to protect parliamentarism by making a thorough improvement of the political parties and realizing an even distribution of political benefits among the people in general instead of a partial accumulation of it in the hands of privileged classes. But the younger elements of the nation were too hasty-tempered to place reliance in his words and idealism, and on the evening of May 15, 1932, a dozen young cadets and officers of the Imperial Army and Navy armed with pistols broke into his official residence at Nagata-cho, Tokyo, and finding him in his Japanese sitting room pointed their weapons at him. "Wait a moment," said Inukai quietly. "Let us talk things over and you will understand my ideas." But without answering a word they fired, and the Premier fell. At the same time another band of young farmers attacked the transformer stations in the suburbs with intent to throw the city into darkness, but they were caught before they could carry it out.

The Saito Cabinet Consequently the Cabinet, having lost its head, immediately tendered its resignation to the Throne. Saionji recommended Viscount Saito to the Throne after a thorough consultation with such experienced statesmen as might well be called vice-Genro. The Saito Cabinet was composed of five bureaucrats, three representatives of the House of Peers, three Seiyukai members, and two Minseito members, so that it was called a "National Cabinet."

At its second extraordinary session in 1932, the Imperial Diet passed the most important resolutions on the relief of the financial hardship of farmers and the recognition of the new state Manchoukuo. The latter was carried out in spite of obstacles, visible or otherwise, and to carry out the former decision a vast amount of money was needed in order to give substantial aid to the hard-stricken farmers, with their debt of ¥4,000,000,000.

The 64th Session of the Diet The 64th session of the Imperial Diet was convened on Dec. 24, 1932, with the following line-up in the Houses:

House of Peers:

(Number of members, 402, vacancies 4)	
Imperial Princes	18
Kenkyukai	148
Koseikai	69
Dowakai	41
Kōyū Club	40
Kayokai	34
Doseikai	15
Independents	37

House of Representatives:

(Number of members, 456, vacancies 7)	
Seiyukai	298
Minseito	116
Kokumin-Domei	32
Proletarian Parties, etc.	13

This session closed on March 25, 1933. It was a peaceful or rather monotonous one, and passed the budget of over ¥2,300,000,000 without a single cut, and 51 of the 53 bills proposed by the Government and 7 of the 97 bills proposed by the members of the Diet. Among those passed, there were such important laws as the Farm-Village Debt Readjustment Law, a law for the relief of the people of Tohoku district who had suffered from earthquake and tidal waves, the Child Ill-treatment Prevention Law, the Juvenile Protection Law, and the revision of the Iron-manufacture Promotion Law which meant the union of all the largest iron-manufacturing works.

Political Movement of the Proletariat

There were frequent outbreaks of rice riots in the days of the Tokugawa Shogunate. But the samurai class was above the farmers and artisans, who had neither political power nor military force.

Labour Movement Takes Shape When modern commerce and industry were

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introduced to Japan in the Meiji Era and capitalism began to have sway over the working people, labour movements became active as a matter of course.

On the 1st of December, 1897, the Iron Workers' Union was organized in Tokyo with over one thousand members, and this was the first trade union in Japan.

Public Peace Police Law In 1900 the Imperial Diet passed a bill and enacted it into a law. The law was entitled the Public Peace Police Law. It proved to be the death knell to all phases of the labour movement, preventing the working classes from organizing themselves into unions. The law practically prohibited the industrial working classes as well as the tenant farmers from agitating in their own interests and against the employers and land-owners. And later the law was interpreted to mean that all labour movements were a crime.

In 1901, a socialist party was organized which was called the Social Democratic Party, the original members being S. Kotoku, I. Abé, N. Kinoshita, K. Kawakami, K. Nishikawa, and S. Katayama. It was soon suppressed by the authorities and transformed into a non-political organization, namely, the Socialist Association.

Marxism Introduced It was in 1903 that the socialist theory of Marxism was first introduced to the Japanese radicals, and the theory soon attracted large numbers of students. In 1906, the Socialist Party was organized for the second time, and on Feb. 17, 1907, the first anniversary meeting of the party was held in Tokyo. The resolution at the meeting announced the aims of the party as follows: a radical and fundamental change of the existing society, universal suffrage, anti-militarism and anti-religion. Later the socialists began conflicts and were divided over the question of socialist tactics into two groups, i. e. Marxists and direct actionists. Secret activities of radical socialists and stern suppression of the same by the Government developed more and more desperate tactics on both sides, and the Government finally came by a chance to destroy the entire socialist movement in the bud. They instituted the famous anarchist trial in 1911, in which Kotoku and twenty-three others were condemned as traitors, and he with eleven others suffered the death penalty.

Marxist propaganda and leadership of strikes and even anarchists' movement did not cease with the trial and execution of Kotoku and his comrades. One of the most conspicuous events in the annals of their movement was the death of S. Osugi and his colleagues at the hands of the reactionaries in the midst of the Great Earthquake commotion in Tokyo in 1923.

But it must be said that Japanese social movement entered upon a new phase by the stimulus from the Russian Revolution in 1917 and its later development.

The Labour-Farmer Party The suppression of the Nippon Socialist Party in 1907 and the stern policy of the Government against socialist movements made the Japanese proletariat suffer and grope in the dark for the next decade.

In June, 1924, a society was established for the study of politics to prepare for the organization of a proletarian party. And by the proposal of the Japan Farmers' Union the first national proletarian party was organized on Oct. 1, 1925, and it was called the Farmer-Labour Party. But this party met the Government's order of suppression on the very day of its organization because of its communistic elements. Thereupon, the left-wing elements were expelled and the right-wing elements, namely the Japan Federation of Labour, were added, and in March, 1926, the Labour-Farmer Party was formed, with Mr. Motojiro Sugiyama as its president.

Schism in Proletarian Parties The Labour-Farmer Party soon became a nest of quarrelling cliques, and the question of opening the door to communistic elements gave a motive for the secession of the Japan Federation of Labour and the right leaders Isoo Abé, Toyohiko Kagawa, etc., who established the Social Democratic Party with the Federation as its main element and Abé as its President on December 5, 1926. The new party rejected communism and insisted upon parliamentarism as a pure social-democratic party.

Contemporaneous with the formation of the Social Democrats, the left-wing elements of the Japan Federation of Labour and the right-wing elements of the Japan Farmers' Union organized the Japan Labour-Farmer Party under the leadership of Hisashi Aso on December, 9, 1926, insisting upon the establishment of a right road for the proletarian movement.

The Labour-Farmer Party, which was stripped of half its force by the continuous secession of the right-wing elements, made Ikuo Ohyama its head and opened its doors to the communistic societies. The result was that it was practically led by the Japan Communists and played the part of a legitimate communistic party; and it was compelled to dissolve on the 10th of

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April, 1928, being suppressed by the Tanaka Cabinet after the wholesale arrest of the Japan Communists on the 15th of March of the same year.

The old leaders of the dissolved Labour-Farmer Party organized a preparatory society for the establishment of a new party and endeavoured to realize their plan, but always met with the pressure of the authorities, and finally organized the Proletarian People's Party under the theoretical leadership of Hitoshi Yamakawa.

Their Union In the meantime, the right-wing elements of the Japan Union of Farmers organized the Japan Farmer Party with the idea of establishing a representative Japanese party of farmers under the slogan, "Farmers come to the Party of Farmers," on October 17, 1926, and there arose many small local proletarian societies or parties in different districts.

Such rivalry and disunion among proletarian parties naturally called forth a demand for the unification of fighting lines, and the parties, which kept to the middle way, like the Japan Labour-Farmer Party, the Japan Famer-Labour Party and the General Proletarian Party, which were the three national proletarian parties, and the Proletarian Constitutional Party, the People's Party in the central district and two other local parties were all united into one and organized the Japan Mass Party.

The General Proletarian Party organized an anti-separation union and protested against the leaders of the Japan Mass Party, but they themselves were soon dissolved into the Tokyo Proletarian Mass Party and other local proletarian parties.

The leaders of the former Labour-Farmer Party, who had formed a preparatory society for the establishment of a new party just after the dissolution of their party, continued their movement for its reconstruction, but their project was prohibited half-way, and the preparatory society itself was ordered to close. They were thus compelled to organize a labour-farmer union, an illegitimate body, for obtaining political freedom and did not cease to follow a communistic policy. But they were involved in the wholesale raids on the Japan Communists on March 15, 1928, and April 16, 1929, in which the ablest radical leaders were accused of being members of the Communistic Party and were mostly arrested so that their movement came to an end. The leaders who escaped the raid such as Ikuo Ohyama and Hajimé Kawakami organized a Labour-Farmer Party on November 1, 1929. The purpose of their new movement was to proclaim the need of obtaining the right of public activity as a lawful left-wing party by establishing a standing political organization.

While the left and midway parties had been continually combining and re-dissolving, the right-wing party of the proletariat or Social Democratic Party alone developed without a hitch for some time, but in Sept., 1929, the Osaka Union of the Japan Federation of Labour, the main element of the party, separated from the federation and consequently withdrew from the party and established the National Democratic Party on January 15, 1930. But this party was united with the Japan Mass Party on the 20th of July of the same year and formed the National Mass Party.

The N. L. F. Mass Party The movement for the greater union of the proletarian parties was continued and the Society for the Realization of Unity of Proletarian Parties, which was a bloc of those who insisted on the unconditional union among the members of the National Mass Party, the Labour-Farmer Party, organized the National Labour-Farmer Mass Party on the 5th of July, 1931. In this new party there was no head of the central executive committee, but Hisashi Aso, President of the former National Mass Party, was appointed to the chair of the chief secretary, who also served as Acting President. Ikuo Ohyama, President of the former Labour-Farmer Party, retired from all official positions and went abroad. This National Labour-Farmer Mass Party stood between the extreme left and right, but the inner control gradually became loose and Hajimé Kawakami and Kanemitsu Hososeko were expelled along with some other members. These two were arrested as strong sympathizers of the Japan Communists.

Social Mass Party In 1931, the National-Socialist movement suddenly appeared on the surface of the sea of social unrest, and the tide of Fascism began to permeate the proletarian fighting lines; the right-wing of the legitimate proletarian parties turned toward National Socialism. On the other hand, the left-wing was influenced by the Japan Communists, who never ceased their clandestine movements in spite of the constant interference of the authorities, and the power of the proletarian parties was greatly reduced. This state of affairs induced another union, and on the 24th of July, 1931, the Social Mass Party was organized by the union of the Social Democratic Party and the National La-

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bour-Farmer Mass Party. This new party elected Isoo Abé, Chairman of the Central Executive Committee; and Hisashi Aso, Chief Secretary. The platform of the party was as follows:

(1) We will fight for the protection of the lives of the labour, farmer, and general working masses.

(2) We aim at the destruction of capitalism and the emancipation of the proletariat.

And this new party is acting as a social democratic party, rejecting both Communism and Fascism.

Universal Suffrage and Proletariats Since the birth of proletarian political parties with the purpose of sending representatives to the Diet, there had been three general elections. At the third general election, since the institution of universal suffrage, which was held on February 20, 1932, under the Inukai Cabinet in consequence of the dissolution of the Diet at the 60th session in the previous month the proletarian parties made plans for fighting against capitalistic parties, from their past experiences and on the basis of their characteristic principles and policies, and sending out 36 candidates, fought bravely with public speeches as their only weapon. The result was 5 members elected, with the gain of 290,979 votes. To make a comparison with the former elections, the number of successful candidates on the first occasion was 8 or 3 more, and on the second one it was 5 or the same number as at the last, while in the number of votes they lost at the third election 201,242, compared with the first one, and 207,242, compared with the second one. But the number of the candidates was much smaller than in previous elections, so that the number of votes per capita increased to 8,083 from 5,593 of the first and 5,475 of the second election, or every proletarian candidate at the latest election gained about 3,000 more votes than at the previous two general elections.

The National Socialists

Orientation to National Socialism In 1931 the Labour Union established the Japan Labour Club with the purpose of realizing a great union of the right wing. Stimulated by the supremacy of Fascism in Italy and the Fascisti movement of the Nazis in Germany, there appeared a movement for National Socialism among the members of the Social Democratic Party. Besides, after the Manchurian Incident the atmosphere among the Japanese people was very suitable for the growth of nationalism and patriotism, and the national socialistic section of the Party increased their power under the leadership of K. Akamatsu, chief secretary, and R. Hirano.

Their Platform At the same time, National Socialism began to make its mark among the members of the National Labour-Farmer Mass Party, which kept to the middle way, and especially it gained power among the members who belonged to the National Labour Union, the strongest supporter of the party. Some powerful leaders of the National Labour Union moved for the establishment of a National Socialistic Party, but their motion was rejected by the party and they seceded from it in one body. The seceders met with those from the Social Democrats, and, on the 29th of May, they established the Japan National Socialist Party with K. Akamatsu at its head.

The rise of the nationalistic tide, which coaxed the proletariat partisans away, correlatively gave inspiration to the activities of the old nationalists, and their leading principles began to take national socialistic colour in compliance with the change of the social state of affairs.

The Production Party The Great Nippon Production Party, an extreme right-wing party, which had hailed Japanese nationalism but vaguely, showed a sudden activity and absorbed the Nippon Nationalists, the Radical Patriots and other parties of similar nature at the end of 1931. Their aim was the reconstruction of anti-nationalistic institutions, according to the fundamental national spirit of Japan.

The Jimmu-kai On February 11, 1932, the anniversary of the Foundation of the Empire, the Jimmu-kai, a strong nationalists' society, was organized. The central element of the society was the Ko-chi Sha of Dr. Shumei Ohkawa, who had intimate connections with military men, and the new party was also helped by Hiroichiro Ishihara, a business man, Daisaku Komoto, a colonel, and the like. At the general election of 1932, rallying the young members of the Ko-chi Sha, the Great Nippon Production Party and other Nationalistic bodies, they sent out bands on a canvassing tour over the whole country for the propaganda of Nipponism. It is said that they gained over 50,000 new members in a month or so of the campaign. (The Jimmu-kai was dissolved in 1935.)

Super-legal Movements of the Rights In addition to the national commotion arising from the Manchurian Incident, the failure of the crops in the north-eastern districts dealt a heavy blow to the poor villagers groaning under fi-

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nancial depression, and the problem of finding some means of relieving the people in the emergency became so acute that no time was to be lost. This nation-wide suffering and anxiety urged the right-wing movement to proceed to extremities, and they passed far beyond the limits of lawful action. In the midst of the election campaign, on February 9, 1932, Junnosuké Inoué, ex-Minister of Finance, was shot to death by a young man, Konuma, of the Blood Brotherhood League headed by Nissho Inoué, a priest of the Nichiren sect. On March 5, Takuma Dan, Chairman of the Board of Trustees of the Mitsui Company and one of the ablest contemporary business men, was assassinated by Hishinuma, a member of the same secret association. At 5:30 on the afternoon of the 15th of May, Premier Inukai was killed. This was the so-called "5:15 Affair" as it occurred on the fifteenth of the fifth month, 1932. The after-claps of the event appeared in the secret plots of Dr. Imamaki, adviser to the Jimmu-kai, in the middle of August, and of the Tenko-kai and the Independent Young Men's Association in November, finally at the arrest of Dr. Shumei Ohkawa, head of the Jimmu-kai and the Far Eastern Economic Research Bureau.

Later investigations showed that those directly connected with the affair were 10 young Navy officers, 11 students of the Military College and 21 farmers and scholars. After the arrest of members of the Blood Brotherhood League formed by Nissho Inoué, who entertained a plan to kill representative men one by one, his comrades undertook the continuation of the work. Lieutenant Hitoshi Fujii, a leader, had died in the battle at Shanghai on February 5, 1932, but had left a strong influence among his friends. Second lieutenants Kiyoshi Koga and Yoshio Nakamura, who belonged to the Kasumigaura airship corps, began to form bands with a view to bringing about a new government with the military as the central force, in plunging Tokyo into a state of siege by their sudden attack upon the capital. In the plot they were soon united by Kozaburo Tachibana, head of the Aikyo Juku (Village Loving School) of Ibaraki prefecture and a leader of the agricultural movement. Dr. Shumei Ohkawa, Hidezo Toyama, head of the Tenko-kai, and Kenichiro Homma also came to their help and, moreover, supplied them with necessary funds and arms. At 5:30 p. m. May 15, 1932, four bands composed of military officers and cadets armed with pistols, attacked several points of the capital and killed Inukai and others as mentioned above, while another band of farmers attempted to break into the transformer stations to throw the capital into darkness. Most of them were arrested on the day and the sentences for all of them (except one farmer who died in the meantime) were passed by February, 1934, the heaviest penalty given being imprisonment for life for Kozaburo Tachibana, but none of them were sentenced to death.

The Farmer-Central Movement As a result of the May 15 Affair the Saito Cabinet was organized. The new Government called the second Emergency Session of the Diet in June and the third session was held in August, and the Diet passed the "Resolution for the Relief of the Economic Depression," for the purpose of relieving the impoverished villages of the farmers. The motive power of this action of the Imperial Diet was the Farmer-Central Movement of the Self-governing Farmers' Council and its sympathizers which became an incentive to the petition movement for rescue of the peasant villages from the ruin which threatened them.

The Self-governing Farmers' Council was led by the farmer-central idea of Mr. N. Gondo, and rejecting both the strikes of farmers and national socialism, it endeavoured to realize a farmer-central government with the harmonious co-operation of the ruling class and the people, and unifying the landowners, the landed farmers and the tenant farmers. The Council was organized by the association of the Nagano-Prefecture Japan Farmers' Association, the Emancipation Society, Mr. K. Tachibana, the head of the Aikyo Juku (Village Loving School), and Mr. R. Nagano of the Japan Village Government Union, which had been established in 1931, with him as its leader.

Communist Movements

The Nippon Communist Society was apparently broken up by the wholesale raids of 1914 and 1915, and the members who then escaped arrest hid themselves in the depths of society, and secretly continued their endeavours to reconstruct it. But the leaders of the new society, which they organized in 1927, were all arrested on April 16, 1928, and the remaining members had a difficult time to accomplish the work under the constant oppression of the authorities, and the society showed its activity before the public at the general election of 1931. It was for the third time scattered by the iron hand of the Gov-

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ernment after February, 1931, but it continued its secret activities by order of the International Headquarters with the sub-divisions of the communists. Its slogan of 1932 was "the reconstruction and enlargement of the Society and its popularization." It aims at and works for the abolition of parliamentary government, the destruction or revision of capitalistic control of industry and reactionary labour laws, the relief of international unemployment, the improvement of all labour managements, the betterment of the conditions and privileges of women, the abolition or lightening of the penalties imposed upon communists, and its propaganda among the factory workers and the people at large.

The Kopf[1] This federation of proletarian artists was organized in November, 1932, and it works for the education of labourers, farmers and other workers in politics and economy, the improvement of the labourers' living, the establishment of proletarian civilization on Lenin-Marxism, the freedom of speech, publication, exhibition, drama, movies and broadcasting, the creation of cultural institutions for labourers and all workers.

Political Affairs in 1933–34

The 64th session of the Diet came to an end on March 25, after passing the 1933–34 budget, of over ¥2,300,000,000 and 58 bills. Among the latter there were such important laws as the Farm-Village Debt Readjustment Law, the Relief Law for Tohoku district, the Child Ill-treatment Prevention Law, the Juvenile Protection Law, the Rice Control Law and the Iron-Manufacture Promotion Law.

On March 27 Japan served notice to withdraw from the League of Nations to which she had made valuable contributions for over 12 years (See Chapter VI).

The year also witnessed a decided decline of the left-wing socialistic parties, especially the communists, many of the leaders leaving camp and ceasing activities

65th Session On December 23, 1933, the 65th Session of the Imperial Diet was convened and after the customary recess for the New Year's holiday, resumed its work on January 23, 1934.

Finance Minister Takahashi presented the 1934–35 budget, which amounted to ¥2,112,000,000 (¥8,000,000 less than the previous year), of which ¥1,248,000,000 was to be met by ordinary revenue, ¥19,000,000 to be covered by the balance of the previous year, and ¥785,000,000 to be obtained from loans. Of the ¥785,000,000 loan, ¥606,000,000 was for covering the deficit. (See Chapter VIII.)

Discussions on the 1934–35 Budget continued from January 26 to February 4, and on February 13 the House of Representatives passed it by unanimous vote without amendments. The discussion mainly turned upon the issuance of Government loans, the military expenses, the need of establishing a definite financial plan for the future, and the increase of taxes. As to the last point, Takahashi disclosed his decision to increase taxes at a most convenient time.

On March 14 the Budget passed the House of Peers without amendment. But the amount voted for the relief of farmers was meager and by the request of the Diet the Government presented an additional budget for the purpose amounting to ¥20,990,000 for Japan proper and ¥8,200,000 for Korea, which passed the Diet as a matter of course.

On March 26 the Session adjourned, passing the budget for the fiscal year 1934-35 and 50 laws.

Political Affairs in 1934–35

The Saito Cabinet Resigns The detention on May 19 of Hideo Kuroda, the Vice-Minister of Finance, on charges connected with the Teikoku Rayon scandal was sufficient reason for the resignation of the Saito Cabinet. This was a matter of political common sense. But on the other hand, the charge partook somewhat of a political nature and it was considered unwise to tender resignation hurriedly. So the resignation was delayed, but the development of the case and the outbreak of other cases to the disadvantage of the Cabinet finally compelled Premier Saito to tender resignation to the Emperor on July 3, 1934. The new cabinet with Admiral Keisuké Okada as Premier came to power on the 8th of the same month.

The Okada Cabinet The Okada Cabinet was virtually the continuation of the Saito Cabinet. It was a non-party cabinet, as was the Saito Cabinet, and had likewise the tiding-over of the crisis years as its objective. When forming the cabinet the first plan was to exclude party men, but later this restriction was modified, due to difficulties which such cabinet would pro-

1 Federacio de Proletaj Kultur Organizoj Japanaj.

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bably meet. Thus it was finally composed of seven men out of officialdom and five party men (2 from the Minseito and 3 from the Seiyukai). The Seiyukai had turned down Okada's invitation to join his cabinet and when three of its members became ministers in the new Cabinet, it forthwith announced their expulsion from the Seiyukai.

Farm-village Problem By the end of October, 1934, the National Treasury disbursed approximately ¥300,000,000 for the relief of farm-villages. This means that the yearly disbursement was approximately ¥100,000,000, and, when left alone, it would necessitate increased taxation. The relief of farm-villages thus assumed the position of an important factor in national finance.

The impending questions which had to be solved were how to dispose of the stock of rice and how to restrict overproduction so as to increase farmers' income by higher prices. The solution of the questions was complicated by the fact that over a half of the farmers could hardly afford to consume rice which they themselves raised because of the high price. This resulted in a shortage of rice in the farm-villages.

In order to cope with the situation, though partially, it was decided at the 65th session of the Diet to increase the fund for purchasing surplus rice, and also the Government undertook to find out more effective means to meet the situation. Under the Okada Cabinet a committee was appointed for the study of the problem from among the members of both Houses and also private persons. The Seiyukai and Minseito were also united in organizing a committee for drafting a more effective law dealing with the problems.

Extraordinary Session and After The Okada Cabinet at first took a lukewarm attitude towards convening an extraordinary session of the Diet in spite of the resolution passed at the last session under the Saito administration and the strong demand on the part of the Seiyukai, which was essentially a farm party. But an unexpected event compelled the Government to give heed to the above demand. A damage greatest since 1923 was sustained in the Kansai district and Central Japan by the typhoon of September 21, 1934. The year 1934 was also a very unfavourable one for farmers. An untimely cold weather checked the growth of rice plants in the north-eastern district and Hokkaido, precipitation was scanty in Shikoku and Kyushu islands, and the south-western half of the country was visited by the typhoon just mentioned. An immediate relief of farmers thus became a national necessity, and on September 28 the Government decided to convene an extraordinary session by December.

The 66th Session An extraordinary session of the Diet was, therefore, convened on November 27 and closed on December 10. The main objective of the session was the relief of the sufferers in a variety of natural calamities in the year. The budget for the relief was as follows :

Year of Disbursement	Amount (in ¥1,000)
1934-5	70,664
1935-6	68,318
1936-and after	74,957
Total	213,940

The budget passed both Houses without amendment, though it was attacked as being too small to meet the need, specially by the Seiyukai.

The 67th Session The regular session of the Diet was convened on December 24, 1934, and closed on March 26, 1935. Notwithstanding the expectation generally entertained of a collision between the Government and the Seiyukai on the various questions pending, both sides were, in the final analysis, willing to come down the wall half way and the session was carried on in peace. The peace was, however, an armed peace and the Seiyukai took care that a number of important government bills were killed. The promise which the Government made at the last session in regard to the relief appropriation was made good to the amount of ¥15,000,000, instead of ¥180,000,000, as was originally demanded by the Seiyukai.

The Government, beside the Budget for 1935-36 which passed without amendment, proposed over 50 bills to the Diet. Of these only 5 important bills passed the Diet and among those shelved there were such important bills as the Rice Control Law, Cocoon Distribution Law, Manure Control Law, Iron and Steel Tariff Law, and the Regulations for Fishing in the Northern Seas.

The session was enlivened unexpectedly with a discussion in regard to the interpretation of the Constitution. It was in February that a criticism on the exposition of the Constitution by Dr. Tatsukichi Minobé, Emeritus Professor at the Tokyo Imperial University and Professor at the Commercial University, was raised. Dr. Minobé's theory is that the Tennō, the Emperor, is the highest institution of the Empire and against this the assailants stat-

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ed that Tennō is the absolute Sovereignty and origin of all laws. The discussion was ended, at least so far as the Houses and the session were concerned, by the promise given by the Government at the initiative of the House of Peers that it would do all to clarify the specific nature of the Japanese State.

Political Affairs in 1935–36

Legislature The year 1935 was rather a poor one in legislative activities. The 67th session of the Diet passed 44 out of the 55 bills presented by the Government and 3 of the bills proposed by the House of Representatives, but the majority of them were of the nature of administrative rules or in connection with the 1935-36 Budget. Few important laws were passed, the principal ones being the Special Profits Tax Law, the Warehouse Law, etc.

Political Movement of the Proletariat The political movement of the proletariat in 1935 was, generally speaking, a continuation of the previous year. Since 1932 the political power of the proleariat has waned mainly due to the nationalistic atmosphere generally prevailing in the political world. But the elections of the members of prefectural assemblies in the fall of 1935 proved favourable and this served to prepare good ground for proletarian parties to try their fortune in the general election for the Diet.

By this time the Marxists had lost their leaders and their political activities had sunk almost underground. They had lost the support of the people because of their misdeeds, such as attacking banks for funds. And side by side with this the tide of extreme rights had exhausted itself and it had not developed into a political party. It was thus that the Social Mass Party grew to power, which now occupies the leading position in the proletarian political movement. It was in 1932 that the party was formed through the amalgamation of the Social Democrats and the Mass Party. The party sent 53 candidates to the prefectural elections just mentioned and secured 25 seats in the assemblies. In the 67th session of the Diet (1934-35) the Social Mass Party had only three seats in the House of Representatives, but put up a brisk fight against the overwhelming power of the bourgeois parties in the House. They presented two important bills, i. e. the tenant bill and a bill for preventing the attachment on food of farm-households for one year. Both of them were shelved, but a prevention law quite similar in nature was passed. On February 9, 1935, the party held a mass meeting in Tokyo "for demanding the immediate dissolution of the House of Representatives." The meeting adopted 6 resolutions and handed them to the Presidents of both Houses and the Premier. The resolutions urged an immediate promulgation of the emergency industrial labour law, an increase of Government subsidies for unemployment relief, the promulgation of the tenant law and a law for preventing the attachment on food of farm-households, a thorough measure for securing the living of labouring classes in cities, the suspension of payment of all Government bonds for two years, and an immediate dissolution of the House of Representatives.

In the elections of members of prefectural assemblies which were carried out in September and October, 1935, the proletarian parties secured 41 seats and 219,854 votes. A comparison of the last three elections follows :

ELECTION OF PROLETARIAN MEMBERS IN PREFECTURAL ASSEMBLIES

	Candidates	Elected	Votes obtained	Votes for each Candidate
1927	216	28	257,832	1,193
1931	213	17	270,376	1,269
1935	96	41	219,854	2,290

Minobé Case After the close of the Diet, Dr. Minobé's case was taken up after some delay by the judicial authorities. He was heard twice by the judges of the Supreme Court in April and September, and the indictment was revoked, Dr. Minobé voluntarily resigning from membership of the House of Peers. The movement of nationalist groups against him, nevertheless, was continued all through the year and the Cabinet issued a statement on the question again on October 15, 1934, acknowledging the points put forward by the nationalists, but the agitation did not stop then and there.

In the beginning of the year 1935, however, liberalism appeared regaining power and criticism of the actions of the national socialists and militarists was heard in a considerable degree at the 67th session of the Diet. The War Ministry seemed amenable to the criticism, as shown by its thoughts and reactionary action on the part of military bodies, the removal of high officers in August, etc. Public opinion evidently welcomed the War Ministry's policy.

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The assassination of Lieutenant-General Nagata, Director of the Board of Military Affairs, on August 12, 1935, by Saburo Aizawa, Lieutenant-Colonel on the active list, was a turning moment for the general policy of the War Ministry. Aizawa was one of the group of officers who were associated with the May 15 affair of 1932. General Hayashi's place was taken by General Kawashima as War Minister in September and the general policy of the War Ministry naturally swung back to the former one.

Dissolution of the House There were many predictions, and hopes in some cases, entertained as to the relation of the Cabinet and the Seiyukai, the Opposition, from the end of 1935 to the beginning of 1936. But the hopes entertained toward effecting a possible understanding remained unrealized and the Seiyukai hardened its front more and more towards the cabinet. Okada, thereupon, asked H. I. M. the Emperor to dissolve the House of Representatives, which was done on January 21, 1936, and it was declared that a general election would be held on February 20.

The strengths of political parties in the House of Representatives at the time of dissolution were as follows :

Total Number of Seats	466
Seiyukai	242
Minseito	127
Kokumin Domei	20
Showakai	24
Social Mass Party	3
Independents	11
Vacancy	39

General Election The 19th General Election was held on February 20, 1936, with the number of eligible voters totalling 14,479,553 and 878 candidates for 466 seats. The warcry of the General Election was "Pure Election". The Government took a mean attitude toward the whole aflair of election, and the result was :

THE 19th GENERAL ELECTION, FEBRUARY 20, 1936

(As it stood on February 24)

Number of Seats in the House of Representatives	466
Number of Voters	14,479,553
Number of Candidates	878
Collective Votes	11,117,116

According to Parties:

	Candidates	Elected	In January	Increase or Decrease	Votes Obtained	%
Seiyukai	336	174	242	−68	4,156,643	37.4
Minseito	296	205	127	+78	4,456,250	40.1
Kokumin Domei	33	15	20	− 5	401,261	3.7
Showakai	49	20	24	− 4	523,663	4.7
Social Mass	30	18	3	+15	518,360	4.6
Other parties	33	9	0	+ 9	285,670	2.6
Independents	101	25	11	+14	775,269	6.9
Total	878	466	427	+39	11,117,116	100.0

The defeat of the Seiyukai which had held an absolute majority in the House was unexpected, as was the great advancement of the Social Mass Party. Reasons were complicated and no final inference can be drawn from the result. But this much was clear that the general demand for a radical change in the country's politics so as to insure and advance the welfare of the mass is reflected in the return of 18 members of the Social Mass Party.

Political Affairs in 1936 and 1937

February 26 Incident

The Cabinet was anything but displeased with the result of the election, for it had brought about the defeat of the Seiyukai. But an event unprecedented in the history of the country since the Restoration of 1868 was in store for it. Early on the morning of February 26, 1936, over 1,480 soldiers rose against it and the high officials, and assassinated Admiral Makoto Saito, Grand Keeper of the Imperial Seals, Korékiyo Takahashi, Finance Minister, and Lieutenant-General Jotaro Watanabé, Inspector-General of Military

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Education, and seriously injured Admiral Kantaro Suzuki, Grand Chamberlain, at their residences.

Martial law was immediately put into force for a part of Tokyo surrounding the Imperial Palace under the command of Lieutenant-General Kohei Kashii. (For a full account of the Incident see the Japan Year Book, 1937, pp. 135–143.)

Formation of the Hirota Cabinet

Admiral Okada and other members of the Cabinet tendered their resignations to the Throne on February 27, taking full responsibility for the Feb. 26 Incident. Prince Saionji was called to Tokyo for his advice in the matter of choosing the succeeding premier. Prince Konoyé, President of the House of Peers, was first recommended, but he asked for Imperial pardon because of his weak health. Then, on March 5, Koki Hirota, Foreign Minister in the Okada Cabinet, was summoned to the Imperial Palace and he accepted the Imperial Order to form a new Cabinet.

The formation of the Hirota Cabinet met difficulties on its course, but was finally completed and the inauguration took place on March 9, 1936.

The first announcement of the new policies of the Hirota Cabinet was made by Dr. Eiichi Baba, Minister of Finance, on March 9, to the effect that the old financial policy of the late Finance Minister Takahashi would not be proceeded with, but as one of the new policies of the cabinet, the Finance Ministry was planning an increase of revenue from taxes and an enlarged floatation of national loans in connection with the budget for 1937–38 in order to meet the increased demands necessitated by changes of the times.

The statement of Prime Minister Hirota, published on March 17, 1936, on the policy of the new Government, rather disappointed the general public with its too reserved and abstract wording, but his intention to follow a central course was well pronounced in the words "over-hasty actions will be avoided through the wisdom of the people and a thorough understanding of the public sentiments."

Imperial Diet, 69th Session The 69th Session of the Imperial Diet was convened on May 1, 1936 and closed on the 27th of the same month. Kojiro Tomita of the Minseito was elected President of the House of Representatives, and the formal opening ceremony was held on the 4th of May in the presence of His Majesty the Emperor, who gave the Imperial Message as follows:

We hereby conduct the ceremony opening the Imperial Diet and so announce to the members of the House of Peers and the House of Representatives.

We rejoice over the fact that the relations of the Imperial Government and foreign nations have been becoming steadily more cordial.

We regret the outbreak of the recent incident in Tokyo. It is expected of Our faithful subjects that they will unite as one, Government and people, civilians and military, in order to promote the development of the national fortunes.

We have ordered the Ministers of State to present to the Imperial Diet the urgent supplementary budget bill and other measures.

It is expected of you that you will deliberate upon them in harmony, thereby fulfilling Our wishes.

The reference to the February 26 Incident in the Imperial Message strongly touched the hearts of the members of the Cabinet and both Houses and the session was carried out in a most serious attitude of mind all through the three weeks. On May 6, Premier Hirota, Foreign Minister Arita, Finance Minister Baba and War Minister Terauchi made speeches on the general policies and what they were planning for the improvement and readjustment of the matters specially coming under their respective jurisdiction. Important points in their speeches related to the strained international relation between Japan and the U.S.S.R., the increase of revenue from taxation and the determination of the authorities to enforce discipline in the Imperial Army. The War Minister gave a full explanation concerning the Feb. 26 Incident to the members of both Houses in a closed meeting on the 7th May and the searching interpellation of Takao Saito of the Minseito at the general meeting of the House of Representatives on the same day drew the keen attention of the House and members of the Cabinet and caused a sensation among the public, gaining the full support of the press.

Many important bills awaited the decision of the Diet in this short 69th Session, such as supplementary budgets, the autonomous rice control bill, the rice control law revision bill, the joint unhulled rice storage subsidy bill, the cocoon disposal control bill, the bill to revise the silk manufacturers' guild law, the bill to revise the silk industry law and the important fertilizer control bill, all of these pertaining to the welfare of

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the agricultural communities, the shipping business control bill, the bill for the establishment of two companies to aid the rehabilitation of the north-eastern districts, the bill for the establishment of a central bank for commercial and industrial guilds, the seditious literature restriction bill, the national mobilization secrets protection bill, and the workers' discharge reserve fund and allowance bill. The supplementary budgets (given in full in the Japan Year Book, 1936, pp. 237-280) passed both Houses without amendment. As to the workers' discharge reserve fund and allowance bill, hot discussions arose from both the sides of capital and labour, but the bill was finally passed after important amendments had been made to make it applicable only to factories and mines with 50 or more workers and to make the discharge allowance less than 3 per cent of the wages paid up to the time of discharge. The bills in connection with rice control were presented to the Diet to settle the long debated problems started with the presentation of similar bills which had been laid on the table at the 67th Session in 1935 after a desperate fight between farmers and merchants. This time they just got through both Houses with a conditional clause added to the original. The seditious literature restriction bill passed with important amendments to restrict the scope of its application and changing the name of the law into the seditious literature temporary restriction law. The Houses passed all the 46 bills presented by the Government in addition to the budgetary bills and over 150 memorials and resolutions, with the exception of the national mobilization secrets protection bill which was laid on the table because of the danger of its restricting the freedom of the people.

Important Policies of the Hirota Cabinet The much talked about new policies of the Hirota Cabinet met with difficulties before being finally decided upon. A part of the Government insisted on the separation of the defence policies and the general policies, the greater importance to be placed on the former, while the other part required the realization of numerous political, social and economic measures to fulfil the special mission of the Cabinet and to answer the expectations of the people, who wanted something in the way of a reformation after the precious sacrifice of the Feb. 26 Incident.

Important policies and new measures heaped up on the table of the Cabinet meetings in such numbers that discussion on them became impossible in the limited time of the usual meetings, so after preliminary selection and study, a Cabinet meeting to consider important national policies was held on August 25, 1936, when it decided on and published the following 7 national policies :

(1) Completion of National Defence ; (2) Improvement of the Educational System ; (3) Readjustment of National and Local Tax Systems ; (4) Stabilization of the Living of the People by a more effective prevention of natural disasters, completion of health protection, further economic measures for helping villagers and city merchants and manufacturers of small means ; (5) Promotion of Industry and Expansion of Foreign Trade by the increase and control of electric power, self-supply of liquid fuel and iron and steel, full supply of materials for the fibre industries, aid and control of foreign trade, encouragement of aviation and sea transportation businesses and encouragement of emigration ; (6) Establishment of important policies with regard to the relation of the Empire with Manchoukuo such as the emigration of Japanese to Manchoukuo or the greater investment of the Japanese capital in that country ; (7) Improvement or Reformation of the Administrative System.

Advance to the National Control of Economics The financial policy of the Hirota Cabinet advanced to the national control of important economic organs and industrial enterprises. The phrase "Quasi-wartime economic system," which was frequently used by the Financial Minister and journalists in the latter half of the year, well voiced the Government's intention for national economic control. The control cannot be said to be as thorough as that in Fascist countries, but it entered in no small degree into the free commercial and industrial fields in 1936. The first aim of this economic control was the completion of national defence, the second was the remedying of the defects of individualistic capitalism and the third was the establishment of an economic policy of self-sufficiency along with the world tendency of forming economic blocs. From the outset, the Hirota Cabinet took as its first mission the strengthening of national defence although it did not by any means try to destroy the existing capitalistic economic system or reject the old principle of commercial freedom, but it purported to effect a peaceful change

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in the economic system of Japan, beginning with those enterprises the control of which was an acute necessity for the betterment of the life of the people and the strengthening of defence.

Among the bills which were put by the Government before the 69th session of the Diet and which passed both Houses, were many which aimed at this betterment of the life of the people and the strengthening of defence, for instance, the Rice Control Law, the Cocoon Disposition Control Law, the Important Fertilizers Business Control Law, the Important Commodities of Trade Control Law, the Automobile Manufacturing Business Law, the Revised Industrial Control Law, and the Navigation Control Law. These laws had been planned by former cabinets so were not the legitimate offspring of the Hirota Cabinet control ideals, but they passed into law because of the Diet's desire to strengthen economic control to meet the quasi-wartime needs.

Sino-Japanese Issue On August 24, 1936 a Chinese mob attacked four Japanese at Chengtu, Szechwan province, killing two newspaper correspondents and seriously injuring the other two. This event aroused the indignation of the whole Japanese nation as similar misdeeds against Japanese subjects in China had become rather frequent. Negotiations between the Japanese envoys at Nanking and Chinese Foreign officials for the peaceful settlement of these matters were becoming a daily feature.

The Japanese Government and people took the occurrence of these regrettable incidents as a natural outcome of the anti-Japanese education and policy of the Nanking Government. The recurrence of such incidents could not be prevented, the Japanese inferred, by a mere proclamation of the Chinese Government enjoining on Chinese people to behave in a more friendly manner toward the Japanese. The Japanese Government seemed rather too cautious, while the public opinion in Japan was strong enough to back the Government in taking any aggressive measures on China. The Nanking Government took a negative attitude all through and, taking advantage of the East Suiyuan issue at the end of the year, communicated to the Japanese representatives that it would be difficult to bring the Nanking negotiation to a successful conclusion so long as the East Suiyuan question was not settled, and assumed an attitude threatening to repudiate all agreements so far reached. The final outcome of all conversations between the representatives of the two Governments, which had extended over three months, was the visit of Ambassador Kawagoe to Mr. Chang Chun, Chinese Minister for Foreign Affairs, on December 3, 1936 when a note embodying points on which agreement had been reached was handed him, and the Nanking parley entered a holiday, both sides publishing statements contradicting each other.

The Sino-Japanese issue in the last three months of 1936 left the final solution to a later occasion. The Japanese press and the people as a whole were not satisfied with the activities of the authorities concerned with the issue, considering their attitude as disclosing weakness on the part of the Hirota Cabinet and taking, on the other hand, the unfriendly attitude of the Nanking Government so heavily to heart that another crisis between the two nations seemed likely at any moment.

Control of Electric Power Control of electric power in Japan by the Government was included in the items of the seven national policies set out by the Hirota Cabinet as mentioned elsewhere and became one of the most important subjects of discussion in industrial and commercial circles. The plan was representative of the national control of all economic enterprises and the existing electric companies were necessarily opposed to it as against their interests, and the economic world condemned it as being contrary to the principle of commercial freedom and a kind of public robbery of another's property because under the plan it was intended to purchase compulsorily all the facilities and equipments of the companies at a price estimated by the Government. Heading the criticism of the plan the Ministry of Communications, the compiler of the bill, made amendments to the first plan, but the main difficulty lay in the value of the fixed assets of the power companies which were capitalised aggregately at over ¥800,000,000, besides which much doubt was entertained as to the practical result of the control, which aimed at the lowering of the price of electric power. The presentation of the bill to the 70th session of the Diet at the beginning of 1937 was therefore postponed and the question left over for the decision of the succeeding Konoé Cabinet.

Japan-German Agreement In cognizance of the fact that the object of the Communistic International, or the so-called Comintern, is the disintegration of existing States recognized by it as

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Imperialistic or capitalist, and that its interference in the internal affairs of nations not only endangers their internal peace but threatens international peace, and desiring to co-operate for defence against communistic disintegration, Japan and Germany agreed, on November 25, 1936, on a mutual exchange of information concerning the activities of the Comintern, confer upon necessary measures of defence and carry out such measures in close co-operation.

Positive Attitude of Political Parties

The 70th session of the Imperial Diet was convened on December 24, 1936, to sit for three months ending with March 25, 1937. The difficulties of the Hirota Cabinet were expected to arise over the Tax Increase Bill, the Electric Power State Management Bill and the Compulsory Education Prolongation Bill and it was felt that the Government must exert itself to overcome the antagonistic forces represented by many members of both Houses. To make the matters worse, there was a dissatisfaction at the foreign policy of the Government in general and a still smouldering complaint at the Government's attitude towards the political parties.

From what transpired at the meetings of the political parties preparatory to the 70th session of the Diet it was revealed that the parties were going to take a much more positive attitude in the discussions in the coming session of the Diet than they had been wont to do in former sessions. The Imperial edict at the opening of the 69th session called forth the sense of responsibility anew, not only among Governmental circles but also among party men, and the latter began to pay closer attention to the doings of the Hirota Cabinet. They were expected to enter into hot discussions over many drastic measures to be taken by the Government for political, economic and educational renovation discordant, in their eyes, to the present state of national progress, together with evident failures in the handling of international affairs by the Government.

The 70th Session of the Imperial Diet

The 70th session of the Imperial Diet, convened on December 24, 1936, was of great import to the Hirota Cabinet, which had been formed to cope with the grave state of national and international affairs and the February 26 Incident and which was now to ask the judgement of the nation concerning its plans and administration for the first time, because the 69th session had been a short and extraordinary one. There was a fresh expectation in general for the session because it was to be held for the first time in the new and permanent edifice of the Imperial Diet Building which had been completed in November, 1936.

Before the formal opening of the session the political parties held their general meetings and gave voice to what they thought of the general situation and their attitude towards the Government.

The Miniseito published its statement, saying, "The present state of national and international affairs in Japan calls for the fundamental reformation of international policies and administration of national affairs. But what the present Government is doing is far from their promise for the reformation of national administration thus causing a general unrest in the banking and industrial circles and deepening the economic depression among the working classes in urban and country districts alike so that the whole nation is put on the verge of an outbreak of thought confusion, while the foreign policy of the Cabinet has brought about a standstill of diplomacy between the country and Russia, China or Great-Britain, because of its inability to establish a stable diplomatic policy." The Seiyukai put emphasis on the effective activities of the Imperial Diet as an organ representing the mass of people in answer to the Imperial wish for discussing important matters with the subjects, calling special attention to the new taxation policies of the Government and its wavering diplomatic policy concerning matters pertaining to the welfare of the Oriental countries. The Social Mass party passed decisions on waging war, against the oppression of the Government of the Governmental labour unions, on a movement for the institution of the Trade Union Law and Tenant Law, on free discussion in the Diet, on the Budget, the revision of the tax system, the reformation of the governmental system, the revision of the Election Law and the control of the electric power business, and on the realization of a diplomatic policy in accordance with the wishes of the people, evincing their anti-Fascist political ideas.

The Strength of the Political Parties

The strength of the political parties in

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the Houses on the day of the opening of the Imperial Diet was as follows:

The House of Peers:	
Princes of the Blood	18
The Kenkyukai	160
The Koseikai	66
The Kayokai	42
The Koyu Club	36
The Dowakai	34
The Doseikai	22
Independents	30
Total	408
The House of Representatives:	
The Minseito	205
The Seiyukai	171
The Showakai	25
The Kokumin-Domei	12
The Tohokai	9
The Social Mass Party and Local Proletarians	21
Other small groups	18
Independents	4
Vacant seats	1
Total	466

The general atmosphere at the opening of the 70th session of the Diet suggested a strong attitude of the leading political parties against the policies of the Government, especially against the lukewarm Arita diplomacy. But the collision between the House of Representatives and the Hirota Cabinet occurred on January 21 in connection with the interpellation of Mr. Hamada and the answer of Lieutenant-General Terauchi, War Minister.

Resignation of the Hirota Cabinet The Hirota Cabinet tendered its resignation en bloc to the Throne on January 23, 1937, after two days extraordinary adjournment of the Diet. The events surrounding the formation of the succeeding Cabinet revealed many facts important to Japan's history of politics and gave valuable suggestions concerning the future of the constitutional government of Japan.

The cause of the resignation of the Hirota Cabinet appeared to be in the apparent dissension between the Cabinet and the political parties and the lack of the Premier's earnestness in pushing his policies bacause of the weakening support of the military.

Premier Hirota's attitude toward the 70th Session of the Diet was rather negative. Criticism of the diplomatic failure of the Hirota Cabinet in general and the discouraging atmosphere regarding the important bills and budget before the meeting of the Diet was such that it was expected that the political parties would force the resignation of the Government. Both the Minseito and the Seiyukai were represented by two members in the Cabinet, yet their attitude towards it became worse with the approach of January 21 when the 70th session of the Diet was to begin its business. Premier Hirota took no measures to better his position, and made no visit to the presidents of the leading parties to get their understanding as to the standpoint of the Government. It is usually understood, in such a case, that the Government is aggressive and disregards the co-operation of the political parties. But it was not so in Hirota's case, for he easily yielded to the adverse situation and handed in his resignation after but two days' deliberation, in spite of all surmises in political circles that there might come either a dissolution of the House of Representatives, or the Government would manage matters so as to get through the 70th Session and resign, if necessary, after the session, and after having made full preparations for the quick succession of a new cabinet.

The hot words exchanged between the War Minister and Mr. Kunimatsu Hamada on January 21 were too insignificant to be the cause of the resignation of the Hirota Cabinet, but the Army was unwilling to discuss matters any further with the party men in the House of Representatives, not because of the alleged insult of Mr. Hamada against them but for the reason that there was a difference of opinion between the Army and members of the House of Representatives in regard to the recognition of the seriousness of the situation which Japan was thrown into judged from the declarations of the leading parties at their general meetings and the move of the party men in the Houses. The Army insisted upon an immediate dissolution of the House of Representatives. Mr. Hamada and his party found no reason for making an apology on what he had said in his interpellation although the general atmosphere among the parties seemed to be towards a compromise.

Opinions were divided among the Cabinet members as to the dissolution of the House of Representatives and Navy Minister Vice-Admiral Osami Nagano and Dr. Gotaro Ogawa, Minister of Commerce and Industry, took the trouble to try and arbitrate between the dissenting parties in and out of the Cabinet. Dr. Ogawa belonged to the Minseito and was anxious to bring the matter to a satisfactory conclusion in order to get the budget passed by the Diet, seeing that parties were not actu-

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ally opposed to it, and to save his comrades from the blow of dissolution. Vice-Admiral Nagano found no reason for a deadly clash between the Government and the Lower House in the quarrel of the War Minister and Mr. Hamada, and was gravely concerned about the passage of the budget, which was threatened with postponement for at least half a year by the possible dissolution, for the Navy wanted to hasten the completion of its programme with the coming of the first year of freedom from treaty disarmament. The two Ministers had a consultation and the Minister of the Navy called on the Presidents of the Minseito and Seiyukai on the night of January 22 and early in the morning of the following day, and got the full understanding of the two Presidents.

But all the efforts of the Ministers proved futile. The Army took a firm stand and handed the resignation of the War Minister Lieutenant-General Terauchi to the Premier by the morning of the 23rd, evincing thereby the uncompromising attitude of the Army on the issue.

Premier Hirota did not give his consent to the asking of the Throne for the dissolution of the Lower House, but, on the contrary, decided on his own accord to give up all measures for maintaining the life of the Cabinet. He probably saw it useless to push the matter any further. He saw that the support of the circles who wanted a quick and drastic renovation of the political and economic systems of Japan had become weak because of their dissatisfaction at his too cautious way of handling important matters. Besides, the movements in political circles, public and secret, had suggested that some schemes for the change of the Government had been going on. As a matter of fact several propositions for the establishment of a new political party continued to appear in the press in preparation for the bringing about of a new Cabinet. On January 23, 1937, Premier Hirota announced his reason of resignation to the effect that since assuming the duties of Premier by imperial Order in March, 1936, he had done his best for the proper administration of state affairs, but in spite of all his efforts the difficulty of the political situation had become an unsurmountable obstacle.

On the same day the War Minister published his statement in regard to his stand on the matter. "Mr. Hamada's address in the House is not to be taken as the reason of my resignation. It is true that leading parties have their members in the Cabinet, but in spite of this fact, their declarations and presidents' addresses at their general meetings before the opening of the Diet, the interpellations of their representatives on the 21st of January, and the general atmosphere of the House of Representatives on the same day clearly indicate that there is a great gap between the understanding of Japan's present situation, national and international, by the Army and by the political parties. It is hard, in my opinion, to surmount the difficulties before us by a temporary compromise unless we all come to the right recognition of Japan's real situation. The existing state of affairs leads me to the conclusion that they are against my hope for the strengthening of military discipline, completion of national defence and renovation of state administration."

Ugaki's Failure General Kazushige Ugaki who had been enjoying a quiet life for years at Nagaoka, Shizuoka prefecture came up to Tokyo on January 25, 1937, and was granted an audience and received Imperial order to form a cabinet, and then began his task, first to get War and Navy Ministers. But he met with strong antagonism from the Army which answered that no high officers were willing to be recommended to the portfolio in spite of the combined efforts of the Chief of the General Staff, the War Minister and the Inspector-General of Military Education. Ugaki was supported by almost the entire press and majority of people, who sent him thousands of letters and telegrams of encouragement to fight against the adverse situation in which he was quite unexpectedly put. It was impossible for him, however, to choose the War Minister without the recommendation of the three just mentioned because of the regulation that limited the post to a General or Lieutenant-General in active service, the number of these being very small and all of them being under direct control of the Ministry.

Many suggestions were proposed to General Ugaki as extraordinary means of accomplishing his purpose, but he did not like to take any drastic measure in face of the apparent antagonism because of the peace of the country, and after five days' deliberation and negotiations, that is, on the 29th, he gave up his task and asked the pardon of the Throne for his inability to form a Cabinet.

The Birth of the Hayashi Cabinet

Whereupon, Mr. Yuasa, Grand Keeper of the Imperial Seals was sent to the

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Genro, Prince Saionji, who recommended, this time, first, Baron Kiichiro Hiranuma, President of the Privy Council, and, second, General Senjuro Hayashi. The first candidate declined and General Hayashi was called to the Palace and was ordered to form the Cabinet.

The birth of the Hayashi Cabinet was premature for it consisted of but eight members instead of thirteen. The eight were :

Premier, Minister for Foreign Affairs and Minister of Education,	General Senjuro Hayashi
Minister for Home Affairs,	Mr. Kakichi Kawarada
Minister of Finance and Minister for Overseas Affairs,	Mr. Toyotaro Yuki
Minister of War,	Leutenant-General Kotaro Nakamura
Minister of Navy	Vice-Admiral Mitsumasa Yonai
Minister of Justice	Mr. Suehiko Shiono
Minister of Agriculture and Forestry and Minister of Communications,	Mr. Tatsunosuké Yamazaki
Minister of Commerce and Industry and Minister of Railways,	Engineer Vice-Admiral Takuo Godo

Dissolution of the House of Representatives The 70th Session of the Imperial Diet which had been convened on December, 24, 1936, was closed on March 31, 1937, with the Dissolution of the House of Representatives. The session was a very extraordinary one, for, during its sitting, the Hirota Cabinet resigned and the Hayashi Cabinet came into power. It adjourned three times, at the end of January and in the beginning of February, on account of the change of the Cabinet, and at the end of March it was prolonged for 6 days beginning with the 26th and finally on the last day it met the Dissolution. All through the Cabinet, both old and new, was unsympathetic with the parties in the House of Representatives, while parties, on their part, took a negative and equivocal attitude toward these governments as a whole, although some of their members were brave enough to make attacks on the movement of a part of the Imperial Army or Government's social policies.

The Dissolution was also peculiar. The Diet was closing on March 31 in peace, hurriedly passing resolutions and bills left over to that day, 49 important bills including the budget for 1937-38 being voted already, when it all of a sudden was dissolved to the surprise of the members of the House of Representatives and the general public.

The Government stated concerning the reason of the Dissolution as follows :

To cope with prevailing conditions at home and abroad, surmount the current difficulties and promote the national fortunes, co-operation between the Government and the people in the proper sense is absolutely essential. Thus the Cabinet, though it had just been formed, sought in the present session of the Diet the passage of many bills in all sincerity. The manner in which the Lower House has discussed these bills, however, has been extremely lacking in earnestness, with the result that proceedings have been blocked with regard to important bills having the greatest bearing on national defence and stabilization of the living of the people, urgent business held up and doubts aroused as to whether parliamentary discussion could be carried on further in the way required by the seriousness of the prevailing situation.

We therefore saw much reason in the clamour for renovation of the Diet. In the hope of appealing to the just conscience of the people, submitting to the will of the people and making manifest the principles of the constitutional government of Japan, and at the same time in expectation of sound political awakening on the part of the people and co-operation between them and the Government in surmounting the present serious situation, we have petitioned the Throne for dissolution of the House of Representatives.

The 20th General Election

Results of the General Election in April, 1937 Of the total 122 election districts not one was carried complete by either the Minseito or the Seiyukai, the two leading parties. On the contrary, the number of districts in which all the candidates of these parties were defeated was 13 for the Minseito and 7 for the Seiyukai, due largely to the rise in the power of the Social Mass Party. The following tables, compiled by the Asahi, show the ups and downs of the political parties at the election :

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NUMBER OF VOTES OBTAINED BY PARTIES

Parties	Number of votes In Tokyo	Total
Minseito	271,697	3,666,067
Seiyukai	214,301	3,608,882
Social Mass Party	174,808	900,916
Showakai	18,196	404,846
Kokumin-Domei	22,292	281,826
Tohokai	—	212,505
Other small parties	61,097	286,661
Independents	41,365	845,612

SUCCESSFUL CANDIDATES BY PARTIES

Parties	Candidates	Elected	%
Minseito	266	179	67.3
Seiyukai	268	175	65.3
Social Mass Party	65	36	55.4
Showakai	35	18	51.4
Kokumin-Domei	20	11	55.0
Tohokai	20	11	55.0
Other small parties	43	7	16.3
Independents	109	29	26.6

DIFFERENCE OF POWER OF PARTIES BEFORE AND AFTER THE ELECTION

Parties	Before the Election	After the Election	Increase (+) or Decrease (−)
Minseito	206	179	−27
Seiyukai	172	175	+ 3
Social Mass Party	19	36	+17
Showakai	24	18	− 6
Kokumin-Domei	11	11	—
Tohokai	9	11	+ 2
Other small parties	4	7	+ 3
Independents	19	29	+10

NUMBER OF OLD AND NEW MEMBERS OF THE HOUSE OF REPRESENTATIVES

Parties	New	Old	Former	Total
Minseito	21	149	9	179
Seiyukai	31	122	22	175
Social Mass Party	15	19	2	36
Showakai	0	16	2	18
Kokumin-Domei	0	11	0	11
Tohokai	3	8	0	11
Other small parties	2	4	1	7
Independents	9	17	3	29
Total	81	346	39	466

The general election of April 30, 1937, was carried out without a clearer aim than that of the Government, which asked for the "repentance" of the House of Representatives because its behaviour had been unsatisfactory in the eyes of the Cabinet and the election was the outcome of the Dissolution brought about by its behaviour. It was neither a fight between the Government and the parties around important issues nor an election of confidence on Government's policies. In any case, the results of the election were entirely against the Government. The victory of parties whose platforms were decidedly against the Government was overwhelming, and the combined forces of the Minseito and the Seiyukai in the Lower House kept the absolute majority as it was in March. The number of the representatives sent by the Social Mass Party, which was most strongly opposed to the Government's political ideas, was nearly doubled. On the other hand, the number of the representatives of the Showakai, the ministerial party, was reduced from 24 to 18 and another pro-governmental party the Kokumin-Domei gained nothing, while the independents who were in sympathy with the Government sent but a few members to the new House of Representatives. All the efforts of the Government to turn the results to its benefit were defied. The general election presented the people with a chance of expressing their deep concern with the political affairs of the country and the bustle of the election which had been thought meaningless by many at the outset gave birth to many points suggestive of the future of the Imperial Diet. The first of them was that the voters did not sympathize with the political ideas destructive of the existing parliamentary system, the second was that they showed a strong opposition against the attitude of the Government which seemed to fill the political stage to the exclusion of others, and the third was that they expressed their earnest wish for the renovation of the Diet in the votes that went to the Social Mass Party.

Voting Analysis According to the Local Bureau of the Home Department, which has been investigating the voting at the 20th general election of April 30, 1937, the percentage of absentees increased by 5.4%, being 26.7 against 21.3 at the previous election, and in the comparison of invalid votes, blank votes increased by 2,012 and voting papers on which were written miscellaneous things increased by 3,682, while on the whole the total number of invalid votes decreased by 2,779.

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	The 20th General Election (April 30, 1937)	The 19th General Election (February 20, 1936)
Total number of electors on the election day	14,075,010	14,303,780
Number of voters	10,317,756	11,249,663
Absentees	3,757,254	3,054,118
Percentage of absentees	26.7	21.3
Total number of valid votes	10,203,677	11,132,677
„ „ „ spoilt votes	114,040	116,819
Blank votes	13,130	11,118
Voting papers containing miscellaneous written matter.	25,101	21,419
Others	75,809	84,282

Advance of the Social Mass Party One of the most outstanding results of the 20th general election of April 30, 1937, was the advance of the Social Mass Party. The party gained 18 seats more than it did at the 19th general election of February 20, 1936, and obtained 382,556 more votes. A comparison of the three largest parties at the two general elections follows :

RESULTS OF THE 19TH AND THE 20TH GENERAL ELECTIONS

Parties	19th Election	20th Election	Percentage of Increase (+) or Decrease (−)
Minseito			
No. of persons elected	205	179	− 12.5
No. of votes obtained	4,456,250	3,666,067	− 17.7
Seiyukai			
No. of persons elected	174	175	+ 0.5
No. of votes obtained	4,156,643	3,608,882	− 13.1
Social Mass Party			
No. of persons elected	18	36	+100.0
No. of votes obtained	518,360	900,916	+ 73.8

In many important election districts in Tokyo, Osaka, Kyoto and Kobé, candidates of the Social Mass Party obtained the largest number of votes. It was said that a large number of votes went to the party not only from labourers and farmers but also from well-educated people, small traders and industrialists, and even from Government officials.

Premier's Statement On May 3, Premier General Hayashi published a statement in connection with the result of the 20th general election as follows : Japan's political situation, national and international, is critical to the utmost extent. To surmount the crisis there is no other way than to aim at a radical reform in all directions, discarding conventionalism and yet not overrunning the times. With this conviction the Government worked with the 70th Session of the Imperial Diet and came to realize that the renovation of the constitution of the Diet is one of the important things basic for the reform of all other organs of State, being the first step of realizing the principles of Imperial constitutional government. I humbly asked the Throne for the Dissolution of the House of Representatives after a careful deliberation of these points, apart from the success or failure of the Government's policy in this respect. The 20th general election was carried out fairly. We expect the new representatives of the people to sacrifice their self-interest and to be eager to serve H.I.M. the Emperor in the momentous work of realizing the ideals of the Foundation of the Country in accordance with the principles of the national polity, in helping the progress of our unique constitutional government and in making contributions to the Imperial régime fully versed in the present political situation of Japan. This is what the whole nation expects of them. The Government is determined to carry on faithfully its policies indispensable at this time with the conviction and expectation stated above. We earnestly require the full co-operation of the people and their whole-

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hearted sympathy with the intention of the Government.

This statement was received by the public as voicing the Government's determination to carry on its mission in the face of all criticism none of which supported the Government's stand. The unanimous opinion was that the Government would have to retreat in a few months, either before the proposed extraordinary session of the Diet in August or at its beginning when a non-confidence decision would be passed by a unanimous vote.

Resignation of the Hayashi Cabinet

In spite of the Premier's statement matters went from bad to worse for the Hayashi Government. Movements for the formation of a new ministerial party all failed, while the much talked about disruption, if there had been any possibility of one, of the existing large parties was checked by the Dissolution and the general election, for these events worked contrary to the hope of the Government for bringing about such a disruption and strengthened the unity of political parties in their common fight against the Hayashi Cabinet.

The general state of political affairs and the trend of public opinion in May tied up Hayashi's hand in trying to get persons for the vacant ministerial chairs. Besides, secret movements for a new cabinet began to be more active, along with the public movements and decisions of leading parties for the downfall of the Hayashi régime.

On May 31, 1937, the resignation of the Hayashi Cabinet en bloc was finally announced.

Konoé Comes to Power

The public nomination for the new Premier was Prince Fumimaro Konoé, President of the House of Peers. The Imperial wish was the same, for the Genro, Prince Saionji, the President of Privy Council Baron Hiranuma and the Grand Keeper of the Imperial Seals Mr. Yuasa unitedly recommended Konoé to the Throne on the first of June, 1937. Late in the afternoon, Prince Konoé was granted an audience in the Imperial Palace and received the Imperial Order for the formation of a new cabinet.

Konoé's coming to power was welcomed by all circles in Japan. His family prestige is second to none among the Japanese subjects, his political career as the President of the House of Peers has been brilliant, and his knowledge of and sympathy with the conditions of the people as well as his understanding of military issues is thought to be deep and thorough. He is young, being 46 years old, and has but one defect, that of physical weakness.

The formation of the new cabinet went on smoothly in favourable circumstances. Prince Konoé was successful in the first place in persuading the War and Navy Ministers to stay in their former chairs, then in bringing Dr. Eiichi Baba, Minister of Finance in the Hirota Cabinet, to the chair of Home Miniter, and finally in getting Mr. Koki Hirota, the former Premier, for the Foreign Affairs portfolio. According to his policy of forming a cabinet in which all the political forces are represented, Prince Konoé was able to get one Minister from each leading party, Mr. Ryutaro Nagai, Chief Secretary of the Minseito, to be Minister of Communications, and Mr. Chikuhei Nakajima, one of the four members of the Acting-Presidential Board of the Seiyukai,to be Minister of Railways.

The Konoé Cabinet was formally inaugurated in the presence of His Majesty the Emperor at the Phœnix Hall of the Imperial Palace, at half past three in the afternoon of the fifth of June, 1937. The 13 members of the Konoé Cabinet were :

Premier,	Prince Fumimaro Konoé, President of the House of Peers
Minister for Foreign Affairs,	Mr. Koki Hirota, M.H.P., former Premier
Minister for Home Affairs,	Dr. Eiichi Baba, M.H.P., former Minister of Finance
Minister of Finance,	Mr. Okinori Kaya, former Vice-Minister of Finance
Minister of War,	General Gen Sugiyama, who held the same portfolio in the Hayashi Cabinet
Minister of Marine,	Admiral Mitsumasa Yonai, who held the same portfolio in the Hayashi Cabinet
Minister of Justice,	Mr. Suehiko Shiono, who held the same portfolio in the Hayashi Cabinet
Minister of Education,	Mr. Eiji Yasui, Governor of Osaka Prefecture

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Minister of Agriculture and Forestry,	Count Yoriyasu Arima, M.H.P., Chairman of the Board of Trustees of the Central Chest for Co-operative Societies
Minister of Commerce and Industry,	Mr. Shinji Yoshino, former Vice-Minister of Commerce and Industry
Minister of Communications,	Mr. Ryutaro Nagai, M.H.R., Chief-Secretary of the Minseito
Minister of Railways,	Mr. Chikuhei Nakajima, M.H.R., Member of the Acting-Presidential Board of the Seiyukai
Minister for Overseas Affairs,	Mr. Sonyu Ohtani, M.H.P.

The new Cabinet came into power with the full support of the press, the military circle, the leading political parties and the economic world. It was believed that the Konoé Cabinet intended to make all efforts to overcome the quasi-wartime crisis by the united force of the defence services, the bureaucracy and the political parties, keeping harmony with military forces and heeding the wishes of officialdom. The economic policy of the Cabinet was to adjust the international payments of Japan, to establish a concrete programme for the development of productive power in the country and to get a clear prospect of demand and supply and control the relations of the two most effectively.

Birth of a New Party The formation of a party, either entirely new or by the amalgamation of radical elements in the Minseito and the Seiyukai or by the supposed disruption of the Seiyukai, had been much talked about in the last two years. But, the unity of members of these two leading parties was much stronger than was supposed by many, and became much more so after the dissolution of the House of Representatives in March, this year. Therefore, eminent figures in the political world who it had been presumed would assume the presidency of the new party made no move in that direction.

In the meantime, the Seiji Kakushin Kyogikai or the Political Reform Council began a movement for the formation of a new party, and held, on July 8, a preparative meeting of ten committee men including Genkuro Eto, Katsumaro Akamatsu, Shiro Koiké and Tsunekichi Yamazaki. At the meeting it was decided that the name of the new party should be the Nippon Kakushinto (the Nippon Reform Party), and programmes were prepared for holding the inaugural meeting on the 18th at the Shiba Kyocho Kaikan (Shiba Hall of the Capital and Labour Harmonizing Council) and for beginning activities with a lecture meeting to be held on the 21st at the Hibiya Public Hall.

The proposed general meeting for the organization of the Party was held as scheduled, when representatives of member bodies gathered together from all parts of Japan including the four members of the House of Representatives, Genkuro Eto, Katsumaro Akamatsu, Shiro Koiké and Tsunekichi Yamazaki. The meeting passed decisions on the general principle and policies of the party as follows:

General Principle. The Nippon Kakushinto aims at the manifestation of the true Nippon in accordance with the principle of her national polity.

Policies (1) The establishment of a constitutional government and administrative system unique to Japan; (2) the establishment of a national planned economy based on its unification through peace and war times; (3) the unification of industry and economy in Japan and Manchoukuo; (4) the establishment of fundamental readjustment policies for national and local finances; (5) the completion of the provisions for national defence and the programme of national mobilization; (6) the establishment of an international policy in accordance with Imperial Justice; (7) the establishment of an educational system and means in accordance with Japanese principles; (8) the re-establishment and creation of national culture in accordance with Japanese principles; (9) the institution of measures for the elevation of the national physical standard; and (10) the establishment of policies for the relief of poverty-stricken people.

Officials of the party were appointed as follows: Chairman of the General Committee, Genkuro Eto; Chief for the Party Affairs, Katsumaro Akamatsu; General Committee, Shiro Koiké, Tsunekichi Yamazaki, Itcho Sasai, Tatsuo Tsukui, Kyuzo Takayama, Hyozo Kanda, I. Ishibashi and Katsumaro Akamatsu; Chief of the Policy Investigation Council, Itcho Sasai.

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The 71st Session of the Imperial Diet

The 71st extraordinary session of the Imperial Diet was convened on 25th of July, 1937, the opening ceremony being honoured by the presence of H.I.M. the Emperor.

The addresses of the Premier, the Minister for Foreign Affairs and the Minister of Finance were delivered at the general meeting of both Houses on the 27th.

The minute reports of the North China Incident made by the War Minister, General Gen Sugiyama, before the Diet on the same day and on several other occasions held the attention of the audience, and the Diet gave consent to the Government's request for the second supplementary budget in relation to the North China Incident which reached ¥419,600,000, without any amendment.

The 71st Session of the Diet passed two bills presented by the Lower House and the 34 bills introduced by the Government, including budgets for the Incident and for the establishment of the Ministry of Health and Social Affairs. Only one bill was laid on the table. The closing ceremony was held on the 8th of August, 1937.

The Board of Planning The Imperial Ordinance authorizing the formation of the Board of Planning, and ordering the abolition of the Board of Investigation, was promulgated on May 14, 1937. On the same day, the new Board embarked on its important mission with the appointment of a President, a Vice-President, and other officials.

According to Article I of the Ordinance the functions of the Board are

(1) To make recommendations to the Cabinet, acting on the instruction of the Prime Minister. With pertinent observations, both in regard to important national policies and to their co-ordination and adjustment.

(2) To investigate the important policies proposed to the Cabinet by its Ministers and to make recommendations based on due observation of them. Policies proposed by different Departments are referred to the Board, which is to study them in the light of their importance, and investigate them from the point of view of the unity and harmony of all national policies.

(3) To investigate important policies, and to study the means of co-ordinating and adjusting them.

(4) To make recommendations concerning control over budget estimates on proposed policies.

(5) To have authority to call for explanations or explanatory data such as deemed necessary for carrying out its functions outlined above.

The North China Incident

On Wednesday night, July 7, 1937, a small unit of Japanese troops was engaged in manoeuvres on their usual grounds, near Marco Polo Bridge, southwest of Peiping, and in the vicinity of Lukouchiao and Lungwangmiao on the Yungting River. With the regular summer inspection but a fortnight ahead, all Japanese troops in the area had been drilling day and night for weeks. The Chinese authorities had been notified of these manoeuvres, as usual, and nothing untoward had occurred or been anticipated.

But suddenly, at 11:40 o'clock on this particular night, the Japanese troops were fired upon by Chinese soldiers from the directions of Lukouchiao and Lungwangmiao. This small incident brought in its train the present China Affair. (See Chapter VI.)

Political Affairs in 1937 and 1938

The political affairs of the country in the second half of 1937 and the first half of 1938 were almost exclusively concerned with the international developments arising from the China Affair which began on July 7, 1937. The Government, the political parties and the people of Japan were united closely in pressing forward Japan's national policy with regard to the East Asiatic continent by concentrating the national power to the utmost. All the conflicting opinions and movements were promptly set aside before the great task, and the nation was ready for utmost sacrifice both on the war and the home front.

Political Parties The year was one of inertia for all political parties. They had no time to indulge in expositions of their ideas and ideals for the situation called for united action and they were not slow to co-operate with the Government in all important matters, while the radical factions readily changed their views in conformity with the general trend of thought among the people who strongly felt the need for united action on the continent.

At the end of 1936 and the beginning

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of 1937 the political parties were tending toward a revival of the situation which prevailed before the February 26 affair of 1936, especially in regard to foreign relations. But events came thick and fast and the political parties could do little to influence their course. There was at first General Ugaki's failure to form a cabinet, followed by the doings of the Hayashi Cabinet which was a going-back to old bureaucracy, and finally the formation of the Konoé Cabinet, which was acclaimed by the whole country. Even the result of the 20th general election in April, 1937, which ended in the victory of the existing political parties against the Hayashi Cabinet failed to give them a full chance for regaining their power. The new parties the birth of which had been much heralded by some groups proved equally unsuccessful. The rightists showed some activities outside the Diet, but could not gain any power, nor could the leftist parties, although one of them was successful in obtaining more seats in the Diet. With the outbreak of the incident most of the political movements of the proletariat parties were completely suppressed by the Government.

The talk of reorganizing the Seiyukai and the Minseito went on throughout the year, but the preoccupation with the problems relating to the incident has made the realization of this object difficult till now. In the 73rd session of the Diet political parties expressed strong criticisms on such important bills as the National Mobilization Bill, the Electric Power Bill and the Budget for 1938-39, but these bills were finally passed without material amendment.

Movement of Bureaucrats The failure of the Hirota Cabinet and the Hayashi Cabinet in renovating the administrative system meant the inability of the bureaucratic elements to rise to the national requirements. With the birth of the Konoé Cabinet which was formed in the spirit of a coalition of all the representative political elements in the country, the bureaucrats withdrew from the front ranks and assumed a proper attitude of obedience to and cooperation with the Cabinet.

The submissive attitude of the political parties and the withdrawal of the bureaucrats were the direct outcome of the situation which demanded complete national solidarity in attaining the national goal of defeating the Kuomintang Government and establishing a permanent peace in East Asia and creating a new Japan. National union and national mobilization should be more difficult to achieve today than in the days of the Russo-Japanese War because the country is much greater now than it was 30 years ago, her international relations are much wider and more complicated, her people more educated and her economic system much more complex. But the traditional spirit of patriotism is ever the strongest factor in the Japanese national life and it is as a result of its call that the people have submerged all minor interests and differences of opinions in the greater need of the times.

Governmental Achievement As to the changes of the Hirota and Hayashi cabinets and the formation of the Konoé Cabinet mention has been made in foregoing pages, together with a description of the beginning of the China Affair up to August, 1937.

The attention of the Government since August, 1937, has been centred on planning and putting into effect all the necessary measures for carrying out Japan's purpose in relation to the China Affair, and all such measures have been passed by the Diet with little or no amendment.

In October, 1937, the Government organized the Cabinet Advisory Council by Imperial sanction, to reinforce its power by gathering veteran statesmen and experienced businessmen around the Cabinet. The first 10 members of the new Cabinet Advisory Council who were appointed on October 15, 1937, were as follows :

General Kazushigé Ugaki
General Baron Sadao Araki
Admiral Baron Kiyokazu Abo
Admiral Nobumasa Suetsugu
Chuji Machida of the Minseito
Yonezo Maeda of the Seiyukai
Kiyoshi Akita, M. H. R.
Baron Seinosuké Go
Seihin Ikeda
Yosuké Matsuoka

Most of the pending problems of improvement in domestic, administrative and social affairs were postponed. In view of the importance of promoting the health and welfare of the people, the Government decided to establish the "Ko-Sei Sho" or a new Department of Health and Social Affairs : and for the purpose of power mobilization the Government presented the Electric Power Control Bill to the 73rd session of the Diet, and succeeded in getting its approval thereto, with some important amendments.

In December, 1937, Dr. Eiichi Baba, Minister for Home Affairs, resigned ow-

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ing to illness and died shortly after in the same month. The portfolio was assumed by Admiral Nobumasa Suetsugu.

In January, May and June, 1938, a thorough reorganization of the Konoé Cabinet took place with the resignation of Koki Hirota, Minister for Foreign Affairs, Okinori Kaya, Minister of Finance, Shinji Yoshino, Minister of Commerce and Industry, Sonyu Otani, Minister for Overseas Affairs, and General Gen Sugiyama, Minister of War, who were replaced by General Kazushigé Ugaki, as Foreign Minister and concurrently Overseas Minister, Seihin Ikeda, as Finance Minister and concurrently Commerce and Industry Minister, Lieutenant-General Seishiro Itagaki, as War Minister, while Marquis Koichi Kido who had assumed the Portfolios of Education and Health and Social Affairs concurrently was released from the responsibility of Education and General Baron Sadao Araki was given the Portfolio of Education.

The important policies of the Government were best explained in the ministerial speaches given at the 72nd and 73rd sessions of the Diet.

The 72nd Session of the Imperial Diet

The 72nd Diet was specially convened at the beginning of September, 1937. It was opened on September 4 in the presence of His Majesty the Emperor and closed on the 9th of the same month after passing the supplementary budget for military operations and other legislative bills. At the opening ceremony of the session on September 4, His Majesty the Emperor granted the following Imperial Message to the Diet:

"We hereby open the Imperial Diet and address Ourself to the members of the House of Peers and of the House of Representatives.

"It has been Our constant desire that Our Empire and the Republic of China should work in unison in order to ensure the stability of East Asia, and thus attain the common prosperity of Our respective nations. The Republic of China, however, failing utterly to understand the true intentions of Our Empire, indulged in wilful acts of provocation, giving rise at last to the present state of affairs. This is indeed a source of regret to Us.

"Now in the face of manifold difficulties, Our armed forces are discharging their duty with loyalty and valour, to no other end than that of urging the Republic of China to reflect on its attitude, so that peace may be speedily restored in East Asia.

"It is Our wish, in view of the present extraordinary situation, that Our subjects, united in their faithful service to the State and in their devotion to the Throne, will seek to achieve the purpose of the Empire.

"We have instructed the Ministers of State to introduce to the Imperial Diet the urgent additional budgetary and legislative bills. We command you to strive, in conformity with Our wish, to perform to the fullest measure your appointed task of harmonious deliberation and collaboration."

On September 5, the Prime Minister and other ministers gave addresses to the Diet, explaining the policies and measures of the Government mostly in connection with the present China Affair.

Prime Minister Prince Konoé's Address In his opening address before the Diet, Prince Konoé, after referring to the Imperial message, went on to explain the Government's policy, as follows:

Since the outbreak of the affair in North China on July 7, the fundamental policy of the Japanese Government toward China has been simply and purely to seek the reconsideration of the Chinese Government and the abandonment of its erroneous anti-Japanese policies, with the view of making a basic readjustment in relations between Japan and China. This policy has never undergone a change; even today it remains the same. The Japanese Government has endeavoured to save the situation by preventing aggravation of the incident and by limiting its scope. This has been repeatedly enunciated.

The Chinese Government not only failed to understand the true motives of the Japanese Government, but have increasingly aroused a spirit of contempt and have offered resistance toward Japan, taking advantage of the patience of our Government. Thus, by the outburst of uncontrolled national sentiment, the situation has fast been aggravated, spreading in scope to Central and South China. And now, our Government, which has been patient to the utmost, has acknowledged the impossibility of settling the incident passively and locally, and has been forced to deal a firm and decisive blow against the Chinese Government in an active and comprehensive manner.

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In point of fact, for one country to adopt as its national policy the antagonizing of and the showing of contempt for some particular country, and to make these the underlying principle of national education by implanting such ideas in the minds of the young, is unprecedented in the history of the world. When we consider the outcome of such policies on the part of China, we feel grave concern not only for the future of Sino-Japanese relations, but for the peace of the Orient and consequently for the peace of the entire world. The Japanese Government has repeatedly requested the Chinese Government to reconsider and to change its attitude, but all in vain. This failure of the Chinese Government has finally caused the present affair. We firmly believe that it is in accordance with the right of self-defence as well as with the cause of righteousness and humanity that our country has determined to give a decisive blow to such a Government, so that it may reflect upon the errors of its ways. For the peoples of East Asia, there can be no happiness without a just peace in this part of the world. The Chinese people themselves by no means form the objective of our actions, which objective is directed against the Chinese Government and its army who are carrying out such erroneous, anti-foreign policies. If, therefore, the Chinese Government truly and fully re-examines its attitude and in real sincerity makes endeavours for the establishment of peace and for the development of culture in the Orient in collaboration with our country, our Empire intends to press no further.

At the present moment the sole measure for the Japanese Empire to adopt is to administer a thoroughgoing blow to the Chinese Army so that it may lose completely its will to fight. And if, at the same time, China fails to realize its mistakes and persists in its stubborn resistance, our Empire is fully prepared for protracted hostilities. Until we accomplish our great mission of establishing peace in the Orient, we must face many serious difficulties, and, in order to overcome them, we must proceed steadily with our task, adhering to the spirit of perseverance and fortitude in one united body.

Now that our Imperial Army and Navy, with their loyal officers and men, are advancing with all dignity in the cause of righteousness, exalting its might far and wide, we are filled with grateful emotion. Simultaneously, we feel highly encouraged to witness the sincere support displayed throughout the length and breadth of the Empire.

The Government is hereby introducing to the Imperial Diet urgent budgetary and legislative measures. In these measures the Government seeks to adopt a financial and economic structure for coping with the present extraordinary situation.

The 73rd Session of the Imperial Diet

The 73rd session of the Imperial Diet was convened on December 24, 1937 and closed on March 27, 1938. The strength or representation of different organizations and parties in the Diet on the day of its opening was as follows :

House of Peers :

Body Represented	Membership
Imperial Princes	17
Kenkyukai	162
Koseikai	66
Doseikai	23
Dowakai	33
Kayokai	43
Koyukai	34
Others	31
Total	409

Note : Vacancies 5.

House of Representatives :

Party	Membership
Minseito	178
Seiyukai	173
The First Room Club	49
Social Mass	36
The Second Room Group	13
Tohokai	11
Others	3
Total	463

Note : Vacancies 3.

During the session discussions were centred round the National Mobilization Bill, the Electric Power Control Bill, and the bills for the increase of taxes. After lively debates and keen deliberations all of these epochmaking bills and 86 other bills, submitted by the Government, were passed by both Houses, amendments being made on the Electric Power Control Bill and 11 others only. Among the 86 bills mentioned above, there were such important ones as those for establishing Governmental companies in North and Central China, for tending the limit for issuance of fiduciary notes, for increasing the production of important minerals, for the readjustment of farm lands, for the revision of the Conscription Law, the Health Insurance Law,

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the Shop Law, the Pension Law and the Labour Exchange Law, for the establishment of the central funds for pensioned and salaried men.

Premier Prince Konoé's Address The gist of the address delivered on January 22, 1938, by Prince Konoé, Premier, was as follows:

Japan's immutable national policy aims at building the edifice of permanent peace for East Asia on the unshakable foundation of close co-operation between Japan, Manchoukuo and China, and to contribute thereby to the cause of world peace. The adoption some time ago of our determined policy not to deal with the obdurate Kuomintang Government of China, and the exertion of ceaseless efforts towards the cultivation of friendly relations with the Powers, have been both dictated by this policy of the Government. We all rejoice for the sake of world peace that the tripartite Anti-Comintern Agreement between Japan, Germany, and Italy was completed through the participation of Italy last fall.

It is now more than half a year since the commencement of the present conflict. The fields of hostilities have been extended from North China to Central and South China. The valorous and daring operations of the Imperial forces have brought us victory after victory. Nanking, the Chinese Capital, quickly fell into our hands. The situation is developing most favourably for Japan. While this is, of course, due to the August Virtue of our Sovereign, I am profoundly grateful for the loyalty and courage of the officers and men of the Imperial forces at the front and for the ardour and enthusiasm of all our people at home.

Now the Government look forward to the emergence of a new Chinese régime which may really be counted upon to co-operate with Japan, and with such a régime they intend to adjust the Sino-Japanese relations and lend their hands in the rehabilitation of China, and in laying firmly thereby the foundation for a permanent peace of East Asia. There will be no change in Japan's policy to respect the sovereignty and territorial integrity of China and the legitimate rights and interests of third Powers in China.

The mission of Japan as the stabilizing force of East Asia is greater and her obligations have grown heavier than ever. In order to fulfil this mission, and to discharge these obligations of ours, we must certainly be prepared to make hereafter still greater sacrifices than we have made heretofore. But unless we resolve to do this, we only lay in store misfortunes for the future. I believe that to bear such sacrifices is a noble duty that we of the present generation owe to posterity.

It is under a conviction such as this that our Government are striving with all their might to deal with the China Affair and to achieve the end they have in view. And for that they are working for the completion of the plans for the national mobilization both material and spiritual, and the execution of the various necessary measures. The Government realize the first necessity of replenishing armaments and filling the national treasury, and accordingly, emphasis has been placed on this point in regulating our country's economy and finances. As regards the budget for the coming fiscal year, it has been so compiled as to devote as much money and material as possible to the fulfilment of military requirements, and to curtail as far as possible the general consumption of the goods and funds having to do with military supplies.

In the field of industry, the basic principle of the Government will be laid in the increase of our nation's productive power under the one comprehensive scheme covering Japan, Manchoukuo and China, and efforts are to be exerted toward supplying the articles needed for national defence, promoting all the important industries, and expanding our export trade.

As for our work at the home front, not only will everything be done to keep our officers and men at the front free from all anxieties for those at home, but suitable and effective measures will be taken to provide for the relief of the families of those killed, wounded, or taken ill.

Far distant still is the end of the conflict. We should expect that it will be a long time before a settlement is reached. Ours is indeed a momentous task unparalleled in history. We shall never succeed in accomplishing the task unless all of us show the dauntless spirit of gladly and courageously offering ourselves to our country. Let me assure you that the Government, with patience and perseverance and a resolute will, expect to reach a settlement of the affair.

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Political Affairs in 1938 and 1939

League of Nations and Japan The Council of the League of Nations adopted China's appeal for the invocation of Article XVII of the League Covenant and sent an invitation to Japan on September 19, 1938, but the latter declined to accept the invitation on September 22.

Ugaki Resigns General Kazushige Ugaki, Foreign Minister and Overseas Minister, tendered resignation to the Throne, on September 29, 1938. The reason was unintelligible, but it was generally surmised that there was a certain discrepancy of opinion in the Cabinet in regard to foreign policy at issue. The portfolio was concurrently assumed by Premier Konoé.

Capture of Canton and Hankow Japanese forces succeeded in landing at Bias Bay, in South China, in face of the enemy, on October 12, 1938, and entered the city of Canton, on October 21, 1938. The Japanese attack of South China effectively surprised the Kuomintang Government and Chinese armies in Hankow, and Japanese troops captured a part of Hankow on October 25, 1938, without receiving material resistance, and the three cities of Wuchang, Hankow and Hanyang were completely occupied by Japanese army and navy on October 27, 1938.

New Ministers Installed Mr. Hachiro Arita who had been the Foreign Minister in the Hirota Cabinet in 1936, was appointed again Foreign Minister, and Mr. Yoshiaki Hatta was installed as Overseas Minister on October 29, 1938.

Wartime Financial and Economic Measures During the months after September, the Government was fully occupied with the wartime situation at home and diplomatic affairs in relation to international questions which constantly arose with the development of the China Affair. Important steps taken by the Government in continuation from preceding years or as new measures were as follows:

For the purpose of meeting war expenses which amounted to 7,400 million yen, bond issues amounting to 6,700 million yen, encouragement of savings among the people, tax increase for obtaining 400 million yen, and transfers from special accounts to the sum of 100 million yen; For an increased production of munitions material, expansion of factories and equipments in mining and heavy industries; For the maintenance and improvement of international balance of payments, trade control and foreign exchange control; For increasing imports and the maintenance of foreign exchange and the international value of currency, promotion of export business, creation of foreign exchange fund system, installation of export and import link system, utilization of bonded factories, a new system to advance export funds, increase of receipts in invisible trade, encouragement of gold production and concentration of gold with the Government, and regulations against profiteering; For restraining rises in commodity prices and stabilization of the living conditions of the people, price restraining measures, creation of the Price Commission and Price Adjustment Commission, institution of the standard maximum price system, official price system, net price system and economic police system; For the relief of the unemployed and persons who have been forced to suspend business or change occupation on account of restriction on importation and use of goods, state management of labour exchanges and other measures; For safeguarding adequate supply of military material, restriction on and prohibition of use of goods, control of distribution of important goods, encouragement of invention and use of substitutes, subsidy for manufacture of substitutes, and encouragement of reform of the people's way of living.

The Konoé Cabinet has been, in general, successful in carrying out these measures with good understanding and loyal support of the people, except such complicated and apparently difficult question as price control and the relief of persons who lost business and were compelled to change occupation, both of which have been left to the good office of the present Hiranuma Cabinet.

China Affair

In regard to the advance to and occupation of important points and cities in China by the Japanese army and navy, minutes are given in Chapter VI, Foreign Relations and the Chapter on China. The Japanese conviction in the present incident and the attitude toward the Kuomintang Government have been announced unchanged by competent authorities on various occasions.

Statement of the Government On November 3, 1938, the Government made a statement concerning the future of East Asia. The gist of the statement follows:

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What Japan seeks is the establishment of a new order which will insure the permanent stability of East Asia. In this lies the ultimate purpose of our present military campaign.

This new order has for its foundation a tripartite relationship of mutual aid and co-ordination between Japan, Manchoukuo and China in political, economic, cultural and other fields. Its object is to secure international justice, to perfect the joint defence against Communism, and to create a new culture and realize a close economic cohesion throughout East Asia.

What Japan desires of China is that that country will share in the task of bringing about this new order in East Asia. She confidently expects that the people of China will fully comprehend her true intentions and that they will respond to the call of Japan for their cooperation. Even the participation of the Kuomintang Government would not be rejected, if, repudiating the policy which has guided it in the past and remoulding its personnel, so as to translate its re-birth into fact, it were to come forward to join in the establishment of the new order.

Japan is confident that other Powers will on their part correctly appreciate her aims and policy and adapt their attitude to the new conditions prevailing in East Asia. For the cordiality hitherto manifested by the nations which are in sympathy with us, Japan wishes to express her profound gratitude.

Premier Konoé's Address On the same day, Prince Konoé, Prime Minister, made a radio address on the same subject, excerpts from which follow:

Following upon the captuure of Canton, Hankow, the heart of China, was also taken, so that the so-called "Middle Plain" with its seven great cities, which virtually sustain the life of modern China, has now fallen into our hands. There is an old Chinese saying to the effect that "He who controls the Middle Plain controls the whole land." Thus the Chiang Kai-shek government is no longer anything but a local régime. Japan has achieved these results without overstraining her fighting power, which has always been kept at a level sufficient to ward off any intervention from the outside. We are moved, as never before, by the consciousness that this has been made possible by the august virtue of His Majesty, the Emperor, and the heroic efforts of His valiant officers and men. . . The key to China's fate is now in our hands. What, then, do we want? We want not the destruction of China but her prosperity and progress; not the conquest of China but cooperation with her. Working hand in hand with the Chinese awakened to a new consciousness of being people of the Orient, we want to build up an East Asia which is peaceful and settled. Allow me to state that no country is better aware than Japan of the ardent national aspirations of the Chinese, nor feels more keenly the need that China shall vindicate her position as a completely independent state.

It is an historical necessity that the three great neighbour nations, China, Manchoukuo and Japan, while fully retaining their respective individuality should stand closely united in their common duty of safeguarding East Asia. It is deeply to be deplored not only for the sake of Japan but for that of all Asia that the attainment of this goal has been thwarted through the mistaken policy of the Kuomintang Government. The policy of that government was based on the transient tide of the period that followed the Great War. It did not originate in the inherent intelligence and good sense of the Chinese people. In particular, the conduct of that government, which in its efforts to stay in power cared not whether the nation was left a prey to Communism or relegated to a minor colonial status, cannot but be regarded as treason toward those many patriotic Chinese who had risked their lives in order to erect a new China. It was in those circumstances that Japan, reluctant as she was to be involved in the tragedy of two great kindred nations fighting against each other, was compelled to take up arms against the Chiang Kai-shek régime.

Japan fervently desires the awakening of China. It is my hope that wise and foreseeing Chinese will be swift to assume leadership and to guide their nation back to the right path, and lead the rejuvenated state forward in the fulfilment of our common task in East Asia. Already in Peking and Nanking signs of rebirth have appeared. And in the wide plains to the north and west, a new Mongolia is springing to life. Let the Chinese people, who in the past 5,000 years of their history have illumined again and again the annals of civilization, prove once more their greatness by sharing in the stupendous task of creating a new Asia. Participation even by the Nationalist Government need not be rejected if, returning to the true spirit of China, it should repudiate its past policy, re-

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mould its personnel and offer to join in the work as a thoroughly regenerated régime.

The nations of the world must surely be able to comprehend these new developments in East Asia. It is undisputed history that China heretofore has been a victim of the rivalry between Powers whose imperialistic ambitions have constantly imperilled her tranquillity and independence. Japan realizes the need of fundamentally rectifying such a state of affairs and she is eager to see a new order established in East Asia—a new structure of peace based on true justice.

Japan is in no way opposed to collaboration with foreign Powers, nor does she desire to impair their legitimate rights and interests. If the Powers, understanding her true motives, will formulate policies adapted to the new conditions, Japan will be glad to cooperate with them. Japan's zeal for stamping out Communism is well known. The aim of the Comintern is to sovietize the Orient and to overturn the world. Japan is firmly determined to eradicate the communistic influence which is behind the so-called "long-term resistance" of the Chiang régime. Germany and Italy, our allies against Communism, have manifested their sympathies with Japan's aims in East Asia and we are profoundly grateful for the great encouragement that their moral support has given our nation during this crisis. In the present emergency, it is necessary for Japan not only to strengthen still further her ties with those countries but also to collaborate with them on the basis of a common world outlook in the reconstruction of world order.

December Statement The Japanese Government, which had hitherto published statements mostly on the general aim and principle of Japan in carrying on the China Affair, made a substantial statement in regard to her demands upon China, in the name of Premier Konoé, on December 22, 1938, as follows:

The Japanese Government is resolved, as has been clearly set forth in its two previous statements issued this year, to carry on the military operations for the complete extermination of the anti-Japanese Kuomintang Government, and at the same time to proceed with the work of establishing a new order in East Asia together with those far-sighted Chinese who share in our ideas and aspirations.

The spirit of renaissance is now sweeping over all parts of China and enthusiasm for reconstruction is mounting ever higher. The Japanese Government desires to make public its basic policy for adjusting relations between Japan and China, in order that its intentions may be thoroughly understood both at home and abroad.

Japan, China and Manchoukuo will be united by the common aim of establishing the new order in East Asia and of realizing a relationship of neighbourly amity, common defence against Communism, and economic cooperation. For that purpose it is necessary first of all that China should cast aside all narrow and prejudiced views belonging to the past and do away with the folly of anti-Japanism, and resentment regarding Manchoukuo. In other words, Japan frankly desires China to enter of her own will into complete diplomatic relations with Manchoukuo.

The existence of the Comintern influence in East Asia can not be tolerated. Japan therefore considers it an essential condition of the adjustment of the Sino-Japanese relations that there should be concluded an anti-Comintern agreement between the two countries in consonance with the spirit of the anti-Comintern Agreement between Japan, Germany and Italy. And in order to ensure the full accomplishment of her purpose, Japan demands, in view of the actual circumstances prevailing in China, that Japanese troops be stationed, as an anti-Communist measure, at specified points during the time the said agreement is in force, and also that the Inner Mongolian region be designated as a special anti-Communist area.

As regards economic relations between the two countries, Japan does not intend to exercise economic monopoly in China, nor does she intend to demand of China to limit the interests of those third Powers, who grasp the meaning of the new East Asia and are willing to act accordingly. Japan only seeks to render effective the cooperation and collaboration between the two countries. That is to say, Japan demands that China, in accordance with the principle of equality between the two countries, should recognize the freedom of residence and trade on the part of Japanese subjects in the interior of China, with a view to promoting the economic interests of both peoples; and that, in the light of the historical and economic relations between the two nations, China should extend to Japan facilities for the development of China's

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natural resources, especially in the regions of North China and Inner Mongolia.

The above gives the general lines of what Japan demands of China. If the true object of Japan in conducting the present vast military campaign be fully understood, it will be plain that what she seeks is neither territory nor indemnity for the cost of military operations. Japan demands only the minimum guarantee needed for the execution by China of her function as a participant in the establishment of the new order.

Japan not only respects the sovereignty of China, but she is prepared to give positive consideration to the questions of the abolition of extra-territoriality and of the rendition of concessions and settlements—matters which are necessary for the full independence of China.

Diplomatic Issues The rapid development of the China Affair gave rise to many diplomatic problems between Japan and the Powers which have rights and interests in China such as Great Britain, France and the United States of America, during the period under survey. The explanations on the problems and negotiations with these countries are given in Chapter VI, Foreign Relations. As a whole, the Powers are very moderate in their attitude toward Japan, apparently with due understanding as regards the inevitability of troubles arising under such circumstances, and negotiations are going on without any grave frictions.

Matters concerning Japan's aid for the rehabilitation and reconstruction of China are stated in the Chapter on China at the end of this volume.

Anti-Comintern Agreement

The German-Japanese Agreement against the Communist International which had been concluded on November 25, 1936, was reinforced by the participation of Italy on November 6, 1937, as it was stated in the 1938-9 Japan Year Book, pp. 200, 201. Now this Tripartite Anti-Comintern Pact developed to a hexadic agreement, with the participation of Hungary and Manchoukuo on February 24, 1939, and Spain on March 27, 1939.

On January 16, 1939, the Foreign Office spokesman made a statement on the participation of Manchoukuo and Hungary, in which he said, "It is a significant development in the international situation that at the beginning of the year Manchoukuo and Hungary, complying to the joint invitation made by Japan, Germany and Italy, the three original signatories, have expressed their intention of participating in the Anti-Comintern Agreement. The Comintern is the common enemy of mankind, scheming as it does for the obliteration of the history and culture and the destruction of the order of every nation. It is quite natural, therefore, that the existence of this subversive organization cannot be tolerated in any region of the world, and that all Powers, acting in cooperation, are determined to bring about its extinction. The Comintern previously attempted to bolshevize Spain and Central Europe, but it was expelled by Germany and Italy. In Great Britain and France also it camouflaged itself under the guise of democracy and agitating the left wing elements, schemed to bring about the bolshevization of those countries. As a result, it incurred the strong animosity of these Powers; and Anti-Comintern sentiment throughout Europe is gaining strength. Hungary has now come forward to join the Anti-Comintern pact.

In East Asia Japan was the first to undertake the task of safeguarding against the Communist menace. Now, with Manchoukuo about to join in the agreement, the anti-Comintern front extending over Europe and Asia has been given new strength. Japan, which has assumed the great task of establishing a new order in East Asia, warmly welcomes the addition of two strong links in the East and West in the pact to exterminate the Comintern menace. We firmly believe that the participation of Hungary and Manchoukuo will lead to the adherence by other Powers, who share our views, in the anti-Comintern agreement."

The participation of Spain in the Agreement was announced on April 8, 1939, and the statement of the Foreign Office spokesman was as follows:

"Spain, reborn under the leadership of General Francisco Franco, has formally participated in the Anti-Comintern Agreement of which Japan, Germany and Italy are original signatories. At a time when the political situation in Europe is in confusion, it is indeed significant that Spain has joined the front against Comintern. The Comintern, which failed utterly in its efforts to bolshevize Germany and Italy in previous years, laid the front line in Spain for the bolshevization of all of Europe. As a result, Spain was divided into two opposing factions, with bitter tragedies enacted as Spaniard fought Spaniard and brother fought brother. Although

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realizing the sacrifices they would have to make and the tragedies they would have to suffer, the faction led by General Franco, surmounting numerous difficulties, finally occupied Barcelona early this year and succeeded in pacifying the Catalonian sector. The Communist régime immediately collapsed, and Madrid finally capitulated on March 28th. The Spanish civil war which began two and a half years ago was thus brought to a close, culminating in a decisive victory for General Franco. The Powers in the Anti-Comintern front have early extended recognition to General Franco's Government and have been giving full support to that Government's work of subduing Communism.

The Japanese Government pays its profound respect to the brilliant achievement of the Spanish Government and at the same time earnestly hopes that the relations between Japan and Spain will, through increasing cooperation between them, grow in cordiality."

(The protocols exchanged with these countries are given at the end of this volume, as Appendix.)

Fishery Disputes with the U. S. S. R. The revision of the Russo-Japanese Fishery Agreement fell due in 1936, but the Soviet Government refused to sign it, and the Japanese Government was twice obliged to conclude a modus vivendi in 1936 and 1937. Negotiations were renewed in 1938 between Japanese Ambassador Togo and Foreign Commissar Litvinoff at Moscow. During the latter half of 1938 and the beginning of 1939, there were many occasions on which disruption was considered inevitable. The patience of Ambassador Togo, however, finally conquered over the stubbornness of the Foreign Commissar, and negotiations came to a satisfactory conclusion on April 2, 1939 and a modus vivendi was signed at Moscow at midnight. (See Chapter VI, Foreign Relations, for a fuller account.)

Change of the Cabinet

On January 4, 1939, Prince Fumimaro Konoé, Prime Minister, tendered resignation to the Throne. H. I. M. the Emperor immediately called Mr. Kurahei Yuasa, Grand Keeper of the Imperial Seals, and sent him to the Genro, Prince Kimmochi Saionji, at Okitsu, Shizuoka prefecture to get his advice on the nomination of the next premier. The Imperial messenger brought back the Genro's recommendation in the evening, and the Emperor granted audience to Baron Kiichiro Hiranuma, President of the Privy Council, at 10 p.m., and gave him order to form the new Cabinet.

Baron Hiranuma succeeded in his task with an unprecedented speed and the inauguration of the new cabinet took place in the Imperial palace in the afternoon of January 5, 1939.

At the time of the inauguration of the Hiranuma Cabinet, it consisted of the following 13 ministers:

Prime Minister	Baron Kiichiro Hiranuma, former President of the Privy Council.
Minister without Portfolio	Prince Fumimaro Konoé, former Prime Minister.
Minister for Foreign Affairs	Hachiro Arita, remaining in office.
Minister for Home Affairs	Marquis Koichi Kido, M. H. P., former Minister of Welfare.
Minister of Finance	Sotaro Ishiwata, former Vice-Minister of Finance.
Minister of War	Lieutenant-General Seishiro Itagaki, remaining in office.
Minister of Marine	Admiral Mitsumasa Yonai, remaining in office.
Minister of Justice	Suehiko Shiono remaining in office.
Minister of Communications	"
Minister of Education	General Sadao Araki, remaining in office.
Minister of Agriculture and Forestry	Yukio Sakurauchi, M. H. R., of the Minseito.
Minister of Commerce and Industry	Yoshiaki Hatta, M. H. P.
Minister of Overseas Affairs	" remaining in office.
Minister of Railways	Yonezo Maeda, M. H. R. of the Seiyukai.
Minister of Welfare	Hisatada Hirosé, former Vice-Minister of Welfare.

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At the same time Prince Konoé was appointed President of the Privy Council. On January 4, Prince Konoé announced reasons for his action as follows:

"It was not very long after I was commanded to become Premier in June, 1937, that the China incident occurred. With the China incident growing increasingly serious, the situation at home and abroad became gradually more complex. I often feared that my capacity was not sufficient to cope adequately with the situation arising from the incident, but the seriousness of the times did not allow a change of Cabinet until the present occasion. However, the China incident now has entered a new stage, and the time has come when the Government must concentrate its efforts on the construction of a new order so as to maintain lasting peace in East Asia. I am convinced that it is urgently necessary to enhance the confidence of the nation by formulating new policies under a new Cabinet. The unshakable fundamental policy of the Government toward the incident already has been established and approved by the Emperor. Having thus been freed from this important responsibility, I am filled with trepidation concerning my lack of ability to carry on my duties. This is the reason why I have tendered the resignation of my Cabinet."

According to the press comments on the occasion, the Konoé Cabinet was confronted with difficulties in carrying out wartime political, economic and social renovation measures. Another reason was in the failure of the efforts for the formation of a new political party sponsored by some members of the Cabinet and outsiders, and Prince Konoé, who was always unwilling to be brought forward as the president of the proposed party, was glad to be freed from this lure as well as premier's responsibility and leave the pending questions with a certain senior statesman.

The 74th Session of the Diet

The 74th Session of the Imperial Diet was convened on December 24, 1938, and closed on March 26, 1939. The strength or representation of different organizations and parties in the Houses on the day of its opening was as follows:

House of Peers:

Body Represented	Membership
Imperial Princes	16
Kenkyukai	161
Koseikai	69
Kayokai	44
Koyu Club	35
Dowakai	31
Doseikai	21
Others	36
Total	413

House of Representatives:

Party	Membership
Minseito	178
Seiyukai	170
The First Room Club	46
Social Mass Party	35
The Second Room Club	13
Tohokai	12
Others	6
Total	460

Note: Vacancies 6.

The Houses gave consent to the Governmental budgets which amounted to over ¥9,400,000,000, and passed all the 89 bills presented by the Cabinet, only 10 of which were amended in some minor points. Important bills passed and the budgets approved are mentioned below:

I. Budgets;

Supplementary budgets for the fiscal year 1938-39

1. ¥16,500,000
2. Revenue ¥7,839,000
   Expenditure ¥19,805,000

Budget for the fiscal year 1939-40 ¥3,694,666,000

Supplementary for the same

1. Military expenditure ¥910,543,000
2. Civil expenditure ¥199,332,000

II. Extraordinary Military Expenditure;

Army	¥3,143,000,000
Navy	¥812,000,000
Reserve fund	¥650,000,000
(Special reserve for concluding contracts outside of the general budget)	(¥700,000,000)

New Laws to be Promulgated:

1. Financial Laws; Revised China Affair Special Tax Law, Revised Special Profits Tax Law, Revised Temporary Land Tax Disposition Law, Law for the Exemption from or Postponement of Levying Taxes for the Relief of Calamity Stricken People, Revised Tariff Law, and four other laws on taxes. Nine laws for the floatation of public bonds. Three laws for special accounts. Four laws for readjustment of funds.

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2. Laws pertaining to exploitation of resources; The Imperial Mining Company Law, Law for mining coal in Karafuto, The Japan Gold Mining Company Law, Revised Gold Mining Law, Law for the Manufacture of Light Metals, Revised Industry Law, Revised Mine Law, Rice Distribution Control Law, Taiwan Rice Importation Control Law, Horses Protection Law, and six other laws.

3. Laws on transportation; The Great Japan Aviation Company Law, The Sea Transportation Association Law, Shipbuilding Industry Law, and four other laws.

4. Military Laws; Military Resources Secrecy Protection Law, Revised Conscription Law, and five other laws.

5. Social or Cultural Laws; Officials' Health Insurance Law, Mariners Protection Law, Revised Health Insurance Law, Revised P. O. Annuity Law, Cinema Law, Copy Right Agent Law, and two other laws.

6. Educational or Religious Laws; Religious Organization Law, and five other laws.

7. Judicial Laws; Arbitration Law, Criminals Protection Law, Revised Court Formation Law, and four other laws.

8. Laws in relation to colonies; For Chosen five laws, for Taiwan one law, and for others four laws.

9. Others; Revised Insurance Law, Law on the way of taking Census, and one other law.

Ministerial Addresses Ministerial addresses at the 74th Session were delivered on January 21, 1939, the main points of which are quoted below:

Baron Kiichiro Hiranuma, Prime Minister, said in part as follows:

As for relief work for soldiers, His Majesty the Emperor was pleased some time ago to grant a gracious message together with a generous sum of money from the Imperial Privy Purse. Indeed, the Imperial benevolence knows no bounds. The Government, in conformity with the Imperial will, has established the Society for Relief of Soldiers as an Imperial Foundation, which, in conjunction with governmental establishments, is expected to make perfect the work of military relief and relieve the officers and men at the front from all cares and anxieties regarding their families at home.

In regard to the China Affair upon which both the Government and the people are concentrating their endeavours, there exists an immutable policy, for which Imperial sanction was obtained by the previous Cabinet, and in accordance with which the necessary steps have been taken in various directions. Being, of course, committed to the same policy, the present Cabinet is determined to proceed at all costs to the achievement of the final purpose.

Obviously no lasting peace can be hoped for unless Japan, Manchoukuo and China, the three countries responsible for the stability of East Asia, are speedily united in the realization of the abovementioned common objective—the establishment of a new order to replace the old. "Overcome," said the Emperor Meiji, "the evil ways of the past, and follow the just principles of nature." Here we have, I believe, what must be the basis of government in our country. Here is the ideal which was handed down from time immemorial by the Imperial Ancestors, and in accordance with which all the Imperial Successors have ruled the land. To "follow the just principles of nature" means in the last analysis to enable all entities to find their own proper places, and therein lie also, I believe, the essentials of government. And this principle applies equally to internal politics and international relations. The construction of the new East Asiatic order should proceed on the basis of this ideal.

I hope the above intention of Japan will be understood correctly by Chinese so that they may cooperate with us without the slightest apprehension. Otherwise, the construction of the new order would be impossible. As for those who fail to understand to the end and persist even hereafter in their opposition against Japan, we have no other alternative than to exterminate them. On the other hand, those who desire to make of themselves pioneers of a new China and cooperate in the execution of our national policy should be encouraged to take part in this historic task. We should gladly help them to rescue the Chinese masses from misery and distress, and liberate them from the bondage of old prejudices. Happily in China today, enthusiasm for reconstruction is beginning to sweep over the whole country, with a growing number of men and women who fall in line with the measures put into practice by the authorities of the new Governments at Peking and Nanking and the autonomous Government of Mongolia. This is a matter for congratulations for the sake of the stabilization of East Asia, and also as the fruit of our country's national purpose.

Since Communism has become so rampant on the Asiatic continent as to

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threaten to usurp the political power of China, its elimination is absolutely necessary if truth and righteousness are to prevail. In order to realize this, we must promote understanding with third Powers, and cooperation and collaboration especially with those Powers who fully understand us. Germany and Italy, as you are aware, have, from the beginning of the present conflict, consistently given us whole-hearted support, for which we are profoundly grateful. It is exceedingly gratifying that Japan's relations with these friendly Powers with whom we are bound by the Anti-Comintern Agreement are growing more intimate and cordial.

The notable development of Manchoukuo is a hopeful sign for the construction of a new East Asia. The measures calculated to maintain the inseparable relationship between Japan and Manchoukuo should be further strengthened. On the other hand, allow me to state that it is far from the thought of the Japanese Government to oppose needlessly the economic or cultural activities of third Powers. I earnestly hope that they will appreciate the true intentions of Japan and extend cooperation toward the construction of the proposed new order in East Asia.

The statement of the Japanese Government issued by the previous Cabinet which is based upon the basic policy vis-à-vis the China Affair, makes clear the guarantee required of China as a participant in the construction of the new order. The statement provides, I am confident, a principle most suited to the present situation for guiding the Chinese people and also for enlightening third Powers. Thanks to the valiant actions on the part of the Imperial forces and to the loyal support rendered by our people on the home front both in Japan Proper and overseas territories, the desired military victories have been won. The Kuomintang Government, still frantically pursuing its anti-Japanese and pro-Communist policy, has been reduced to the status of a local régime through its flight to a remote province. However, the final aim of our present campaign in China does not lie simply in military victories, but in the rebirth of China, and in the creation thereby of a new order uniting Japan, Manchoukuo and China on a relationship of mutual aid and collaboration. With the recent establishment of the China Affairs Board, it is now expected that all matters relating to China will proceed smoothly. Of course, it is not difficult to see that the way is long and beset with difficulties. In order to surmount them and to make possible a glorious future, we should follow in the footsteps of our forefathers and devote our best efforts to the task on hand, rendering, in the spirit of national solidarity, united service to the Throne. It means the concentration of all the spiritual and material resources of the nation upon the accomplishment of one purpose. . . .

The Goververnment deems it of urgent importance to develop and reinforce all systems of transportation and communication in accordance with the new conditions in East Asia and is taking appropriate measures. As for the various control measures carried out hitherto for economic activities, they must, of course, be continued within the bounds necessary for the maximum application of the total strength of the nation. However, while these measures have until now mostly been economic, to meet the immediate requirements of prosecuting military operations, we must hnceforth put into operation, in addition, other control measures which are of a permanent and constructive character. Accordingly it is essential to strengthen the alignment of the national life in general mobilization,—namely, to invoke in due order the necessary provisions in the National General Mobilization Law, effecting at the same time various internal reforms.

On the other hand, the Government will carefully consider measures to be taken for coping with the problems of the suspension of business, unemployment arising among merchants and manufacturers, who will be affected by the governmental steps already described, as well as general measures for stabilizing the livelihood of the nation on the home front, such as promoting healthy development of the farming and fishing populations. And in order to accomplish this, it is essential to execute through free and active cooperation of the Government and people, unhampered by convention, the measures appropriate to the present situation.

It is with these considerations, that the Government is submitting budgetary and legislative bills in order to carry out its policies. As the present Cabinet was formed only recently, the bills prepared by the previous Cabinet, which have been found after careful study to be suited to the present situation, are being submitted for your consideration.

Foreign Minister Hachiro Arita's Address It is scarcely necessary to reiterate that Japan's foreign policy, based upon the fundamental principles of

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our national polity, and designed principally for the fulfilment of Japan's moral responsibilities, has always been so conducted as to promote the interests and welfare of East Asia through the cooperation and collaboration of the peoples of that region, and to contribute to the general prosperity of mankind. Following the establishment of the Empire of Manchoukuo, the Japanese Government, having in view the neighbourly and inseparable relationship existing between Japan and that country, made it a policy to cooperate toward her healthy development as an independent State. Legal and administrative systems have been set up in due succession, and the work of developing natural resources is progressing, so that the 30,000,000 people of the land are living happily, secure of their livelihood. The national foundations have been consolidated more firmly than ever, and seven Powers have already extended recognition to the empire. The establishment of peace and order and the expansion of industries have notably benefited all other countries concerned, including Great Britain and the United States, whose trade with Manchoukuo is showing marked increases in volume as compared with the years prior to the Manchurian Incident.

As regards the present China Affair, the basic policy and the resolute aim of the Japanese Government have been set forth in its statement of the 3rd of November last year. What Japan desires is the creation of a new order which is to secure the permanent peace of East Asia, that is to say, the construction of a new East Asia upon a moral foundation, in which Japan, Manchoukuo and China, while each fully reserving her independence and individuality, will stand united and linked together for collaboration and mutual aid along all lines of political, economic and cultural activities. It is the firm conviction of the Japanese Government that such a new order is not only absolutely necessary for the existence and healthy development of Japan, Manchoukuo and China, but also conducive to the real peace and well-being of the whole world. Under date of December 22nd last the Japanese Government issued another statement declaring its intention of joining hands with far-sighted Chinese animated by similar ideals and aspirations, and to work together for the common purpose of constructing the new East Asiatic order and for the realization and mutual practice of neighbourly amity, economic cooperation, and joint defence against Communism. It was also announced that what Japan asks of China is neither territory nor indemnity for the cost of military operations, and further that not only will Japan respect the sovereignty of China, but she is even prepared to give practical consideration to the questions of the abolition of extra-territoriality and the rendition of foreign concessions and settlements, a matter which is obviously required for China's complete independence.

Despite the repeated explanations given by the Japanese Government, there persist unfortunately misunderstandings in certain quarters abroad, ascribing to Japan an intention to close the doors of China. If we are to embark upon the creation of a new order in East Asia through mutual assistance and solidarity between Japan, Manchoukuo and China, it will of course be necessary to enforce certain restrictions and regulations in spheres having a vital bearing upon the national defence and economic independence of the three countries. But these measures will be confined to the minimum requirements, being directed toward no other purpose than that of enabling East Asia to function well as a link in the chain of world economy and to contribute to the general prosperity of mankind. Consequently there will be left open vast fields wherein not only will the rights and interests of other countries and commercial and other peaceful enterprises of their nationals remain absolutely unaffected, but wherein foreign participation will be really welcome, so that it is confidently expected that the economic activities of other Powers will be more than ever stimulated under the new order.

The Japanese Government, believing the removal of trade barriers of various kinds and the promotion of economic cooperation among the nations to be the best means of advancing the happiness and prosperity of mankind, have always striven toward the realization of those ends. Its future policy in this regard will sustain no change. In fact, it is in accordance with this very policy that the Japanese Government plans to limit to the necessary minimum all restrictions on the economic activities of other Powers under the proposed system for Japan, Manchoukuo and China. It is hoped and expected that the Powers concerned will understand the true intentions of Japan and extend active cooperation in the

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task of constructing the new order in East Asia.

It is regrettable that the China Affair has given rise to circumstances prejudicial to the individual rights and interests of the nationals of other Powers in China, or has placed restrictions on their residence and travel. That these circumstances have been unavoidable owing to military necessities is, I believe, appreciated by all. On the other hand, the Japanese Government, paying careful attention to the matter, has followed the policy of expediting the settlement of pending cases as far as is permitted by circumstances and as soon as the necessary investigations are completed. Already not a few cases have thus been satisfactorily settled.

As regards the reportd conveyance of arms through French Indo-China and other territories, the Japanese Government has from time to time called the attention of the Governments concerned to the matter; and when necessary, proper steps will be taken. The China Affair has now entered upon a new phase as the result of the fall of Canton and Hankow. While we will not relax our efforts for the overthrow of the anti-Japanese régime, we are obliged at the same time to address ourselves earnestly to the work of construction.

Although the Chiang Kai-shek régime is still professing its policy of a so-called "long-term conflict," it has already fled into a remote province and become a purely local régime, while, in the regions in the occupation of our forces sentiment is growing rapidly against the Comintern and in favour of friendship with Japan. The Provisional Government at Peking and the New Government at Nanking respectively and the Autonomous Government of Mongolia are all making healthy progress and steadily winning popular support and confidence. Moreover, in the fall of last year a Joint Committee was formed by the Provisional and the New Governments; and movements are coming to a head in Hankow and Canton for the establishment of other local governments. It is hoped that a new Central Government may be speedily organized which may cooperate with us for a settlement of the present conflict. As for the recent flight from Chungking of certain leaders of the so-called "peace faction" in the Chiang Kai-shek régime, the Government is watching carefully for consequent developments.

In order to cope with the destructive activities of the Communists, there was concluded some time ago the Japanese-German Agreement for Safeguarding against the Communist International, to which Italy subsequently became a signatory. The manœuvres of the Comintern are both insidious and elusive, but in Europe and in Asia wherever there is any disturbance of peace and order, there is invariably to be discovered the hand of the Comintern behind the scenes. The Civil War in Spain, now almost three years old, affords a most outstanding example of the activities of this organization, whose favourite procedue is to utilize a local affair as a fuse to set off a general conflagration in order to bolshevize the world. Indeed the Comintern is the arch-enemy of peace and order.

In East Asia, too, the Communists were active before the commencement of the present China Affair, instigating the Kuomintang Government and causing Chiang Kai-shek to pursue an anti-Japanese policy. Since the outbreak of hostilities, they have rapidly extended their sinister influence and have ultimately made their way into the inner councils of the Kuomintang Government so as to command positions of leadership in both military and political affairs. The so-called "long-term conflict" as well as guerilla tactics have originated in the recommendations of the Communist Party. They constitute a conspiracy which, by sacrificing the masses of China, aims at the postponement for as long as possible of a settlement of the present conflict and by that means at the bolshevization of China and of the entire world.

Fortunately, however, the Japanese-German-Italian Agreement against the Communist International has proved efficacious in checking to some extent in Asia, as well as in Europe, the destructive operations of the Comintern. In the light of experience we cannot but believe that the more this agreement is expanded and strengthened, the more potent will be the guaranty of world peace. The recent announcement by Manchoukuo and Hungary of their intention to participate in the agreement is gratifying as an extension of the anti-Comintern front.

Our relations with the Soviet Union became extremely strained at the time of the Changkufeng Affair, which, however, was settled through appropriate action on our part before it assumed serious proportions. In North Saghalien the illegal interference with our concession rights pertaining to oil and coal have not ceased as yet, rendering the exercise of those rights more and more difficult. As regards the fishery

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question, although we have continued to exert our utmost efforts for the conclusion of the treaty, the draft of which has long been mutually agreed upon, the negotiations have failed owing to the questions which have been injected into the discussions by the Soviet Government, and which have no relevance to the fishery treaty. In December last the Government entered into negotiations for the renewal of the modus vivendi which was to expire at the end of the year. But, even in this case, the Soviet Government put forward and insisted upon many unreasonable conditions, so that no agreement could be reached before the year-end. It was therefore decided to carry over the negotiations to this year, after requesting the Soviet Government to take no measures that might affect the status quo of the fishery situation. While it is expected that the Soviet Government will negotiate with sincerity and that ultimately a satisfactory agreement will be arrived at, Japan is, of course, prepared to take appropriate steps when it comes to a question of protecting her legitimate vested rights and interests.

Finance Minister Sotaro Ishiwata's Address With regard to the 1939-40 Budget, the preceding Cabinet completed the general compilation, and therefore we have arranged to take it over for introduction into the present Diet. The amount of the General Budget for the 1939-40 fiscal year is a little more than 3,694 million yen both in revenue and expenditure, which when compared with the budget amount for the preceding fiscal year, shows an increase of a little over 180 million yen.

This is made up, in round numbers, of 2,801 million yen from taxes and other ordinary revenue, 84 million yen brought over from the preceding fiscal year as a surplus fund, and 809 million yen as proceeds from public loans. The ordinary revenue just mentioned shows an increase of 294 million yen when compared with the corresponding budget amount for the preceding fiscal year, this estimated increase being largely due to estimated increases in tax proceeds. To be more exact, the income tax proceeds are estimated to increase by some 160 million yen, the provisional profit tax proceeds by 102 million yen, the business profit tax proceeds by 23 million yen, the inheritance tax proceeds by 13 million yen and other items by 23 million yen, totalling more than 323 million yen, while the brewery tax, stock and commodity exchange tax and other tax proceeds are estimated to decrease by a little more than 58 million yen in all. Therefore, the tax revenue as a whole is to increase roughly by 264 million yen, and I am inclined to think that this estimated increase in revenue may roughly be taken to reflect a favourable trend in economic circles.

Apart from the tax revenue, some of the principal increases and decreases in the estimates for ordinary revenue include an increase in round numbers of 15 million yen in forestry proceeds, an increase of 7 million yen in levies on horse races, an increase of 40 million yen in proceeds from the enforcement of the Convertible Bank Note Consolidation Law, a decrease of 13 million yen in the Monopoly Bureau profits, a decrease of 19 million yen in revenue due to the non-payment of Manchoukuo's share of national defence expenses, etc.

The Budget for the 1939-40 fiscal year has been compiled so as not only to concentrate all governmental measures for the purpose of attaining the objective of the Affair, as in the preceding fiscal year, but also to consolidate them even more intensively. Naturally we have so arranged as to strengthen all measures connected with the Affair as far as possible, while we have refrained from estimating the other various expenses save for those whose urgent needs call for immediate attention. We have estimated fresh increases totaling a little over 97 million yen for the relief fund for soldiers' families, various expenses for military aids, various expenses for the protection of wounded soldiers and other expenses required for various other home-front measures. We have also estimated other fresh increases at roughly 56 million yen in the expenses relating to the expansion of productive power, 13 million yen in the expenses relating to the adjustment of the supply and demand of commodities, 18 million yen in the expenses relating to the promotion of export trade, 20 million yen in the expenses needed for the execution of the horse administration plan, 23 million yen in the expenses relating to emigrants to Manchuria, 24 million yen in the expenses relating to civil aviation and air defence.

Moreover, in view of the disastrous floods occurring in various places recently, we have seen an urgent need for expenses relating to river conservation, and we have established a basic plan for the prevention of landslides in all prefectures, working out at the same time river conservation plans for

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the Tone, Yodo and other rivers. Accordingly we have estimated such amounts as will be required during the forthcoming fiscal year for these purposes.

In addition to these, required amounts have also been estimated to cover expenses relating to remedial measures for those losing employment or forced to change vocations, the expenses relating to the remedial measures for farming villages, the expenses relating to the promotion of medium-sized and small industries, the expenses relating to the enforcement of the compulsory education system at the Seinen Gakko (Young Men's and Women's Schools), etc. Further, the subsidies for local finances are estimated to amount to 130 million yen as in the preceding fiscal year, while, in order to meet the possible necessity of making expenditures in excess of, or outside of, the budget in connection with the Affair or other events, the first reserve fund has been increased by 10 million yen over the preceding fiscal year to 30 million yen and the second reserve fund has been fixed at 60 million yen. Mention may also be made of the amounts saved by cutting or postponing some of the estimated expenses previously fixed for the 1939-40 fiscal year as well as of the amounts saved due to the departure of some army and navy units and war vessels for the war front. These amounts are spread over all Departments of the Government and total a little over 317 million yen. Consequently the budget contains considerable changes in detail as compared with the preceding fiscal year.

Again, the estimated proceeds consequent upon the legislation of the China Affair Special Tax Law and other circumstances total some 351 million yen, showing an increase of 34 million yen as compared with the preceding fiscal year. These proceeds are to be entered in the special account for military expenditures as a financial resource for the provisional war expenses as originally planned. And, if the amount of this estimated entry were left out of calculation, the total amount of revenue and expenditure would be a little over 3,342 million yen.

The deficit in the General Account during the 1939-40 fiscal year will be made good by public loans, which will total roughly 809 million yen including 4 million yen from the Post-Quake Remedial Bonds, 8 million yen from the Road Bonds, and 795 million yen from the Revenue Supplementing Bonds.

Next, a few words on the Special Account Budget. The revenues and expenditures in the five special accounts for Chosen, Taiwan, the Kwantung Leased Territory, Karafuto and the South Seas Mandatory Islands, are all estimated to increase considerably in comparison with the budget figures for the preceding fiscal year. Of these estimated increases, those in revenue are mainly due to increases in tax proceeds, while those in expenditure have been estimated specially to cover such expenses as are deemed urgently necessary in view of the prevailing situation. The other special account budgets have also been compiled in line with the policy followed in the compilation of the General Account Budget.

For transference to the account for emergency military expenditures, 32 million yen has been estimated in the special account of the Chosen Government-General, 16 million yen in that of the Taiwan Government-General, 7 million yen in that of the Kwantung Bureau, 4 million yen in that of the Karafuto Government, 40 million yen in that of the Imperial Government Railways and 16 million yen in that of the Communications Department, totaling 116 million yen.

As for the amounts of public loans to be floated during the forthcoming fiscal year as estimated in the various special accounts, their total is given as 273 million yen, including 164 million yen for the Chosen Government-General, 6 million yen for the Taiwan Government-General, 80 million yen for the Imperial Government Railways and 22 million yen for the Communications Department. If the amount of 809 million yen estimated for public loan in the General Account as stated before, is added to the figures just given, the grand total of projected public loans will amount to 1,028 million yen.

Further, as regards the military expenses relating to the Affair, an additional budget for the special account for emergency military expenditures is expected to be laid before the Diet shortly for legislative approval.

As for the projected general reform of the central and local tax systems, the project has been shelved temporarily following the outbreak of the conflict. Now as the Affair has entered a stage of long-term construction, it is deemed necessary for us to effect readjustments in the tax systems, and therefore we are thinking of pushing careful investigation with sufficient attention paid to the future developments

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of the situation. In the meantime, however, with a view to increasing the tax burden on industries which are gaining in earnings and at the same time helping in checking consumption, we have planned to effect revisions and increased collections of the temporary profit tax, commodity tax and other similar levies. Accordingly we are now making necessary preparations for the introduction of legislative bills for that purpose to the Diet during its current session.

Next, I take this opportunity to make brief mention of the conditions of economic circles in our country with reference to the situation with which the nation is now confronted.

Since the beginning of the China Affair, huge amounts of Government money have been poured into the financial market, and the Government has made it its basic policy to work for the appropriate and smooth accumulation and movement of capital by such means as encouraging savings and adjusting the supply of capital. Thanks to the understanding and cooperation on the part of the people, these measures are attaining notable results. Meanwhile, the Government is also giving careful thought to the question of when a public loan may be floated or Government money paid out for better results.

Thus, the financial market is making favourable progress with the supply and demand of capital adjusted properly on the whole, and quiet prevails in financial circles. During the year, the average issue of convertible bank notes amounted to 1,919 million yen, which is an increase of 384 million yen as compared with the year before last. But, in view of the fact that this increase was partly due to special causes, I think there is nothing particularly extraordinary about this increase in the issue of convertible bank notes if the recent economic conditions of our country are taken into consideration.

With respect to the people's savings, increases have been notable, bank deposits having increased by 3,370 million yen and postal savings by 689 million yen during the past year. Meanwhile, the call money market has continued to make favourable progress since the early part of last year. In the debenture market, too, considerable activity has been witnessed since its reopening in February last year, the company debentures newly issued totaling 1,160 million yen by the end of the year.

Furthermore, the Temporary Capital Adjustment Law has also continued to be operated smoothly, and the capital invested in industrial equipment during the past twelve-month period exceeded 2,800 million yen, such investments having all been so calculated as to meet the purpose of expanding productive power of most immediate necessity in our country. In the future, too, the demand for capital is expected to continue to rise more and more for the expansion of industrial productivity and other purposes in view of the prevailing situation, and the Government makes it its policy to work for the accumulation of capital by further encouragement of savings, on the one hand, and effect appropriate regulation of capital so as to make the supply of capital for necessary purposes smoother than ever before, on the other.

I also take this opportunity to comment briefly on the invocation of Article 11 of the Law for National General Mobilization. The Government has, after necessary deliberation by the National General Mobilization Council last December, decided to put the provisions of the said article into operation, and is now preparing the drafts of relevant ordinances. In my opinion, in order to carry on long-term construction, it will be necessary to expand the productive power of required materials throughout Japan, Manchoukuo and China. The Temporary Capital Adjustment Law has been put into operation as a means to this end, and in order to meet future developments in the situation, we have deemed it necessary further to improve industrial operations and at the same time to take appropriate measures for active supplies of industrial capital. For this purpose, we are planning to provide appropriate restrictions on company dividends and also have the Government authorized to issue necessary orders to the Japan Industrial Bank regarding advances of capital. We expect these measures, coupled with the operation of the Temporary Capital Adjustment Law, to contribute toward the expansion of productive power and the consolidation of industrial foundations in the future.

Smooth absorption of public loans is a matter of pivotal importance for the operation of State finances, and the Government is paying close attention to this fact. In this connection, it is a matter for congratulation that, thanks to the cooperation of the people, loan absorption has made favourable progress, as approximately 3,800 million

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yen of public loans have been absorbed during the past year. However, the public loans estimated for flotation during the 1939-40 fiscal year are expected to amount to a gigantic total, and it will be extremely important to effect smooth digestion of them. Under the prevailing situation, this digestion of public loans as well as the projected expansion of productive power throughout Japan, Manchoukuo and China depends largely on the people's savings for necessary capital, and for this reason, we intend to push our studies of various measures, and means to popularize public loans in particular, with the movement for the encouragement of people's savings as their axis.

Next, as regards foreign exchange, I think it most appropriate to maintain the existing exchange standard in view of the internal and international economic situation. In this connection it will be of extreme necessity to strive for improvement in international receipts and payments and for the replenishment of resources to make payments abroad, the latter of which will depend largely on the promotion of the export trade. During last year, the foreign trade of our country amounted to 2,896 million yen in exports and 2,836 million yen in imports, totaling 5,732 million yen. In the trade balance, there was left an export excess of a little over 60 million yen, which was a notable improvement as compared with the import excess for the year before last amounting to 635 million yen. However, we are required to make strenuous efforts to develop our export trade from the viewpoint of the desired acquisition of capital in foreign currency, and for this purpose the Government has already earmarked a portion of the specie reserve of the Bank of Japan to create the foreign exchange fund and is also taking other appropriate measures, which we intend to improve and expand after making sufficient studies.

It is natural that expansion of productive power should have its emphasis on what are known as heavy industries, and it is also of great importance to promote such industries as are connected with the export trade as well as to maintain industries urgently needed for the livelihood of the people. Therefore, the Government is planning to provide appropriately for assuring supply of materials and for the smooth operation of financing for these branches of industries.

In order to balance the international receipts and payments favourably, we are required to work for increased production of newly-mined gold and concentration of gold simultaneously with endeavouring for the promotion of export trade. Having formulated its plan for the increased production of mined gold at an early date, the Government has been working for the increase of newly-mined gold through various measures, and is determined further to render efforts for the realization of the said plan. Meanwhile, the concentration of gold existing within the country is also going on with satisfactory results with the cooperation of various circles . . . .

In recent years, the economic circles of our country have attained remarkable progress, and I think it a matter for sincere felicitations for the benefit of our country to see all economic activities going on quietly and steadily instead of showing uneasiness in connection with the current Affair. However, our nation has now launched itself on its way for long-term construction looking toward an unprecedented fulfilment of our national destiny, and in order to accomplish this task, I think it necessary further to amplify our economic resources and mobilize them all for the single purpose of attaining the desired objective. In other words I think it necessary to adjust and mobilize all production and consumption for the purpose of attaining this national objective.

Change of the Cabinet The Hiranuma Cabinet resigned on August 28, 1939, and the new cabinet under General Nobuyuki Abé was formed on August 30th. As to the members of the Abé Cabinet see p. 103.

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CHAPTER VI

FOREIGN RELATIONS

(As regards Japan's foreign relations up to 1914 see the Japan Year Book, 1937, pp. 183–187.)

The Taisho (1911–1926) and Showa Era (1926–)

The World War Less than two months after the outbreak of the European War, Japan participated on the side of the Allies, sending an ultimatum to Germany on August 16, 1914, followed by declarations of war on Germany and Austria on August 23 respectively. Refusing to send troops to Europe, she confined her activities to an attack on the German fort at Tsingtao and the rendering of naval assistance for the protection of allied shipping in the southern Pacific and other waters.

At Tsingtao, the Japanese military and naval forces occupied the German base on November 7, 1914, after operations lasting only a week. In the meantime, the Japanese Navy occupied between October 3 and 19 all islands in the southern Pacific north of the equator with the exception of the island of Yap, which a British squadron had taken before the arrival of the Japanese. From the beginning Japan insisted on occupying these islands permanently, and, in March, 1917, a secret agreement between Japan and Great Britain provided for the permanent occupation of these islands by Japan in return for her despatch of destroyers to the Mediterranean Sea. At the Peace Conference, however, her claim to permanent sovereignty was rejected and she was given only a mandate over the islands.

The Washington Disarmament Conference Japan first participated in international efforts to limit armaments in 1921 at the Washington Conference which opened on November 11. After strongly insisting on a 7–10–10 ratio against the navies of Great Britain and the United States, she accepted a 3–5–5 ratio with regard to capital ships.

At this conference, Secretary Hughes of the United States proposed with regard to capital ships that the United States, Great Britain and Japan scrap respectively 30 ships totaling 845,740 tons, 23 ships totaling 583,375 tons and 17 ships totaling 448,928 tons, including those in course of building, and that the three countries be allowed to retain 506,050 tons in 18 ships, 604,450 tons in 22 ships and 299,700 tons in 10 ships, respectively. After negotiations on the basis of the Hughes proposal, an agreement was reached, with some changes made in the ships to be scrapped. By this agreement Japan was allowed to retain the "Mutsu" instead of the "Settsu" and the United States the "Washington" and the "Colorado" instead of the "North Dakota" and the "Delaware," while Great Britain agreed to scrap four King George V class ships, building two new ships of not more than 35,000 tons each instead. Consequently, the capital ship tonnage which the three Powers were allowed to retain was 525,000 tons in 18 ships for the United States, 581,200 tons in 20 ships for Great Britain and 313,000 tons in 10 ships for Japan.

As regards the replacement of obsolete ships, it was agreed that capital ships might be replaced after 20 years in service, providing that the new ships do not exceed 35,000 tons each in displacement. On completion of the replacement stipulated above, the United states and Great Britain were to have 15 capital ships totaling 525,000 tons each against 9 ships aggregating 315,000 tons for Japan, while France and Italy accepted a total capital ship tonnage of 175,000 tons each.

With regard to auxiliary ships, no agreement was reached on the total tonnage for each country, France claiming 350,000 tons in auxiliary ships and 90,000 tons in submarines, to which Great Britain and the United States were vigorously opposed. The proposal made by Britain favouring the total abolition of submarines added to the difficulties of making a total tonnage agreement regarding auxiliary ships. It was finally decided that an auxiliary ship must not exceed 10,000 tons in displacement and must not carry guns of more than 8 inches in calibre.

As to fortifications and naval bases in the Pacific, it was agreed that the status quo should be maintained.

In addition to the general disarmament treaty the five Powers also concluded an agreement limiting the use of submarines and poison-gas in warfare.

At this conference, Japan was repre-

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sented by Admiral Baron Tomosaburo Kato, then Minister of Marine, and the treaty was to remain in force until December 31, 1936.

Tri-partite Conference This conference opened on June 20, 1927, and was participated in by Japan, Great Britain and the United States, with a view to settling certain questions left over from the Washington Conference. Japan was represented by Admiral Viscount Makoto Saito, then Governor-General of Chosen. At the outset the three countries presented their respective proposals, when it became evident that there was an almost unsurmountable difference between the claims of Great Britain and the United States.

The Japanese delegate did his best to reconcile the British and American theses, while making it clear that Japan was in no position to accept the 3–5–5 ratio in regard to auxilary ships. In this latter connection, Japan succeeded in reaching a compromise with Great Britain but failed to induce the United States to agree to it. Thus all efforts ended in failure and the three Powers concerned closed the conference after publishing a joint declaration.

The London Conference At the naval disarmament conference called in London on January 21, 1930, in which the United States, Great Britain, Japan, France and Italy participated, the Japanese delegation, headed by Mr. (later Baron) Reijiro Wakatsuki, upheld what they called "the three great principles" of Japan. These were (1) a total tonnage of 8-inch gun cruisers for Japan equal to 70 per cent of that possessed by the United States, (2) no abolition or material reduction of submarines and maintenance of the then existing submarine strength of Japan, i. e. 78,500 tons, and (3) a ratio of 7–10 against the United States in the global tonnage of auxiliary vessels on the basis of the two foregoing conditions.

The conference was fraught with numerous difficulties. In the first place, opinion was divided as to whether global tonnage or different categories of vessels should be taken as the basis for proposed reduction, but this difficulty was overcome by a compromise allowing these two bases of reduction to be discussed simultaneously. By far the greatest difficulty was the difference between the Japanese and American theses, Japan claiming the ratio of 7–10 and the United States insisting on that 5–3. To make the situation still worse, France claimed a global tonnage of 721,400 tons. The American-Japanese entanglement, however, was in a large measure smoothed out through informal conversations between Mr. Tsuneo Matsudaira, Japanese Ambassador in London, and Mr. David A. Reed, of the American delegation.

To summarize the Japanese-American compromise, Japan was accorded a global tonnage of auxiliary vessels equal to 70 per cent of that held by the United States, and in regard to submarines, Japan reduced her claim of 78,500 tons to 52,700 tons on the condition that parity was to be maintained between Japan and the United States in this respect. As for the ratio of 10,000-ton cruisers, Japan was allowed to retain a number of such ships equal to 70 per cent of those possessed by the United States until 1936, while the United States was allowed to lay down the keels of three more ships of this category on condition that they should not be completed during the stated period.

Besides extending the naval holiday for a period of another six years, the London Naval Treaty, which was signed on April 22, 1930, affects Japan in the following respects:

(1) Japan was required to remove from active service the capital ship "Hiéi", although she was allowed to retain it for training purposes.

(2) Japan was allowed to replace the minelayers "Aso" and "Tokiwa", provided that the two new ships should not exceed 5,000 tons in displacement.

(3) Japan was required to dispose of the "Asama", "Yakumo", "Izumo", "Iwaté" and "Kasuga" when the first three vessels of the Kuma class were replaced by new ships.

London Conference in 1935 Japan was represented by Admiral Osami Nagano and Matsuzo Nagai, former Japanese Ambassador to Berlin, at the naval disarmament conference convened at London in 1935, in accordance with the London Naval Treaty of 1930, Part V (2). Admiral Nagano advocated the establishment of a common upper limit of naval armaments to be fixed as low as possible and reduction of offensive armaments to assure the principle of "non-menace and non-aggression." But Japan's proposal failed to obtain support from other nations, and so following the final presentation of Japan's formula and the other delegations' rejection of it, the Japanese delegation informed Viscount Monsell, on January 15, 1936, that it could no longer usefully continue participation in the conference and withdraw from it.

In the meantime, the Japanese Government notified the U. S. A. Government their intention to terminate the

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Washington Naval Treaty, on December 29, 1935, and all the agreements, except Part IV of the London Naval Treaty, between Japan, Great Britain, U. S. A. and other two nations on the limitation of naval armaments lost force on December 31, 1936.

Following Japan's withdrawal from the London Naval Conference of 1936 because of her inability to agree to qualitative rather than quantitative disarmament, the so-called "Naval Treaty of 1936" was concluded among Great Britain, the United States, France and Italy. The Japanese Government was invited by the British Government to become an adherent to the Treaty, but on June 28, 1937, it notified the British Government that it was unable to do so.

Prior to the Japanese notice and anticipating Japan's refusal to participate in the new treaty, the British Government notified the Governments of Japan and the United States that Britain would maintain a surplus of 40,000 tons in destroyers and transfer 4 ships from the category of "A" class cruisers to that of "B" class cruisers. In reply, the United States announced its intention to apply the escalator clause. To meet the increased tonnages of Britain and America, the Japanese Government decided to maintain a surplus tonnage in destroyers and submarines and notified the British Governments to that effect on August 31. The Japanese notice contained the following three major points:

1. The Imperial Japanese Government acknowledges receipt of the British notice that Britain will maintain a surplus of 40,000 tons in destroyers.

2. The Japanese Government wishes to give notice that Japan will maintain a surplus of a total of 26,657 tons including 11,059 tons in destroyers and 15,598 tons in submarines.

3. The Japanese Government requires the maintenence of a surplus tonnage in submarines in consideration of the fact that the surplus tonnage in destroyers is comparatively small.

On September 3, the Japanese Government notified the Government of the United States to the following effect:

"In view of the fact that the British Government has notified of its intention to maintain a surplus of 40,000 tons in destroyers through the invocation of Article 21 of the London Naval Treaty, the Japanese Government also intends to maintain a surplus tonnage in destroyers and submarines through the exercise of its treaty rights.

"According to the fixed ratio, the Japanese Government is entitled to the maintenance of a surplus of 28,000 tons in destroyers. As the surplus tonnage in destroyers does not reach these figures, the Japanese Government desires to effect a transfer of tonnage by maintaining a surplus of 15,598 tons in submarines in addition to the surplus of 11,059 tons in destroyers."

Limitation of Use of Submarines A procès-verbal was signed on November 6, concerning the continuance of the provisions in Chapter 4 of the London Naval Treaty which limit the use of submarines. The Japanese Government also participated in the procès-verbal. Other participants include Great Britain, the United States, France and Italy.

Limitation of Gun Calibre. Following Japan's refusal to participate in the London Naval Treaty of 1936, the British Government tried to persuade the Japanese Government to accept the provisions limiting the calibre of guns mounted on capital ships to 14 inches, at the least. The Japanese Government, however, declined to agree to such limitation. On March 27, 1937, Foreign Minister Naotaké Sato handed a note to Sir Robert Clive, the British Ambassador in Tokyo, which read in substance as follows:

"As clarified at the London Naval Conference, the Japanese Government is not in a position to agree to a qualitative limitation of naval armaments which is not accompanied by a quantitative limitation. As no need is recognized for a change in the principle which it set forth at the London Naval Conference, the Japanese Government cannot accept the proposal to limit the gun calibre without limiting the quantity of naval armaments."

The League Disarmament Conference Late in 1932, when the general disarmament conference was called at Geneva after years of preparation by the disarmament commission of the League of Nations, Japan also submitted a plan of her own with regard to naval limitation and reduction. This proposal, which was published on December 11, 1932, made it known that Japan was desirous of making it the guiding principle of the conference that offensive power should be reduced and that the geographical and other special circumstances of each country should be fully taken into consideration in making any settlement.

As regards the formula of the projected agreement, Japan proposed to divide it into general and special agreements. In the general agreement, it was proposed to arrange for the qualita-

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tive reduction of all vessels, and also the quantitative reduction of "offensive" vessels, belonging to Japan, Great Britain, the United States, France and Italy.

With regard to the special agreement, all the countries of the world should be divided into four groups, under (1) the Pacific group, (2) the Atlantic group, (3) the European group and (4) the South American group; and each group should arrange for limitation and reduction of the armament of each of its members. Any country interested in more than one group should participate in the disarmament discussions of all groups in which it is interested.

Relations with Great Britain

Abrogation of 1905 Convention The trade relations between Japan and India received a serious setback in 1933 when notice was served Japan in April through the British Government of the abrogation on October 10, 1933, of the Indo-Japanese Trade Convention of 1905.

This step was followed by an increase of the import duty of the Indian Government on Japanese cotton fabrics from 50 per cent to 75 per cent ad valorem on June 6, 1933. The duty on British cotton fabrics remained at 25 per cent. This drastic action on the part of the Indian Government caused the Japanese cotton spinners to boycott Indian cotton, and the situation was such that the British Government suggested the opening of negotiations between the industrial and trade interests of Japan, India and Great Britain in the hope of finding a solution.

Simla Conference Opinion was divided among industrialists in Japan with regard to acceptance of the British proposal, but it was finally decided to send representatives both to London and Simla to confer with representatives of the British and Indian interests. For the Simla conference, which was scheduled to be held on September 22, with the British and Indian delegates present, Mr. Setsuzo Sawada, former chief of the Japanese Bureau of the League of Nations, Mr. Susumu Terao, chief of the Trade Bureau of the Commerce and Industry Ministry, and Mr. Tetsuichiro Miyaké, Consul-General at Calcutta, were appointed to represent the Japanese Government, although they were not given full powers because the British Government had made it known that any agreement to be reached at Simla was subject to the approval of the British Government, while no official assurance was obtainable as to whether such an agreement would be adopted by the British Government without modification.

The Agreement Negotiations were not easy due to conflicts of interests of the two countries and more than 3 months was spent before it came to the final agreement of January 5, 1934, at New Delhi. Agreement was reached on various important problems relative to the commerce between Japan and India, including: (1) most-favoured-nation treatment; (2) a provision to open negotiations with a view to modifying customs tariff; (3) measures to be taken to adjust the effects of the exchange fluctuations; (4) customs duties applicable to Japanese cotton piece-goods imported into India; (5) a quota to be applied to the same; and (6) enforcement of the agreement entered into. The gist of the agreement follows:[1]

(1) Customs duties to be imposed on Japanese cotton piecegoods should not exceed following rates.

Duty on plain greys	50 per cent. ad valorem or 5.25 annas per pound
Duty on others	50 per cent. ad valorem

It is understood that the Government of India shall not impose on Japanese cotton piece-goods other than plain greys a specific duty exceeding 5.25 annas per pound subject to agreement concerning most-favoured-nation treatment.

(2) Basic quota of Japanese cotton piece-goods to be exported to India in a piece-goods year shall be 325,000,000 yards, and it shall be linked with 1,000,000 bales of Indian raw cotton exported to Japan in corresponding cotton year.

(3) Treaty shall come into force immediately after exchange of ratifications and shall remain in force until March 31, 1937.

The Indo-Japanese Trade Agreement was signed in London on July 12, 1934.

Revision of the Convention According to the proposal of the Japanese Government, which presented on April 24, 1936, for revision of the Japanese-Indian convention, negotations were opened between Mr. Yonezawa, the Japanese Consul-General at Simla and the Commercial Secretary of the Government of India on July 20. After the commencement of the negotiations the British Gov-

1 For particulars of the agreement see "Commercial Treaty between Japan and India" (Appendix).

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ernment notified the Japanese Government on October 21 of its intention to abrogate the Japanese-Indian convention of July 12, 1934. Consequently the Japanese-Indian negotiations were continued at Delhi and resulted in an agreement.

In regard to the Japanese-Indian agreement which was signed provisionally on April 12 the Japanese Government issued a statement reading as follows :

Anglo-Japanese Trade Issue (See the Japan Year Book, 1935, pp. 195, 196.)

With reference to an adjustment of the relations between Japan and Great Britain, Mr. Shigeru Yoshida, the Japanese Ambassador at London, started his activities in May, 1936, utilizing every occasion available for taking up the question with the British Authorities. As trade relations between the two nations are considered the principal factor responsible for the aggravation of the Anglo-Japanese relations, an Anglo-Japanese trade commission was created to try and adjust any trade differences. The commission held its first meeting on November 4, when, attended by 20 British and Japanese members, an exchange of views took place.

On April 11, 1937, the Keelung affair involving the trouble caused between some sailors belonging to the British Far Eastern Squadron and the police authorities in Keelung, which had been pending since October, 1936, was settled and the seemingly strained situation was greatly eased. To add to the influence brightening the prospects of Anglo-Japanese relations, the coronation of King George VI was held in London in May with Prince Chichibu attending on behalf of the Emperor of Japan, thereby renewing the friendship between the British Royal Family and the Japanese Imperial Family.

The Ladybird Incident On December 12, 1937, British men-of-war the Ladybird, the Bee, the Cricket and the Scarab were by mistake subjected to gunfire and aerial bombing by Japanese forces in the vicinities of Wuhu and Nanking in the course of Japanese attack on Nanking. On December 14, Foreign Minister Koki Hirota presented a note of apologies to Ambassador Sir Robert L. Craigie assuring that the Japanese Government had already taken necessary steps to prevent the recurrence of an incident of such character, that it would, upon the completion of investigations, deal appropriately with those responsible for the incident, and that it was prepared to make necessary indemnification for the losses sustained by the British.

On December 16, the British Government requested the Japanese Government, through Ambassador Craigie, an assurance that the contents of Japanese Foreign Minister's note of December 14 would apply to the attacks upon the British merchant vessels, and stated that the British Government took particular note of the point that those responsible would be suitably dealt with, and desired that the British Government would be informed that measures had been actually taken of a character which would put a definite stop to similar incidents. On December 28, Foreign Minister Hirota handed a reply to the British Ambassador assuring that what was said in the note of December 14 would of course apply to the British merchant vessels, that although it had been established, as a result of thorough investigations, that the incidents had been entirely due to a mistake, the Japanese Government have dealt properly according to law with all those of the Navy including the commander of the flying force, that the higher commanding officer of the Army and the Navy issued strict orders to the forces not to attack any vessels on the Yangtze unless they have been fully identified as those used for military purposes by Chinese, and that the Japanese Government was studying and expected to carry out every possible means of realizing the aims of safeguarding life and property of third nationals.

On December 31 the British Ambassador sent a final note to the Foreign Minister informing the latter that the British Government noted with appreciation the assurances contained in the Japanese note of December 28 and learned with satisfaction that the statements of the Japanese note of December 14 applied to merchant vessels as well as to warships and also that the Japanese Government had taken or was prepared to take the necessary disciplinary measures to prevent any repetition of such incidents.

Navigation on the Yangtze In connection with restoration of commerce and navigation of vessels of third Powers on the Yangtze River, the Ambassadors of Great Britain, the United States and France in Tokyo respectively presented notes of proposals to the Japanese Government on November 7, 1938.

Foreign Minister Hachiro Arita handed official notes to the Ambassadors of the Powers concerned, on November 14, replying that, although the Japanese Government had no intention of ham-

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pering deliberately the commerce and navigation of third Powers on the Yangtze, it held that the time had not yet arrived to warrant general opening of the river because of the following reasons:

1. The blockade at Kiangyin had not been opened beyond the stage where the river could be used for military purposes. For the time being, only navigation by Japanese warships and vessels for military purposes was possible.

2. Large-scale military operations were in progress above Hankow, and points between Shanghai and the upper river form an important commissary line. Navigation by commercial vessels in general would have seriously hampered Japanese military operations.

3. Areas along the Yangtze were infested with Chinese guerrillas, who frequently attacked Japanese warships and other vessels.

4. The Chinese forces frequently laid mines, taking the Japanese unawares, and navigation on the river was consequently very dangerous. This was indicated by the incident in which a vessel being used for military purposes was sunk.

5. It would take some time before Chinese mines had been completely cleared from the river and necessary navigation marks had been restored to normal.

Japano-Canadian Trade Relations

Japan applied the Commerce Adjustment and safeguarding Law against the Canadian goods in July, 1935 in answer to the latter's placing prohibitive high tariff walls against the Japanese goods. Circumstances surrounding the matter were treated in the Japan Year Book of 1935, pp. 442-445. Even then there was an indication that a new agreement would be arranged between the two countries. In the meantime negotiations were made between Minister Kato and Premier King and a new agreement was made on December 26, 1935, which has been in operation since January 1, 1936. The substance of the agreement is as follows:

The Canadian Government, in accordance with the general policy respecting trade and tariff matters, decided to make the following modifications in its customs regulation:

1. The classification "goods of a class or kind made or produced in Canada," as it appears in the Customs Tariff, will be restricted to goods which are of a class or kind made or produced in commercial quantities sufficient to supply at least ten per cent of the normal Canadian consumption.

Adequate notice will be given of the transfer for customs purposes of a product from the category "not of a class or kind made or produced in Canada" to the category "of a class or kind made or produced in Canada."

2. In computing the value for duty of goods of a class or kind not made or produced in Canada, the value of the Yen will be the current exchange value in terms of the Canadian dollar at the time the goods were exported to Canada.

3. In computing the value for ordinary duty and for special duty under Section 6 of the Customs Tariff of goods of a class or kind made or produced in Canada the value of the Yen during the twelve months beginning January 1, 1936, will be at the rate of 39.5 cents; being the average exchange value of the Yen in terms of the Canadian dollar, for the five-year period 1930-34, besed on the exchange rates published in the Statistical Year Book of the League of Nations.

For the succeeding twelve-month period the Yen will be taken at the average exchange value for the five-year period 1931-35, computed on the same basis, and similarly for each succeeding year. It is understood, of course, that if the Yen should reach a value in Canadian currency higher than the value set forth or provided for above, such value would thereupon cease to apply and would be replaced by the current exchange value.

4. The values established under authority of Section 43 of the Customs Act will be cancelled on January 1, 1936, on an extensive list of commodities.

5. Opportunity will be afforded for appeal to the Tariff Board of Canada respecting any value for duty which may in future be established under Section 43 of the Customs Act. In the event of such an appeal the value for duty in force will, upon the expiration of three months after the date of appeal, cease to have any force or effect unless the Tariff Board, following a public inquiry, finds that such value or some lower value is required to prevent the importation of the goods into Canada from prejudicially or injuriously affecting the interests of Canadian producers or manufactures. If a lower value is found by the Tariff Board to be appropriate such lower value will promptly become effective.

The Canadian Government has decided to cancel on January 1, 1936, the surtax of 33 1/3 per cent ad valorem levied on goods the produce or manufacture of

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Japan under the regulations made by Order in Council P.C. 2108 of July 22, 1935, as modified by Order in Council P. C. 2317 of August 3, 1935.

The Japanese Government decided to cancel, on January 1, 1936, the surtax of 50 per cent ad valorem levied on certain goods the produce or manufacture of Canada under the provisions of the Imperial Ordinance No. 208, 1935 and the proclamation No. 162 of the Department of Finance of Japan of July 20, 1935.

Trade Relations Between Japan and Australia

Japan was again compelled to apply the Commerce Adjustment and Safeguarding Law or Trade Protection Law (given in full at the end of Chapter XI) against Australia on June 25, 1936, under the circumstances explained in the declaration of the Japanese Government, full text of which was given in the Japan Year Book, 1936, pp.198–200. But the negotiations since succeeded in bringing about a provisional agreement between the two countries on December 26, 1936, and the Government of the Commonwealth of Australia decided to take the following actions as on and from January 1, 1937, in relation to trade between Australia and Japan :—

1. The Commonwealth Government will repeal the Statutory Rule No. 92 of 1936 notified in the Commonwealth Gazette on July 8, 1936.

2. The Commonwealth Government will reduce the existing intermediate tariff rates on cotton piece-goods and artificial silk piece-goods admissible under the following items of the Australian Customs Tariff 1933–1936 :—

Cotton piece goods
Tariff item 105 (A) (1) (a)
105 (A) (1) (c)
105 (A) (1) (d)
105 (B)
105 (C)
120 (D) (1)
130 (B) (1)
Artificial silk piece goods
Tariff item 105 (D) (1) (b)
To the following rates, viz.:—
Cotton piece goods
Unbleached 1¼ d per square yard
Bleached, 1½d per square yard
Printed dyed or coloured 2 d per square yard
Artificial silk piece goods
4 d per square yard

3. The Commonwealth Government, in addition to according Japan the benefits of Australian intermediate tariff on cotton piece-goods and artificial silk piece-goods admissible under the aforesaid items of the Australian Customs Tariff, will accord to Japan the benefits of Australian intermediate tariff on cotton piece-goods and artificial silk piece-goods admissible under the items 105 (A) (1) (e), 105 (A) (3) and 105 (A) (4).

4. The Commonwealth Government will exempt from primage duty Japanese cotton piece-goods and artificial silk piece-goods admissible in accordance with the decisions set out in paragraphs (2) and (3).

5. During the period January 1, 1937 to June 30, 1938, the Commonwealth Government will permit importation into Australia of 76,875,000 square yards of Japanese cotton piece-goods (other than calico for bag-making admissible under the tariff item 105 (A) (2) and 76,875,000 square yards of Japanese artificial silk piece-goods at the rate of 51,250,000 square yards for each of the two classes of piece-goods per annum.

Any cotton piece-goods or any artificial piece-goods exported from Japan within the quota allotment during the period ending June 30, 1938, but not arriving in Australia until after that date, will be admitted into Australia provided they are imported into Australia not later than September 30, 1938.

In answer to the above the Japanese Government decided to take the following actions as on and from January 1, 1937, in relation to trade between Japan and Australia:

1. The Japanese Government will cancel the surtax of 50 per cent ad valorem and abolish the licensing system provided in the Imperial Ordinance No. 124, 1936.

2. The Japanese Government will permit importation into Japan from Australia during the period ending June 30, 1938, of not less than 800,000 bales of Australian sheep's wool. Any sheep's wool exported from Australia for which import permission has been accorded during the period ending June 30, 1938, but which does not arrive in Japan until after that date, will be admitted into Japan, provided such wool is imported into Japan not later than September 30, 1938.

Japan-Dutch Conference

On the heels of the Indo-Japanese trade conference, Japan decided to negotiate on trade terms with Holland. In the talks at The Hague in December, 1933, between the Dutch Premier and Japanese diplomatic representatives, it

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was decided that Japanese and Dutch delegations negotiate in Java on the trade relations of Japan and the Dutch East Indies and that the outcome of their discussions be further debated at The Hague by representatives of both governments.

Dutch East Indies constitute one of Japan's most important markets, and since 1932 they had been taking more from this country than from Holland itself, a situation that naturally led the Dutch industrialists to campaign for restrictions against Japanese commodities.

With the purpose, on the part of the Dutch East Indies, to adjust the one sided trade relation with Japan for it bought ¥157,487,000 and sold ¥55,709,000 in 1933, the Japan-Dutch trade conference was opened at Batavia on June 8, 1934.

General committee meetings were opened on June 26 and adjourned indefinitely without any result on December 21, 1934.

Shipping Conference For some time since 1931 there had been a very severe competition in freight business between the Java, China and Japan Line and the Japanese shipping companies. In order to improve the situation freight conference had been arranged towards the close of 1932 between the abovementioned Dutch Line and the Japanese shipping interests. In 1934 parties interested in the quota system of cargoes held a conference at Kobé. After the Japan-Dutch Conference, a new Conference was held at Kobé in February, 1935. But before going to discuss any question of practical importance the conference came to a deadlock as soon as the question of language to be used came up, and, on February 22, the Conference was adjourned.

Since the rupture of the Kobé Conference the Dutch Government barred imports of the Japanese goods through the issuance of ordinances restricting imports and business, and through a restriction placed on handling of imported goods by the Japanese companies, which resulted in a marked decrease of imports of Japanese goods, the former ratio of trade between Japan and the Dutch East Indies which was 3 to 1 having been changed to 2 to 1.

The freight conference on Japan-Java-Line expired in June, 1935 and the freight competition became very severe. Japan then established the Nanyo Kaiun Kaisha, Ltd., with the Ishihara Sangyo, the Nanyo Yusen, and the Osaka Shosen as its investing companies. The result, however, was adverse to Japanese shipping companies. The ratio of placing of steamers which was 7 to 8 in Japan's favour has become 3 to 2.

In November of 1935 a shipping conference was held at Kobé, but both sides stuck to their own views and the conference brought about no satisfactory result. Later the matter was taken up again by the Japanese Consul-General Mr. Ishikawa at Batavia with the officials of the Dutch Government, and on June, 1936 an agreement was made between the two countries. According to this new agreement, the Japanese steamers have been enabled to load 64.28 per cent of the outgoing cargoes and 60 per cent of incoming cargoes.

The Japanese-Dutch negotiations entered their main stage in the autumn of 1936 and on April 9, 1937 an agreement of opinion was reached between the Japanese and Dutch representatives. Thus after three years' efforts, the negotiations between the two countries were brought to a successful end. It was decided that the new agreement should be signed formally at The Hague as a supplement to the Japanese-Dutch Treaty of Commerce and Navigation of 1931.

Relations with Soviet Russia

After the Siberian expedition in which Japan participated from 1918 until 1920, diplomatic relations were not restored between the Japanese and Russian Governments until 1924, although Japan had withdrawn her troops from Siberia a few years previously.

After her participation in the World War, Japan concluded an agreement with Russia on July 3, 1916 for the purpose of preventing Russia from making peace with Germany independently of the other Allies. At this time there was a rumour that the two countries had concluded an offensive and defensive alliance. Following the establishment of the communist régime in Russia, in 1917, Japan sent the 3rd and the 12th divisions and a part of the 7th division to Siberia between August and October of 1918, in compliance with a proposal from the United States, in order to enable some 50,000 Czechoslovak troops (formerly prisoners of war taken by the Russians from the Austrian armies) to establish contact with the allied armies in the East. This expedition automatically disrupted the diplomatic relations between Japan and Russia, and even after the Czechoslovak troops had re-established liaison with the other allied armies, the Japanese remained in Siberia with fresh troops relieving the first expeditionary forces. The American and other foreign troops were withdrawn early in 1920, but Ja-

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pan in spite of the demand for withdrawal by the Soviet Government of Irkutsk on March 11, 1920, continued to station her troops in the vicinity of Vladivostok and Habarovsk for the professed purpose of protecting the Japanese residents there. On March 18 and 19, 1920, partisan troops attacked the Japanese consulate, Nikolaevsk, killing all the officials and guards. On March 31, the Japanese Government issued a statement to the effect that Japan had no territorial designs in Siberia, but that the withdrawal of troops was impossible in the circumstances. Japan maintained relations with the Far Eastern Republic, constituted an independent state in February, 1921, until January, 1922, when this region was incorporated in the U. S. S. R.

With a view to restoring diplomatic relations with Soviet Russia, with which she shared interests on the Asiatic mainland, Japan undertook to negotiate with the Russian representatives on several occasions at Changchun and Dairen. Such efforts were resumed in 1923 in Tokyo, where M. Joffe and Mr. Toshihiko Kawakami met in conference officially representing Soviet Russia and Japan through the good offices of Count Shimpéi Goto, but no satisfactory results were forthcoming. It was at Peking that the diplomatic relations between the two countries were resumed officially on January 20, 1925, when Mr. Kenkichi Yoshizawa, the Japanese Minister there, succeeded in concluding an agreement with M. Karakhan, the Soviet representative, after seven months' negotiations.

The Fishery Dispute The first fishery convention between the two countries had been concluded in 1907, and after the resumption of Soviet-Japanese relations, efforts were made for its revision and, following the visit to Russia by Count Shimpéi Goto in this connection, the revised convention was signed on January 24, 1928, remedying such provisions as had proved disadvantageous to the Japanese and otherwise improving the pact to meet the new situation. However, this revision was later found to be imperfect and disputes arose one after another between the Japanese fishing interests and the Soviet authorities regarding the details of the fishery convention.

Among other issues in this connection the most notable in recent years was that concerning the exchange rate of the rouble. This dispute originated in the inspection of the Vladivostok office of the Bank of Chosen by the local Soviet authorities and the subsequent prohibition of free transactions in rouble exchange. As a result, the Japanese fishing interests, which had been paying various taxes and rates to the Soviet authorities with Soviet currency obtainable at the Vladivostok office of the Bank of Chosen at depreciated exchange rates, now faced the necessity of exchanging the yen for the rouble at an official rate five or six times higher than the open market value. In order to settle this problem, the Japanese Government demanded that either the rents of the fishing leases or the official exchange value of the rouble be reduced, and this proposal was followed by prolonged negotiations in Moscow and Tokyo.

The negotiations were started in Moscow in October, 1930, but soon afterwards the Soviet Ambassador to Japan, M. Troianovsky, took up the dispute in Tokyo, and communicated the willingness of his Government to reduce the official exchange rate of the rouble by 25 per cent, when selling debentures of the state operated corporation, Aco (in charge of the Russian fishery interests), fixing the rate at 75 sen in Japanese currency. In reply Japan insisted on the rate of 30 sen per rouble, and negotiations continued until April 28, 1931, when a compromise was reached providing that the payments of the Japanese fishing interests to the Soviet authorities during the year of 1931 should be made with Aco debentures to be purchased at the rate of 32.5 sen per rouble.

In view of this dispute and other difficulties arising from the differences between the two countries in the interpretation of the provisions of the Fishery Convention, Japan proposed on June 22, 1931, to open a conference with Soviet Russia to reconsider the whole convention. After a delay of five months, Soviet Russia consented to negotiate with Japan and pourparlers were started between Mr. Koki Hirota, the Japanese Ambassador, and M. Karakhan, Assistant Commissar of Foreign Affairs of Soviet Russia, on November 27, 1931. No substantial progress, however, was made during the negotiations, which were carried on with frequent interruptions for several months.

On February 20, 1934, the auction for the current year of the fishery grounds was held at Vladivostok. Bids were submitted by both Japanese and Soviets. The Soviets, however, declared that the Japanese bids were unacceptable, because they were accompanied by a guarantee made out at the rate of 32.5 sen, instead of 75 sen ruled by the

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Vladivostok fishery authorities, per ruble, and the Soviets' bids, which numbered 60, were accepted as valid. The reason that the Japanese interests insisted upon a 32.5 sen rate of exchange is based upon a provision in the Shidéhara-Troianovsky Agreement of April 26, 1931.

On February 25 the Russian authorities proposed a compromise which purported to permit Japanese bidders to enter new offers at 32.5 sen on February 28 for the remaining 66 fishing grounds, provided that the exchange rate question would be held open for future negotiations. This was accepted by the Japanese interests and the grounds were given them at the auction held on May 20.

The question of yen-ruble exchange still remained and negotiations to settle the matter were opened on June 17 at Moscow, from then up to February 21, 1935, the negotiations were held 15 times. As Japan thought it necessary to revise it, the Foreign Office caused Ambassador Tamékichi Ohta, in Moscow, to make a proposal to the Moscow Government in May, 1935, one year prior to the date of maturity, in conformity with Article XV of the treaty, for its revision.

On April 26, 1936 the Japanese Government proposed, at the conference held at the Embassy at Moscow, between the councillor Sako and Mr. B. I. Kozlovsky, second head of the eastern department of the Foreign Commissariat, to revise the 1928 fishery convention and to extend 1932 Hirota-Karakhan agreement for 12 years, which the Soviet declined. As the basic claim of Japan was not heeded the negotiation was impossible to come to a satisfactory close before May 27, which was the final date set for the revision of the convention. However, a provisional agreement for the extension of the 1928 convention was signed at Moscow on May 25. According to this agreement, the present convention has become valid till December 31, 1936.

Non-Aggression Pact Proposal (See the Japan Year Book, 1935, p. 199.)

Negotiations for Sale of the N. M. R. Through the good offices of the Japanese Government a conference was opened in Tokyo on June 26, 1933, between representatives of Soviet Russia and Manchoukuo regarding the proposed sale of the North Manchuria Railway (formerly the Chinese Eastern Railway). Japan took no active part in the railway negotiations, except that a few Japanese officials attended the sessions as observers.

According to a memorandum stating the fundamental principles for the transfer of the North Manchuria Railway submitted by the Soviet Russia at the third official meeting held on July 4, 1933, the sale price was put at 250,000,000 gold roubles. The price offered by Manchoukuo was ¥50,000,000. The Soviet side based its calculation on the amount of its investment totalling 411,690,000 gold roubles up to 1932 and, taking into consideration the depreciation of economic value of the railway and its condition of damage, it finally estimated the total amount of transfer at 250,000,000 gold roubles. The Manchurian side appraised the value on the basis of the prevailing construction cost. In March, 1934, the Soviet side brought down the price to ¥200,000,000, but the Manchurian side lowered it to ¥100,000,000 in April of that year. Through mutual concession, the price was fixed at ¥170,000,000 on September 21, 1934. During the intervening period Foreign Minister Koki Hirota held interviews with Ambassador Youreneff ten times and Mr. Shigénori Togo, Director of the Europe and Asia Bureau, of the Foreign Office, saw M. Benedict I. Kazlovsky, one of the Soviet delegates, eight times on negotiations. Finally, the negotiations were concluded on January 21, 1935, and on March 23 the signing of the agreement took place at the official residence of the Foreign Minister in Tokyo. (The Agreement is given in full in the Appendix.)

North Saghalien Oil Concession The North Saghalien Oil Concession contract, based on Article VI of the Japanese-Soviet Basic Treaty, concluded in October, 1925, has proved very disadvantageous to Japan as well as the Japanese-Soviet Fishery Treaty. The whole area where oil prospecting is to be undertaken is divided like a checker board. If one bloc of the board is assigned for Japan to prospect, the adjoining bloc is claimed by the Soviet side as its prospecting field. When Japan succeeds in turning out oil by prospecting, paying an enormous amount of expenses, and changes it into an oil mining section, the Soviet side enlists the adjoining bloc into its oil fields, thus profiting without much trouble and expenses. It is also disadvantageously provided for in the treaty that the term of oil prospecting in unexploited fields covering an area of 1,000 versts in Ocha districts is fixed at only 10 years. Moreover, North Saghalien is open to the practicability of actual work for a brief period of only two or three months during summer. The actual period of

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operation throughout 10 years is therefore only about 20 or 30 months. The term would have matured at the end of 1936. The North Saghalien Oil Company had been negotiating with the Soviet Government for extension of the term of prospecting since about seven years ago.

Oil Prospecting Rights Negotiations were opened between the president of the Karafuto Petroleum Company and the authorities of the Soviet People's Commissariat for Heavy Industries in the spring of 1936, which resulted in an understanding to extend the term of the Japanese right to prospect the oil resources in the northern half of Saghalien by five years. Documents containing detailed items of the understanding were signed at Moscow on October 10, 1936, between the president of the Japanese company and the Soviet People's Commissar for Heavy Industries.

Changkufeng Incident A border trouble with the U. S. S. R. occurred at Changkufeng hill of Manchoukuo by the occupation of the hill by Soviet forces on July 12, 1938. Actual hostilities between Japanese and Soviet forces began at the end of July and continued for about 10 days. Despite its numerical inferiority, an unnamed detachment of the Japanese army repulsed attacks by the Soviets and held its position to the last. The Soviets mobilized three divisions of sharpshooters, 200 tanks and sent more than 100 airplanes.

During the 10 days of sustained engagements, a division of Soviet snipers was destroyed and about 100 tanks put out of commission. Without sending up a single machine, the Japanese brought down six Soviet planes. The Japanese casualties totalled 890.

On August 4, Mr. Kensuké Horinouchi, Vice-Minister for Foreign Affairs, invited the Soviet Charge d'Affairs, Mr. Constantin Smetanin to the Foreign Office and made proposals to him for the cessation of hostilities and requested Mr. Smetanin to transmit the same promptly to his home Government and obtain its reply thereto.

At the same time the Japanese Government ordered Ambassador Shigemitsu in Moscow to enter into negotiations with Foreign Commissar Litvinoff for a quick settlement of the matter. At the end of the conversation between them on the night of August 10, 1938, the following agreement was concluded:

1. Both Japanese and Soviet forces shall cease all hostile operations as from noon (Maritime Province time), August 11.

2. Japanese and Soviet forces are to maintain the lines held by them at midnight, August 10.

3. The details of the truce agreement are to be arranged by representatives of the two forces on the spot.

Revision of Fishery Agreement Although the German-Japanese agreement was directed against the Comintern, with which the Soviet Government declared itself to have nothing to do, and was aimed at the creation of a common German-Japanese front against Communism, the Soviet Government suspected that the pact were directed against the Soviet Union. Out of this suspicion, the Soviet Government went the length of refusing to sign a new fishery agreement with Japan, which had already been initialled. As a result, the Soviet-Japanese situation was greatly aggravated because it became impossible to enforce a new agreement to replace the Soviet-Japanese Fishery Agreement and the Hirota-Karakhan Agreement, both scheduled to expire at the end of 1936. The situation was rectified only by making provisional arrangements for the extension of the terms of the said two agreements by one year.

Official documents embodying the provisional arrangements were signed at Moscow on December 28, 1936, between Mr. Mamoru Shigemitsu, the Japanese Ambassador to the U. S. S. R., and Mr. Stomoniakov, the Soviet Assistant People's Commissar for Foreign Affairs, on December 28. At the end of 1937, Japan was again obliged to conclude a modus vivendi, owing to the attitude of the Soviet authorities.

In 1938 and 1939, negotiations on the fishery question were again carried on between the Japanese Ambassador to Moscow and the Foreign Commissar of the Soviet Russia, and came to a satisfactory conclusion on April 2, 1939. A modus vivendi was accordingly signed at midnight by Ambassador Togo and Foreign Commissar Litvinoff, and the Japanese participated in the auction of fishery areas in the northern waters held at Vladivostok on April 4. The results of the agreement may be summarized as follows:

(A) The Fishery Convention of 1928 remains in force until the end of this year.

(B) The contract for the special contract fishery lots is extended another year with the exception of four exempted lots, concerning which mention will be made later.

(C) As to stabilized fishery lots they are placed on auction with the excep-

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tion of the exempted lots, of which mention will be made later, but

(a) The definite prospect is that Japanese fishing interests will acquire them.

(b) These acquired lots will be under lease for five years.

(c) The rent is not to be raised more than ten per cent.

(d) The four lots which were successfully bidden by the Soviet side on March 15th, are to be returned to the Japanese.

(D) The exempted fishery lots:

Thirty-seven fishery lots consisting of thirty-two of the stabilized lots, four of the special lots, and one of the lots under lease are exempted from auction as exceptions to Article 8 of the Protocol A of the Fishery Convention. But against these lots ten substitute lots are offered, nine of which are to be leased for five years by auction.

(E) The nine Japanese fishery lots which have been placed on auction because their lease expired will be successfully bidden by the Japanese for the term of five years.

(F) The fifty-two fishery lots which have been still under lease will continue to be leased by the Japanese.

(G) The rate of rouble exchange remains the same as before.

To sum up, the Japanese side has acceded to the Soviet contention regarding the placing of the so-called stabilized lots on auction because the term of their lease has expired. But the Japanese will successfully bid for all the fishery lots except the exempted ones and secure the stabilization of the fishery lots for five years. As for the exempted fishery lots, although we are not to operate twenty-seven of them, we can operate about three hundred and sixty fishery lots. In other words, Japan has acquired as the result of the recent negotiations about three hundred and sixty fishery lots in all, of which two hundred and sixty-four are to be stabilized for five years.

Relations with the United States

The mutual friendship of Japan and the United States largely hinges upon their respective interests on the Asiatic continent, most notably in Manchuria and China proper. The United States first made it known in 1899 that she had an equal claim in China to that of other Powers by advocating the so-called open door policy. The United States thought it necessary to assert this principle in order to catch up with the other Powers, which had already acquired extensive interest in China, and it followed naturally that the Americans should sympathize with Japan in her desperate attempt in 1904–5 to force Russia out of Manchuria and leave the region open to all nations interested.

The Four-Power Treaty For the same reason the United States objected to Japan's occupation of Shantung during the World War. The result was that Japan formally restored the territory to China on May 17, 1919 and at the Washington Conference, 1921–22, agreed to complete evacuation thereof. The Four-Power Treaty concerning the insular possessions of the signatories in the Pacific and the Nine-Power Treaty regarding the sovereignty and the open door principle of China, which were signed at the Washington Conference, also had a more important bearing upon Japan and the United States than on the other signatories. The Four-Power Treaty provided that the signatories should mutually respect the right of the Powers regarding their respective insular possessions in the Pacific and also that in case a dispute arose regarding such rights with likelihood to prove detrimental to the peaceful relations between the powers concerned, the parties involved in such a dispute should call a joint conference of the other signatories to discuss settlement of the entire issue. So far as Japan is concerned, however, this provision applies only to Karafuto, the Pescadores and her mandated islands in the Southern Pacific. The most important provision in this treaty for Japan is embodied in its fourth article which stipulates that the Anglo-Japanese alliance, which had been concluded at London on July 13, 1911, should terminate simultaneously with the conclusion of this treaty.

The Nine-Power Treaty The Nine-Power Treaty also has an important bearing on Japan in that it consolidated the open door policy in connection with China, where Japan has greater interests than any other foreign country, especially in Manchuria. This treaty was invoked against Japan both by the United States and the League of Nations in connection with the Manchurian incident.

In the first article of this treaty, what are known as Root's four principles were incorporated, providing, first, that the sovereignty and independence as well as the territorial and political integrity of China should be respected, second, that most perfect and unrestricted opportunities should be offered China in order that she might be able to establish and maintain a powerful

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stable government, third, that efforts sould be made to establish and maintain the principle of equal opportunity for commerce and industry to be undertaken by people of all nationalities throughout the territory of China, and fourth, that the signatories should refrain from utilizing conditions in China to seek special rights or interests detrimental to the interests of the subjects or citizens of other friendly nations, or from recognizing actions detrimental to the welfare of such friendly nations.

The Immigration Question In view of the agitation in the United States against Japanese labour, the Tokyo Government had taken every precaution not to aggravate this issue and from 1907, when what is known as the "Gentleman's Agreement" was concluded, Japan continued to restrict emigration to the United States by withholding passports from intending emigrants above a limited number.

However, on August 19, 1913 the State of California promulgated the Alien Land Law (the Webb Bill) prohibiting Japanese and other aliens ineligible for citizenship from owning land, in spite of three protests by Baron Sutemi Chinda, Japanese Ambassador in Washington. In 1919, the Japanese Government took the further precaution of stopping the emigration of so-called "picture brides" to the United States, but nevertheless an ever increasing anti-Japanese sentiment continued to prevail in the United States, and on April 19, 1920, the Federal Immigration Bureau revised the regulations governing the entry of the adopted children of Japanese parents. Moreover, the State of California enacted a second law of exclusion barring the Japanese and other aliens from leasing land, or owning land in the name of corporations or from operating land owned in the name of their American-born children.

The immigration problem assumed its greatest gravity in 1924, when the United States Congress passed a new federal immigration law, which included a provision absolutely prohibiting immigration of Japanese labourers. While this bill was before the Congress, the Japanese Government instructed its ambassador at Washington, Mr. Masanao Hanihara, to call the attention of the United States Government to the importance attached by the Japanese to the proposed legislation. The steps taken by Mr. Hanihara, however, resulted in provoking the American sentiment owing to a phrase "grave consequences" which he used inadvertently in a communication to the Secretary of State, Mr. Hughes.

When the United States President signed the bill on May 24, 1924, the Japanese Government sent in a strong protest but could not improve the situation in any way. The Japanese people took this action on the part of the United States as a serious insult to their national honour.

A resolution calling for ejection of Japanese farmers for the next 10 days from Arizona farmlands was adopted at a convention of about 200 American tenant farmers near Phoenix, the capital of Arizona State in the United States, on August 15, 1934. A movement of forcing Japanese farmers out of their farmlands was subsequently staged several times. These American farmers approached the Governor of the State to recognize their movement, but, when he rejected their petition they resorted to direct action to force Japanese farmers out. The situation then spread to California and in February, 1935, an anti-Japanese exclusion bill was submitted to the Californian State Legislature. The bill provided for an absolute prohibition of Japanese people from engaging in agriculture under any circumstances. The exclusion bill was submitted to an agriculture committee of the Lower House and then was turned over to a judicial committee. Finding that the bill was too exacting and aimed at depriving the Japanese farmers of the right of agriculture, the committee doubted it might conflict the U. S. Constitution and submitted it to the Plenary session of the Californian State Lower House with a desideratum for amendment, but it was shelved at the Upper House. The problem thus was apparently solved, but the exclusion tendency against Japanese was growing keener. Even Japanese who legally entered that country and are engaged in peaceful vocations are not given the treatment accorded the American citizens.

Stimson Idealism The attempted intervention in the Manchurian and Shanghai affairs in 1931 and 1932 by the American Secretary of State, Col. Henry L. Stimson, at one time seemed to menace seriously the relations between Japan and the United States.

Hirota-Hull Messages As soon as Mr. Koki Hirota took office as Foreign Minister he commenced to devote himself to strengthening Japan's friendly relations with her neighbouring countries. As one of the manifestations of such endeavour, he sent through Mr. H. Saito, the new Ambassador, his per-

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sonal message to Mr. Hull, the Secretary of State of the United States, on February 21, 1934 :

" I firmly believe that, viewed in the light of the broad aspect of the situation and studied from all possible angles, no question exists between our two countries that is fundamentally incapable of amicable solution. I do not doubt that all issues pending between the two nations will be settled in a satisfactory manner, when examined with a good understanding on the part of each of the other's position, discussed with an open mind and in all frankness, and approached with a spirit of co-operation and conciliation."

To this, Secretary Hull replied on March 3 with his personal message in the form of a letter to Mr. Hirota, a summary of which is as follows.

" I believe that there are in fact no questions between our two countries which, if they be viewed in proper perspective in both countries, can with any warrant be regarded as not readily susceptible to adjustment by pacific processes."

American-Japanese Relations in 1936 The diplomatic relations between Japan and the United States have been quite amicable although arguments were exchanged between them regarding the naval question. Apart from the naval question, mention must be made of the fact that the United States raised its tariffs on Japanese cotton cloth. In May, 1936, Congress and industrialist circles in America urged the Japanese Government to control exports of cotton cloth but arrangements in this connection failed to be concluded.

Reference may also be made of the fact that since the autumn of 1936, there have been increasing signs pointing to the possibility of the Japanese salmon-fishing operations off Alaska being made an issue.

The Panay Incident On December 12, 1937, the United States gunboat Panay and three steamers belonging to the Standard Oil Company were sunk by the bombing of the Japanese naval aircraft on the Yangtze River at a point about 26 miles above Nanking in the course of military operation around the Chinese capital.

On December 14, Foreign Minister Koki Hirota sent a note of apology to American Ambassador Joseph C. Grew, in which he informed that the Japanese naval air force, acting upon information that the Chinese troops fleeing from Nanking were going up the river in steamers, took off to pursue them and discovered such vessels at the abovementioned point, and due to poor visibility the aircraft, although they descended to fairly low altitudes, were unable to discern any mark to show that any one of the vessels was an American ship. Consequently the American ships, being taken for Chinese vessels, were bombed and sunk. And in the Note the Foreign Minister stated that the Japanese Government regretted most profoundly that it had caused damages to the American ships and casualties, that the Japanese Government would make indemnifications for all losses and deal appropriately with those responsible for the incident, and that it had already issued strict orders to the authorities on the spot with a view to preventing the recurrence of a similar incident.

On the same day, the Government of the United States, through Ambassador Grew, sent a note to the Foreign Department, which, after describing the circumstances prior to the occurrence of the incident, concluded that the acts of the Japanese forces in the attack were carried out in complete disregard of the rights of the United States, taking American life and destroying American property, both public and private, and stated that " in these circumstances the Government of the United States requests and expects of the Japanese Government a formally recorded expression of regret and an undertaking to make complete and comprehensive indemnifications, and an assurance that definite and specific steps have been taken which will ensure that hereafter American nationals, interests and property in China will not be subjected to attack by Japanese armed forces or unlawful interference by any Japanese authorities whatever."

On December 24, the Foreign Minister sent the second note to Ambassador Grew, saying as to " a recorded expression of regret and indemnifications no word needs to be added to what I have said in my aforementioned Note (of December 14). As regards the guarantee for the future the Japanese Navy issued without delay strict orders to exercise the greatest caution in every area where warships and other vessels of America or any other third Power are present, furthermore, rigid orders have been issued to the military, naval and foreign office authorities to pay greater attention to observance of the instructions that have been repeatedly given against infringement of or unwarranted interference with the rights and interests of the

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United States and other third Powers. Simultaneously, the Japanese Government is studying carefully every possible means of achieving more effectively the above-stated aims, while it has already taken steps to ascertain in still closer contact with American authorities in China the locations of American interests and nationals, and to improve means of communicating intelligence thereof speedily and effectively to the authorities on the spot." Then the note stated that the Commander of the Flying Force concerned had been immediately removed from his post and recalled, and the staff members of the fleet and the commander of the flying squadron and all others responsible had been duly dealt with according to law.

On December 26, Ambassador Grew sent American note in reply to the Foreign Minister's note of December 24, which stated that the Government of the United States observed with satisfaction the promptness with which the Japanese Government in its note of December 14 admitted responsibility, expressed regret and offered amends, that the American Government regarded the Japanese Government's account, as set forth in the Japanese Government's note of December 24, of action taken by it as responsive to the request made by the American Government in its note of December 14, and that with regard to the facts of the origins, causes and circumstances of the incident the Government of the United States relied on the report of findings of the Court of Inquiry of the United States Navy.

As regards the matter of indemnification, the American Ambassador sent to the Japanese Government an official note dated the 21st March listing (1) amount of property losses $1,945,670.01; (2) death and personal injury indemnification, $268,337.35, totalling $2,214,007.36. The Foreign Office requested of the American Embassy an itemized account of the total claims for indemnification which was sent it on the 9th April. Accordingly, after the completion of the necessary procedures by the Japanese Government, Mr. Seijiro Yoshizawa, Director of the Bureau of American Affairs of the Foreign Office, in the name of the Minister for Foreign Affairs, handed on the 22nd April at 5:00 p.m., a check at his office to the foregoing amount of $2,214,007.36, addressed to the American Secretary of State, Mr. Cordell Hull, to Mr. Eugene Dooman, Counsellor of the American Embassy.

Upon conclusion of this payment, the Panay Affair was amicably and satisfactorily settled.

A Protest On August 26, 1938, the American Government made protests against the unwarranted attack, on August 24, near Macao by Japanese airplanes upon a commercial airplane of the China National Aviation Corporation, and the Japanese Government replied, on August 31, stating that the incident was caused by the said corporation plane which within the Japanese field of operation acted in such a manner as to invite suspicions of its being a Chinese military craft, and that the company to which the aircraft belonged being a Chinese juridical person, the incident was not one which involved Japan directly with any third Power.

Antiquated Nine-Power Treaty On October 6, 1938, the American Government sent in a note of protest against the alleged discriminate treatment by the Japanese authorities of American citizens in China, violating the rights and interests of the United States. The Japanese Government answered the note, stating that there was no intention of interfering with American rights and interests in China and hinting at, for the first time, the inapplicability of the clauses of the Nine-Power Treaty to the new order of things in China, on November 18. The conclusions of the Japanese Note follow:

"As has been explained above, the Japanese Government, with every intention of fully respecting American rights and interests in China, have been doing all that could possibly be done in that behalf. However, since there are in progress at present in China military operations on a scale unprecedented in our history, it may well be recognized by the Government of the United States that it is unavoidable that these military operations should occasionally present obstacles to giving full effect to our intention of respecting the rights and interests of American citizens. Japan at present is devoting her energy to the establishment of a new order based on genuine international justice throughout East Asia, the attainment of which end is not only an indespensable condition of the very existence of Japan, but also constitutes the very foundation of the enduring peace and stability of East Asia. It is the firm conviction of the Japanese Government that in the fact of the new situation, fast developing in East Asia,

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any attempt to apply to the conditions of to-day and to-morrow inapplicable ideas and principles of the past would neither contribute toward the establishment of a real peace in East Asia nor solve the immediate issues. However, as long as these points are understood, Japan has not the slightest inclination to oppose the participation of the United States and other Powers in the great work of reconstructing East Asia along all lines of industry and trade; and I believe that the new régimes now being formed in China are prepared to welcome such foreign participation.

The Late Ambassador Saito and the President The former Ambassador Hiroshi Saito died in Washington on February 26, 1939. And in appreciation of his noble services for the maintenance of friendly relations between the United States and Japan, President Roosevelt extended courtesy and kindness toward the bereaved family and Japan by issuing an order to convey the remains of the deceased in honour to Japan on board the United States cruiser "Astoria". The cruiser, commanded by Captain R. K. Turner, with the remains of the late Ambassador, sailed from Annapolis on March 18 and arrived at Yokohama on April 17.

This friendly and thoughtful action on the part of the American President profoundly moved the Government and people of Japan who duely expressed their thankfulness both in words and action on the arrival of the "Astoria".

Relation with Germany

Anti-Comintern Agreement The Governments of Japan and Germany having decided on the fundamental policy of creating a common front against Communism, detailed negotiations were commenced during the latter part of July 1936, at Berlin between the Japanese Ambassador to Germany and the German authorities. The negotiations resulted in an agreement which was signed provisionally on October 23. After the approval of the Japanese Privy Council had been secured, the anti-Comintern pact was formally signed on November 25 between Viscount Kintomo Mushakoji, the Japanese Ambassador in Berlin, and Colonel von Ribbentrop, the German representative. The pact went into effect simultaneously with the signing.

The conclusion of this agreement with Germany attracted a great deal of public attention all over the world as the most important diplomatic step taken by Japan since her withdrawl from the League of Nations in 1933. On November 25, 1936, the Japanese Foreign Office issued a statement announcing the signing of the agreement and explaining its significance as follows:

1. Ever since its establishment, the Communist International, or the so-called Comintern, with its headquarters at Moscow, has been engaged in all sorts of activities, greatly menacing the peace of the world, for the purpose of destroying the national and social structures in every country in pursuance of the fundamental policy of world revolution. At its Seventh Congress, held in the summer of last year, the Comintern decided on a policy of organizing a united front with the Second International to oppose Fascism and imperialism and at the same time made it plain that the future objectives of Comintern activities were to be Japan, Germany and Poland. It further resolved to support the Chinese Communist armies in order to fight Japan. The actual operations subsequently carried on by the Comintern have become extremely ingenious, rendering them all the more dangerous.

As to the extent to which the Comintern interferes with the internal affairs of all countries and exerts a baneful influence on the well-being of nations and the peace of the world, it is only necessary to look at the present disturbances in Spain to realize its magnitude. At least those countries that lodged protests with the Government of the Soviet Union at the time of the Comintern congress certainly have full cognizance of the harmfulness of Comintern activities.

2. The Communist invasion has hitherto been more marked in the Orient, especially in China, than elsewhere. Outer Mongolia and Sinkiang have already suffered from its calamitous effects, and China proper is now being subjected to the depredations of the Communist armies. As a matter of fact, the activities of the Comintern in China have increased notably in vigor since its Seventh Congress.

In Manchoukuo also the Comintern has been surreptitiously endeavouring through the Manchurian district committee of the Chinese Communist Party to organize cells, to win over and instigate bandits and to direct the raids by partisan troops all over the country.

In Japan, the extreme leftist movement temporarily showed signs of decline after the Manchurian incident, but since the Seventh Congress of the Comintern it has again become energetic. It has crept into the channels of lawful agitation in conformity with the resolution of that congress and has

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launched a unified front movement that is intended to be the basis for revival of the Communist movement.

3. The Japanese Government, which, in order to safeguard Japan's immutable national policy and insure national security and to maintain everlasting peace in East Asia, has pursued a clear-cut and consistent policy toward the Comintern, finds it necessary to take more rigorous measures of self-defence against the increased menace set forth above.

The organization and activities of the Comintern being of an international character, any programme of counteraction should necessarily be based on international co-operation. Germany, ever since the establishment of the present régime in 1933, has put into execution drastic anti-Communist policies. Last year at the Seventh Congress of the Comintern, Germany and Japan were selected as the special objectives of Comintern operations. Thus Japan and Germany are placed in similar circumstances vis-à-vis the Comintern. Consequently the Japanese Government, as the first step in its defensive undertaking, conducted negotiations with Germany and concluded an agreement on November 25 to take effect immediately.

4. This agreement, the fundamental object of which is common defense against the destructive operations of the Comintern, contains provisions for the exchange of information regarding Comintern activities, for consultation on, and execution of joint invitations to third Powers. There is, besides, a supplementary protocol stipulating in concrete terms the manner in which the agreement is to be executed.

5. The Japanese Government is desirous of co-operating with as many Powers as possible for the purpose of perfecting its defensive measures against the Comintern menace, but for that purpose alone. It should be pointed out that in connection with, or behind, this agreement there exists no other agreement whatsoever, that the Japanese Government has no intention to form, or join in, any special international bloc for any other purpose and finally that the present agreement is not directed against the Soviet Union or any other specific country. (The text of the agreement is given in Appendix.)

Cultural Cooperation On November 25, 1938, the two countries entered into an agreement for furthering their traditional cultural relations. The Foreign Office Spokesman made the following statement on the same:

It is a matter for sincere congratulation that the cultural agreement between Japan and Germany, for whose conclusion negotiations have been going on for some time between the representatives of the two countries in Tokyo, has been signed and gone into effect today; the agreement will not only conduce to drawing still closer the cultural relations between the two nations, but be instrumental in enabling them to deepen their knowledge and understanding of each other.

Japan has recently severed all her relations with the League of Nations. This, however, does not mean that Japan has severed her cultural relations with foreign countries or suspended her co-operation with them in the cultural field, but on the contrary she is as ready as ever to co-operate in cultural undertakings with those foreign countries in friendly relationship with her, whether they are member states of the League or not.

The cultural agreement, signed between Japan and Germany today, is a manifestation of the earnest desire of the Japanese Government for strengthening cultural ties with foreign countries through agreements to be concluded separately on a basis of reciprocity. It is the first of the kind to be put into operation, but we hope that it will be followed by similar pacts to be concluded with as many foreign Powers as possible. For instance, a cultural agreement was already signed between Japan and Hungary on November 15 and expected to go into effect in the near future, while preparations are under way for concluding a similar agreement with Italy. It is the policy of the Japanese Government to accelerate conclusion of cultural agreements with those foreign Powers which are desirous of so doing.

The key-note of those agreements which are anticipated to be concluded with foreign Powers lies in an exchange and intermixture of Japanese culture (whose essence will be fostered and developed) and the essence of characteristic cultures of various foreign countries. The present cultural agreement between Japan and Germany provides for a general policy in cultural co-operation between the two countries under the above-mentioned guiding principle.

Various fields of activities, stipulated by Article II of the present agreement, are only given as examples. Cultural pacts between foreign countries usually have detailed stipulations, but the present agreement between Japan and Ger-

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many is rather different in stipulating general provisions for cultural co-operation and leaving room for giving full play to them as occasion demands, while matters of detail shall be discussed and decided on between the competent authorities of the High Contracting Parties in case of necessity. (The text of the agreement in given in Appendix.)

Relations with Italy

An Understanding The friendly relations between Japan and Italy were greatly improved by the avowed intention of the Italian Government to create a consulate-general in Manchoukuo and the decision of the Japanese Government to close its legation in Ethiopia following the annexation of that territory by Italy. Taking advantage of the situation, negotiations were opened between the two Governments concerned during the early part of November, 1936, following the conclusion of the German-Japanese anti-Comintern pact, for the conclusion of an Italo-Japanese agreement.

The negotiations were aimed at the virtual recognition of Manchoukuo by the Italian Government, the creation of a Japanese consulate in Ethiopia and the maintenance and promotion of the economic interests of Japan in that territory. Announcements were issued on December 23, 1936, both in Tokyo and Rome, concerning the Italo-Japanese agreement which took the form of an understanding.

Anti-Comintern Agreement Italy entered the Agreement on November 6, 1937. The account is given in the "Tripartite Agreement against the Comintern Activity", contained in this Chapter.

Cultural Cooperation The relation of Japan and Italy was further strengthened with the conclusion of an agreement on cultural cooperation on March 23, 1939. The English translation of the text of the agreement is inserted in Appendix at the end of this volume; the statement of the Foreign Office Spokesman on the occasion follows:

It is a matter for hearty congratulation that the cultural agreement between Japan and Italy, for the conclusion of which negotiations have been going on in Tokyo between the representatives of both countries since the end of last year, has today been formally signed and gone into effect.

At the time of the conclusion of the Japanese-German Cultural Agreement, the Japanese Government declared that they would co-operate in cultural undertakings with those foreign countries which are in friendly relationship with Japan through a bilateral agreement based on the principle of reciprocity, and not through the League of Nations. It is quite natural that, following the conclusion of such a cultural agreement with Germany, Japan should have entered into a similar agreement with Italy, with which our country has long enjoyed intimate cultural relations in the fields of arts and sciences. The fact that the cultural intercourse between the Japanese and Italian peoples will by virtue of the present agreement grow further in intimacy and that the two nations will further deepen their knowledge and understanding of each other will in no small measure contribute toward the promotion of understanding and amicable relationship between the two countries which has grown exceptionally cordial under the anti-Comintern agreement.

Of late, admiration in various countries abroad for Japanese culture has been increasing. At the same time the interest of Japan and Italy for the study of each other's culture is particularly keen, and the undertakings for their cultural exchange are growing too numerous to mention. In view of Japan's important cultural mission of contributing toward the cultural progress of the world through the creation of a new unified culture in East Asia we find the conclusion of the present agreement especially significant, providing as it does a firm basis for cultural co-operation between the two countries and the consolidation of their spiritual union. It gives an opportunity to demonstrate fully our culture, while absorbing at the same time the best in Italian culture.

The present agreement is similar to the Japanese-German cultural agreement in that, while providing a basic policy for the cultural co-operation between the two countries, it leaves concrete matters to be determined by consultation between the competent authorities of both countries as the occasion demands and to be put into practice freely and appropriately.

Italy Helping Japan From the beginning of the China Affair in 1937, Italy, understanding Japan's true motives, had collaborated with Japan along all lines. At the Brussels Conference of the Signatory Powers to the Nine Power Treaty, the Italian Government supported Japan most consistently and energetically. A supplementary agreement to the Italo-Japanese Treaty of Commerce relating to the Italian colonies was signed in 1937.

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The Tripartite Agreement against the Comintern Activity

The German-Japanese Agreement against the Communist International which had been concluded on November 25, 1936, was reinforced by the participation therein of Italy. The tripartite protocol was made public on November 6, 1937, when the Sino-Japanese conflict was in full swing, and the Nine-Power Conference was in session at Brussels. With the signing of the tripartite protocol the solid front that had been built against the Comintern activities both in Europe and Asia was further strengthened, making the communist bulwarks morally and materially weaker. Some indirect results of the tripartite agreement were the Japanese recognition of the Franco Government in Spain on December 1, 1937, mutual recognition between the Manchoukuo Government and the Franco Government on December 2, and the withdrawal of Italy from the League of Nations on December 11, thereby Italy concluding the dispute with the League regarding her claim on Abyssinia.

The gist of the statement of the Japanese Foreign Office concerning the conclusion of the tripartite protocol published on November 6, 1937, and the English translation of the main clauses of the protocol are given below : (For the original text of the protocol see Appendix.)

At 11.00 o'clock a.m. (7.00 p.m. Tokyo time) today, November 6, a Protocol concerning the participation of Italy in the Japanese-German Agreement against the Communist International has been signed in Rome between the delegates of Japan, Germany and Italy, and has immediately come into effect.

Article 2 of the Agreement against the Communist International, which was concluded in Berlin between Japan and Germany on the 25th November last year, provides that the two countries should jointly invite participation of third Powers in the agreement. It is in accordance with this provision that the participation of Italy has been brought about, the country being as firmly determined as Japan and Germany in opposition against the destructive operations of the Communist International.

Now with the first anniversary of the conclusion of the Japanese-German anti-Comintern agreement close at hand, the significance and efficacy of the agreement are being more and more deeply appreciated everywhere. Today when we have before our own eyes concrete evidence showing that, in the West, the internecine war of more than a year and a half in Spain, and, in the East, the surreptitious activities of the Communist Party and the Anti-Japanese People's Front which are disturbing the stability of East Asia, are both due to nothing other than the machinations of the Communist International, it is really encouraging that the anti-Comintern front formed by Japan and Germany has been further strengthened by the participation of Italy, which had been of late making a spectacular progress under the leadership of Premier Mussolini. This indeed is a matter for sincere congratulation in the interest of peace and civilization of the world.

Protocol between Japan, Germany and Italy The Imperial Government of Japan, the Government of Italy and the Government of Germany, considering that the Communist International is constantly endangering the civilized world in the Orient and the Occident, and disturbing and destroying its peace and order, convinced that only a close collaboration between all the Powers interested in the maintenance of peace and order can check and eliminate that danger, and considering that Italy, a State which, since the establishment of the Fascist régime, has combatted that danger with inflexible determination has decided to range herself against that common enemy along with Japan and Germany, States which on their part are animated by the same spirit of defence against the Communist International, have, in conformity with Article 2 of the Agreement against the Communist International concluded at Berlin on November 25, 1936 between Japan and Germany, agreed as follows :

Article 1

Italy participates in the Agreement against the Communist International and subscribes to the Supplementary Protocol concluded on November, 25, 1936, between Japan and Germany, texts of which are attached to the present Protocol as an annex thereto.

Article 2

The three Powers signatory to the present protocol agree that Italy is to be considered as an original signatory of the agreement and the supplementary protocol mentioned in the preceding Article, the signature of the present protocol being equivalent to signature of the original texts of the agreement and the supplementary protocol.

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Article 3

The present protocol shall form an integral part of the agreement and the supplementary protocol above mentioned.

Manchoukuo and Hungary's Entrance On February 24, 1939, Manchoukuo and Hungary signed at Hsinking and Budapest respectively the Protocols on their participation in the Agreement for Safeguarding against the Communist International with Japan, Germany and Italy.

Manchoukuo had been endeavouring in cooperation with Japan to eradicate Communism. Her international position had been greatly strengthened through formal recognition extended by Hungary, following a similar step taken by Salvador, Germany, Italy and Spain, and now with her participation in the Agreement it was further strengthened so that she may act with a greater conviction in her own power as an important factor in the formation of the new East Asiatic Order.

A faction of communist radicals under Bela Kuhn usurped the power of government in Hungary, in 1919, by taking advantage of the confusion resulting from the World War, and attempted to form a socialistic league of nations by entering into a military alliance with the Soviet Union. But Hungary succeeded in suppressing the communist revolution, and has since continued to exert her utmost effort to combat the Comintern. When Hungary declared that she would join the Agreement, the Soviet Union recalled her Minister at Budapest, demanding at the same time the closure of the Hungarian legation at Moscow, in an attempt to check Hungary. Hungary, nevertheless joined the Agreement fully demonstrating her strong determination.

Spain's Entrance Spain, reborn under the leadership of General Francisco Franco, formally participated in the Anti-Comintern Agreement on March 27. The Comintern, which failed utterly in its efforts to bolshevize Germany and Italy in previous years, laid the front line in Spain for the bolshevization of all of Europe. As a result, Spain was divided into two opposing factions, and the faction led by General Franco, surmounting numerous difficulties, finally occupied Barcelona early in 1939 and succeeded in pacifying the Catalonian sector. The Communist régime immediately collapsed, and Madrid finally capitulated on March 28th. The Spanish civil war which began two and a half years ago was thus brought to a close, culminating in a decisive victory for General Franco. The Powers in the Anti-Comintern front have early extended recognition to General Franco's Government and have been giving full support to that Government's work of subduing Communism.

Relations with France

Request of Japan In October, 1937, the French Government decided on their own volition to prohibit the transportation of arms and munitions into China through French Indo-China. The Japanese Government appreciated this friendly attitude and relied upon the sincerity of the French Government for the actual carrying out of that decision.

However, as there was much to be regretted in the manner of executing the policy, the Japanese Government repeatedly called the attention of the French Government. During 1938 the Japanese Government demanded the French Government on two occasions to reconsider their attitude.

Each time the French Government promised the enforcement of the prohibition. But according to reliable information there continued to prevail a situation which by no means agreed with the replies of the Franch Government. As the result of the capture of Canton which intercepted the connection of the Chiang Kai-shek régime with Hongkong, the most important of the routes left for the transportation of arms supply to that régime was one through French Indo-China, and China was reported to be now active there.

In view of the above circumstances the Japanese Government instructed Ambassador Sugimura at Paris to file a protest with the French Government requesting that Government to take appropriate steps immediately to prohibit the transportation of arms and munitions into China through French Indo-China, and stating at the same time that, in case the French Government failed to take such measures, Japan might be compelled in self-defence to take such measures as she deemed necessary.

Foreign Minister Prince Konoé requested the French Ambassador at Tokyo, Mr. Arsène-Henry, on October 28, 1938, to call at the Foreign Office and conveyed to the latter the same views of the Japanese Government mentioned above.

Occupation of Hainan Island On February 13, 1939, the French Ambassador Mr. Charles Arsène-Henry called on the Foreign Minister, Mr. Hachiro Arita, at the Foreign Office to seek the Japanese

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Government's explanation regarding the object, duration and nature of the Japanese occupation of Hainan Island. Foreign Minister Arita assured the French Ambassador that Japan's occupation of Hainan Island had a military object to strengthen Japanese suspension of traffic against Chinese vessels off South China and thereby to accelerate the collapse of the Chiang Kai-shek régime, while in its nature and duration Japan's occupation of the said island did not exceed military necessity. Foreign Minister Arita made it clear that Japan had no territorial designs on the island. The French Ambassador appreciated Foreign Minister Arita's explanation.

The Spratley Islands In March 31, 1939, the Japanese Government published a statement concerning the administrative jurisdiction over the Spratley Islands in the South China Sea as follows:

Shinnan Gunto (or the Spratley Islands) are a group of small reefs lying in the South China Sea, off the coast of French Indo-China. These reefs had long been known as ownerless. However, in 1917 Japanese began, before the nationals of any other country, to embark upon the economic development of the reefs, which has continued ever since, by investing a considerable amount of capital and erecting various permanent establishments. The Japanese Government, officially recognizing the acivities of these nationals, have on several occasions since sent warships to the reefs and been giving them various aids as occasion demanded. But the absence of administrative jurisdiction over the reefs has caused not only inconveniences with regard to the protection and regulation of the lives, property and enterprises of the Japanese nationals there, but has been liable to give rise to unnecessary disputes with France. Accordingly, the Japanese Government, in order to eliminate such inconveniences and disadvantages, have decided to place the reefs under the jurisdiction of the Government-General of Taiwan, and having published the fact under date of March 30, 1939, the Vice-Minister for Foreign Affairs, Mr. Renzo Sawada, notified the French Ambassador in Tokyo, Mr. Charles Arsène-Henry, to this effect on March 31.

France Protests The French Ambassador, Mr. Arsène-Henry, called on Foreign Vice-Minister Sawada at the Foreign Office at noon on April 5 and, under instructions from his home Government, handed to him a note protesting against the Japanese Government's previous communication in connection with its decision to place the Shinnan Gunto under the jurisdiction of the Formosan Government-General.

The Foreign Vice-Minister told the French Ambassador that there is no room for consideration regarding the issue, which was decided on the basis of established policy, and that the Japanese Government would receive the note only as a matter of reference.

Japan-Siamese Relation

The Government of Siam notified Japan on November 5, 1936, of its intention to abrogate the Japanese-Siamese commercial treaty with a view to realization of complete equality with other countries and to the restoration of self-government, both legally and financially. In 1937 a new Treaty of Commerce was signed between Japan and Siam.

Japanese-Burmese Commercial Treaty As Burma was scheduled to be separated from India on April 1, 1937, negotiations were opened between representatives of Japan and Burma at New Delhi in December, 1936, for conclusion of a Japanese-Burmese commercial treaty. As a result, a protocol was signed provisionally between Mr. Yonezawa, Japanese Consul General, and the Financial Secretary of the Government of India on March 1, 1937, and the formal signing took place later in London between representatives of Japan and Great Britain.

Japan and Transvaal

The authorities of the Transvaal in South Africa having prohibited the residence of coloured races in the gold-producing district including Johannesburg, the capital of the Transvaal, and having refused to permit coloured races to engage in wholesale business, which is closely related to the export and import trade, Mr. Ohta, Japanese Consul at Cape Town, endeavoured to have the unjustified regulation revised and the Japanese claims were accepted by the authorities in their entirety on June 15, 1936, the Parliament of South Africa passing a bill dividing the said regulations, and settling the question.

Japan and Turkey

The Government of Turkey notified the Government of Japan on October 27, 1936, of its intention to abrogate the provisional trade convension between Japan and Turkey which was enforced on January 1, 1935, and the arrangement made between the two countries concerning the enforcement. At the same time, the Turkish Government expressed its readiness to conclude a new

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treaty. The Turkish note addressed to treaty, and a new treaty was concluded in 1937.

Relations with South and Central America

Anti-Japanese questions have often been heard of in regard to Brazil in South America but none of the questions has ever been brought up between the diplomatic organs of the two countries. But mention must be made of the fact that Brazilian economic mission headed by Mr. Salgado Filho, former Minister of Labour and member of the Lower House at the time, visited Japan in July, 1936, and greatly strengthened the tie of friendship between the nations.

In regard to Paraguay in Central America, it may be noted that about 35 families of Japanese emigrants settled in that country during 1936. Later, a French financial syndicate thought the co-operation of Japan in the industrial development of Paraguay would be of great benefit to that country and negotiations were conducted in this connection and on December 5, 1936, the President of Paraguay issued a decree authorizing the exportation of products of the country to Japan to the amount of 250,000 pesoes annually through the French financial syndicate and the entry into Paraguay of a total of 1,000 families of Japanese emigrants within 5 years or no more than 200 families annually.

Japan and Manchoukuo

The Manchurian Incident What is known as the Manchurian Incident broke out with the blasting of a section of the South Manchurian Railway near Liutiaokou by Chinese regular troops on September 18, 1931. It has brought about the foundation of a new nation in Manchuria and the withdrawal of Japan from the League of Nations. The incident though called in the singular was not really a single incident, but a series of incidents which followed one after another after the unexpected outbreak, the inevitable sequel to long-continued and growing anti-Japanese activities on the part of the old Mukden militarists.

The hostilities which occurred in Shanghai in January, 1932, as well as the threatening situation in Tientsin some time earlier were only two of the manifold ramifications of the Manchurian Incident. The state of affairs known as the Manchurian Incident continued until the truce concluded on May 31, 1933, at Tangku between the Japanese and Chinese forces, which to all intents and purposes wound up the Jehol expedition carried out by the combined Japanese and Manchoukuo armies to pacify the province and protect the provincial people from local banditry and invading troops from the south across the Great Wall.[1]

Founding of Manchoukuo The Manchurian Incident having resulted in the over-throw of the old régime of Chang Hsueh-liang, various groups came to declare independence in different districts of Manchuria.

The chief principles of the projected new government called for the suppression of the military cliques, co-operation with the rest of the world in line with the principle of the open door and equal opportunity for all, elimination of anti-foreignism, and promotion of the welfare of the people in place of the oppression and grinding taxation from which they had hitherto suffered.

Thus, on March 1, 1932, a manifesto was promulgated announcing that Manchoukuo was founded in response to the unanimous aspirations of the 30,000,000 people of Manchuria and Mongolia. On March 7, Mr. Henry Pu-yi, who had once reigned over the entire territory of China as the 12th Emperor of the Ching dynasty, consented to become the Chief Executive of Manchoukuo. This was followed by the installation in office of Mr. Henry Pu-yi and the ceremony celebrating the founding of Manchoukuo at Changchun on March 9. (For particulars see Chapter on Manchoukuo.)

The Japanese Envoy On August 8, 1932, General Nobuyoshi Muto was appointed commander of the Kwantung army with concurrent offices as Ambassador Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary to Manchoukuo and Governor of the Kwantung Leased Territory.

Recognition of Manchoukuo The Japanese Government extended de jure recognition to Manchoukuo on September 15, 1932, when the protocol completing this procedure was signed at the Chief Executive's offices in Hsinking between General Muto representing Japan and Premier Cheng Hsiao-hsu representing Manchoukuo.

The official English translation of this protocol follows :

Whereas Japan has recognized the fact that Manchoukuo, in accordance with the free will of its inhabitants, has organized and established itself as an

1 For particulars of the incident see the Japan Year Book, 1933, Chapter VII.

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independent State; and

Whereas Manchoukuo has declared its intention of abiding by all international engagements entered into by China in so far as they are applicable to Manchoukuo;

Now the Governments of Japan and Manchoukuo have, for the purpose of establishing a perpetual relationship of good neighbourhood between Japan and Manchoukuo, each respecting the territorial rights of the other, and also in order to secure the peace of the Far East, agreed as follows:

1. Manchoukuo shall confirm and respect, in so far as no agreement to the contrary shall be made between Japan and Manchoukuo in the future, all rights and interests possessed by Japan or her subjects within the territory of Manchoukuo by virtue of Sino-Japanese treaties, agreements or other arrangements or of Sino-Japanese contracts, private as well as public;

2. Japan and Manchoukuo, recognizing that any threat to the territory or to the peace and order of either of the High Contracting Parties constitutes at the same time a threat to the safety and existence of the other, agree to co-operate in the maintenance of their national security; it being understood that such Japanese forces as may be necessary for this purpose shall be stationed in Manchoukuo.

The present Protocol shall come into effect from the date of its signing.

The present Protocol has been drawn up in Japanese and Chinese, two identical copies being made in each language. Should any difference arise in regard to interpretation between the Japanese and the Chinese texts, the Japanese text shall prevail.

Partial Abolition of Extraterritoriality The basic treaty between Japan and Manchoukuo concerning the partial abolition of Japanese extraterritorial privileges in Manchoukuo, for which preparations had been underway for sometime, having been ratified by the Privy Councils of the two nations, was signed at Hsinking on June 10, 1936, by representatives of the two Governments concerned. The treaty was announced on June 12 and enforced on July 1.

The second treaty for the same purpose was concluded in November, 1937, and the operation of these treaties has proved satisfactory for both countries.

Relations with the League of Nations

Japan's connection with the League of Nations began with the inception of the international organization in April, 1919, when the Covenant was officially adopted at Paris, and came to a virtual end on March 27, 1933, when Japan gave notice of her withdrawal from membership on grounds of dissatisfaction with the dealings of the Geneva body with the Sino-Japanese dispute, particularly with the report adopted by the League Assembly on February 24 and the recommendations for the settlement of the problem as contained therein. The withdrawal became completely effective on March 26, 1935, in accordance with the provisions of the League Covenant.

Contribution to League's Work During the period of her participation in the activities of the League Japan made a material contribution to its work. In the Secretariat of the League, too, Japanese co-operation was by no means negligible, Dr. Inazo Nitobé and Dr. Yotaro Sugimura having served in the capacity of Assistant Secretary-General in succession until early March, 1933, shortly before Japan's virtual withdrawal. What follows is a cursory review of Japan's relations with the League.

From the inauguration of the League until 1933, Japan served as one of the five permanent members of the Council. Moreover, she contributed a considerable sum to the revenue of the body, her annual subscriptions between 1926-1932 having amounted to 16.5 per cent of the total expenditure.

The problem of general disarmament was taken up by the disarmament preparatory commission of the League in 1925. After meeting in session several times the commission submitted its draft formula for general disarmament to the Council in January, 1931 and the General Disarmament Conference was convened to meet at Geneva to discuss limitation of the military, naval and aerial armaments of all countries late in 1932, when Japan's delegates submitted their proposal regarding naval disarmament as outlined elsewhere.

Relations with the Permanent Court As regards the Permanent Court of International Justice at the Hague, Japan has rendered due assistance to the League of Nations' efforts for arbitration at this court by sending jurists to sit on its benches, but she has not yet participated in the general provisions for peaceable disposal of international disputes, which were adopted at the Assembly in 1928. Nor has she decided yet on the adherence to the "optional clause" of the Hague court, which has been signed or accepted by Great Britain, France, Italy and about forty other countries, thereby expressing their will-

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ingness to accept compulsory arbitration in international disputes.

Relations with the International Labour Office Among the various conventions drafted by the International Labour Office of the League of Nations, Japan has ratified the following on the dates given in parenthesis :

(1) Convention concerning workmen's compensation for occupational diseases (November 2, 1922).

(2) Convention fixing the minimum age for admission of children to industrial employment (June 3, 1926).

(3) Convention fixing the minimum age for admission of children to employment at sea (June 4, 1924).

(4) Convention for establishing facilities for finding employment for seamen (November 23, 1922).

(5) Convention concerning the age for admission of children to employment in agriculture (December 9, 1923).

(6) Convention concerning the compulsory medical examination of children and young persons employed at sea (June 7, 1924).

(7) Convention concerning workmen's compensation for occupational diseases (October 8, 1928). Note : this convention does not apply to such overseas dependencies of Japan as Chosen, Taiwan, Karafuto, the Kwantung Leased Territory and the mandated islands in the Southern Pacific.

(8) Convention concerning equality of treatment for national and foreign workers as regards workmen's compensation for accidents (October 8, 1928). Note : this convention also does not apply to the overseas dependencies of Japan mentioned above.

(9) Convention concerning the simplification of the inspection of emigrants on board ship (October 8, 1928.) Note : this also does not apply to the above mentioned territories.

The League commission on international communication and transit has drafted several conventions, of which Japan ratified the one concerning freedom of communication in 1922, and two others concerning seaports and railway systems in 1926.

Sino-Japanese Issue and the League Following the outbreak of the Manchurian Incident, the Council of the League of Nations held an urgent session in compliance with a request of Dr. Alfred Sze, the Chinese representative, on September 22, 1931.

Following the publication of the statement of the Tokyo Government, the intentions of Japan gradually came to be understood by the Powers, and the League Council adjourned on September 30 after adopting a resolution.

The situation, however, threatened to grow worse on October 8, the air raid on Chinchow was reported, and on the following day Japan lodged a protest against the anti-Japanese movement and sent a naval force to South China.

For three days from October 14, the Council discussed the question of the proposal to invite an observer of the United States to attend the Council meeting. The Japanese representative objected to this proposal from a juridical viewpoint, but at a private session held on the 15th, the Council passed this proposal as a question of "procedure" by a majority vote with Japan alone dissenting.

Accordingly the United States was represented by Mr. Prentiss Gilbert, the American consul-general at Berne, as an observer at the Council meeting from October 16.

At its private session on October 17, which is known as the 13-power conference because of the absence of the Japanese and Chinese representatives, the Council, with the attendance of the American observer, resolved that the 13 Powers take steps to call the attention of Japan and China to the Kellogg-Briand anti-war pact with regard to the Manchurian situation.

Consequently the Powers interested sent notes to Japan and China to that end, and the Japanese Government replied to these notes on the basis of a decision reached at an urgent meeting of the Cabinet held on October 22.

Briand's Proposal In the course of this conference M. Briand proposed a tentative plan to Mr. Yoshizawa, suggesting that Japan recognize the sovereignty of China in Manchuria, that China suppress her anti-Japanese agitation, boycott and anti-Japanese education, that China guarantee the safety of the lives and property of the Japanese nationals in China, that China recognize the right of Japanese nationals to reside, travel and engage in business in Manchuria, and that China confirm before the League of Nations the rights vested by all the existing treaties including what is known as the "Twenty-one Demands."

On October 22 the Council proposed to make Japan complete the withdrawal of her troops by November 15 with neutral observers seeing to it that perfect peace and order would be maintained after the Japanese evacuation, and to make Japan and China appoint their respective representatives to take charge of the evacuation of the occupied area, it also being suggested that

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Japan and China start direct negotiations immediately after the completion of the evacuation.

The Counter Proposal Against this, the Japanese representative, Mr. Yoshizawa, submitted a counter-proposal to the Council on the 23rd to the effect that the Japanese Government should withdraw those of its troops still remaining in a few localities outside the railway zone as the then-prevailing atmosphere of tension cleared and the situation improved, by the achievement of a previous understanding between the Chinese and Japanese Governments as regards the fundamental principles governing normal relations, that the Japanese and Chinese Governments should confer together at once with a view to arriving at the understanding mentioned above, and that the Japanese and Chinese Governments should appoint representatives to arrange the details of execution of the evacuation and of taking over the districts evacuated.

The Japanese counter-proposal was defeated by a vote of 13 to 1, and the Council's resolution also failed to pass by a unanimous vote, the vote being 13 to 1 in favour of the Council proposal, the Japanese representative dissenting.

The Five Principles Following this, the Japanese Government published a statement on October 26, regarding the "fundamental principles." In this statement Japan made it clear that these so-called "basic principles" related to:

1. Mutual repudiation of aggressive policy and conduct.
2. Respect for China's territorial integrity.
3. Complete suppression of all organized movements interfering with freedom of trade and stirring up international hatred.
4. Effective protection throughout Manchuria of all peaceful pursuits undertaken by Japanese subjects.
5. Respect for the treaty rights of Japan in Manchuria.

The League of Nations' Council held its third session to discuss the Sino-Japanese issue on November 16, 1932.

The Resolution of December 10 Before adjourning, the Council adopted a resolution by a unanimous vote on December 10. This resolution in effect provided that the Japanese Government should withdraw its troops within the railway zone in proportion as the safety of the lives and the protection of the property of Japanese subjects were effectively secured and that the two parties should undertake to adopt all measures necessary to avoid any further aggravation of the situation and to refrain from any initiative which might lead to further fighting and loss of life.

Regarding this resolution, the Japanese representative declared that his Government accepted the resolution on the understanding that it would not prevent the Japanese military authorities from taking action in defence of lives and property of Japanese nationals against bandits and other lawless elements rampant in various parts of Manchuria.

Opinion Adverse Just after the League Council met in its 66th regular session on January 25, 1932, troubles broke out in Shanghai and Mr. W. W. Yen, the Chinese representative, appealed to the Council on January 29 to invoke Article 15 of the League Covenant in regard to the affair.

Thus, at the Council meeting on January 30, it was decided that only the first paragraph of Article 15 of the Covenant would be invoked, in regard to the Shanghai incident alone. Accordingly, representatives of the neutral members of the Council organized an international committee at Shanghai to gather information on the spot and submit it to the Council.

This committee sent in four reports successively, first under date of February 6, second under date of February 12, third under date of February 20 and fourth under date of March 6. Of these, the first report was very favourable to Japan, but the second report proved decidedly unfavourable to Japan, it declaring that the Japanese and Chinese troops had been in a state of open hostilities since February 3.

Consequently, the Council caused the representatives of the 12 members of the Council other than Japan and China to address an appeal to Japan on February 16, regretting that it appeared that Japan could no longer trust to the peaceful settlement to be provided by the League of Nations.

Japan's Refutation Thereupon, in a statement published on February 23, the Japanese Government refuted this appeal in detail asserting that, although China had been treated in the past, by common consent, as if the expression connoted an organized people, such fictions could not last forever, nor could they be tolerated when they became grave sources of actual danger. Thus the Japanese Government declared that the time had inevitably come when realities, rather than fictions, had to be reckoned with.

Shanghai Armistice On February 27,

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1932, the Japanese delegation at Geneva unofficially notified the representatives of the 12 member Powers of the Council that Japan was willing to participate in a roundtable conference if the Powers would sponsor such a parley at Shanghai.

The armistice conference was officially opened at Shanghai on March 24, but the progress of the parley was delayed owing to a divergency of opinion between the Japanese and Chinese delegates regarding the time to be fixed for the final withdrawal of the Japanese troops.

During this period of deadlock China made a sudden appeal to the League of Nations on April 11, reporting a rupture of the conference.

On receipt of this appeal, the Committee of 19, organized by the League Assembly on March 11 to continue in charge of the entire Sino-Japanese issue, immediately accepted this representation and opened a session on April 16 to discuss the situation.

At its session on April 19, the Committee of 19 drafted a resolution for the Assembly with the object of breaking through the reported deadlock between Japan and China.

This proposal was met by strong opposition from the Japanese Government as well as the military and public opinion of Japan, and another crisis arose between Japan and the League of Nations. But the situation was improved and the League Assembly adopted the Lampson plan by a unanimous vote on April 30. The crisis having thus passed, the armistice conference was resumed at Shanghai on April 28, and despite the occurrence of the tragic bombing outrage on the occasion of the celebration of the Emperor's birthday on April 29, an armistice was finally signed on May 5, 1932.

The League Commission of Inquiry The League of Nations' Commission of Inquiry, appointed in line with the resolution of December 10, 1931, and comprising the Earl of Lytton of Great Britain, Général de Division Henri Claudel of France, Major-General Frank Ross McCoy of the United States, Dr. Heinrich Schnee of Germany and Count Pldrovandi of Italy, arrived in Japan on February 29, 1932 accompanied by a party of their secretaries. The Commissions left Japan for China on March 11, and spent about four months to make investigations in China and Manchuria.

What the Commission learned was presented to the League of Nations on April 29 as a preliminary report.

In the course of this preliminary report, the Enquiry Commission stated that Manchuria was not under the authority of the Nanking Government and was infested by banditry, so that the Japanese troops could not be withdrawn, adding that the Nanking Government did not exercise its Power in any part of Manchuria in the prevailing situation.

The full text of the final report of the Commission was published at 9 p.m., Tokyo time, on October 2 in Tokyo, Geneva and Nanking simultaneously.

The contents of the report were considered comparatively impartial in its description of the outline of the history of the Sino-Japanese relations, Japan's interests in Manchuria and the general observations of the prevailing situation. However, that the Commission gave only a cursory account of the Shanghai incident, as if this incident had been outside the scope of its investigation work, was taken to show that the Commissioners did not fully understand what their true mission was. The Commissioners failed to recognize the military action taken by Japan on September 18, 1931, as an act of self-defence. The description of the circumstances pertaining to the founding of Manchoukuo was full of prejudiced misrepsesentations and the last two chapters containing what they called "principles and conditions of settlement" and "consideration and suggestions to the Council" were practically superfluous, especially after the de jure recognition extended to Manchoukuo by Japan.

Resolution of February 24 Following the publication of the Lytton Report, the League of Nations started its discussion thereon at the Council meeting convened on November 21, 1932, and, after complicated proceedings through the Assembly, the Committee of Nineteen and other committee meetings, a report with several recommendations was adopted by a vote of 42 to 1 on February 24, 1933, at the Assembly meeting, at which Siam abstained from voting and 12 countries were not represented.

The report was on the whole based upon the Lytton Report and was distinctly unfavourable for Japan and Manchoukuo, one of the recommendations contained therein purporting to recognize Chinese sovereignty and administrative integrity in Manchuria.

Japan's Withdrawal After voting against the report of the League of Nations Assembly on the Sino-Japanese dispute, the Japanese delegation to the

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League meetings, headed by Mr. Yosuké Matsuoka, left Geneva without attending further meetings of the League, thereby expressing the firm determination of Japan.

In Japan, the Government decided on severance from the League of Nations and submitted a project to this end to the Throne. Accordingly the Privy Council met in plenary session on March 27, 1933, in the presence of the Emperor to recommend the project for Imperial sanction with a unanimous vote.

The Throne immediately sanctioned the project, a telegram was despatched to Geneva addressed to the Secretary-General of the League of Nations notifying the body of Japan's withdrawal from its membership, and simultaneously with this the Emperor issued an Imperial rescript announcing the policy to be followed by Japan after this action.

The official translation of the Imperial rescript follows :

"When the League of Nations came into being upon the restoration of a general peace, Our Imperial Father was pleased to order the entry of Our Empire thereinto ; and We, in Our turn, have laboured assiduously to fulfil the high purpose of the late Emperor. It is thus that Our Empire has for these thirteen years past extended consistently its co-operation to the League.

"Now Manchoukuo having of late been founded, Our Empire deems it essential to respect the independence of the new state and to encourage its healthy development, in order that the sources of evil in the Far East may be eradicated and an enduring peace thereby established. Unhappily, there exists between Our Empire and the League of Nations a wide divergence of view in this regard and it has devolved upon Us to cause Our government to take, upon mature deliberation, the necessary steps for the withdrawal of Our Empire from the League.

"However, the advancement of international peace is what, as evermore, We desire, and Our attitude toward enterprises of peace shall sustain no change. By quitting the League and embarking on a course of its own, Our Empire does not mean that it will stand aloof in the extreme Orient nor that it will isolate itself thereby from the fraternity of nations. It is Our desire to promote mutual confidence between Our Empire and all the other Powers and to make known the justice of its cause throughout the world.

"Every country is overtaken today by emergencies of an unprecedented magnitude. Our Empire itself is confronted by a situation fraught with momentous possibilities. It is indeed an hour that calls for an intensification of effort on the part of Our entire nation. We command that all public servants, whether civil or military, shall faithfully perform each his appointed duty, and that all private citizens shall pursue their wonted tasks with diligence. Stray not, in advancing, from the path of rectitude ; and in action, embrace always the golden mean. Strive to meet the present situation with a united will and with courage and resolution. So may ye carry forward the glorious work bequeathed by Our Grandsire and contribute to the prosperity and well-being of Mankind."

The Brussels Conference on the Sino-Japanese Conflict In September, 1937, the Nanking Government appealed to the League of Nations for urgent action in the conflict with Japan. The League Council immediately referred the appeal to the Advisory Committee, and issued an invitation to Japan, which she promptly refused. The League Council passed a decision of condemnation on Japan's action in China as a violation of the Nine-Power Treaty and the pact for renunciation of war and called a meeting of the signatories of the Nine-Power Treaty.

In consonance with the decisions of the League President Roosevelt made a speech indirectly referring to the Sino-Japanese conflict and putting blame on Japan, and later the State Department of the United States issued a statement against Japan in regard to the present affair. Great Britain and the United States of America worked in unison in convening a conference of the signatory Powers of the Nine-Power Treaty at Brussels. Japan was invited twice to the meeting but declined to attend, knowing well the unfriendly attitude of the League and the leading Powers toward her in the present situation, and feeling certain that no "just, equitable and realistic solution" of the Sino-Japanese conflict could be expected from the conference. With the refusal of Germany to participate in the Conference and Italy's strong support of Japan's stand the Brussels Conference could not come to any weighty decisions on the issue and adjourned without coming to any conclusion.

The following are the salient points contained in Japan's reply of October 27, 1937, to the first invitation extended by the Government of Belgium :

The League of Nations, in the report adopted by it on the 6th of this

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month, has declared, on the basis of the statement made by only one of the two parties to the issue, that the military operations carried on by Japan in China are in violation of the Nine-Power Treaty. The action of Japan in China is a measure of self-defence which she has been compelled to take in the face of China's violent anti-Japanese policy and operations, especially expressed in provocative acts appealing to force of arms; and consequently, the issue is one which lies outside the purview of the Nine-Power Treaty.

The Assembly of the League of Nations has even gone the length of assuring China of its moral support and of recommending its members to abstain from any action that might weaken that country's power of resistance and add to its difficulties in the present conflict, and also to study how they might individually give aid to China. By this procedure, the League Council deliberately refused to take into account the just intention of the Imperial Government, who propose to bring about a sincere co-operation between Japan and China, to secure an enduring peace in East Asia, and to contribute thereby to the peace of the world. In other words, the method followed by the League is one of encouraging the hostile disposition of one of the parties, and of prolonging the conflict instead of bringing it to an early settlement.

The Royal Belgian Government make in their invitation no mention of the connection between the proposed Conference and the League of Nations. However, in view of the fact that in its resolution, the League of Nations has suggested a meeting of those of its members who are party to the Nine Power Treaty, and that the Government of the United States, who have acquiesced in the request of the Government of Great Britain for the convocation of the conference, have declared, on October 6, their approval of the Resolution, the Imperial Government cannot but conclude that the convocation of the conference is linked to the Resolution of the League of Nations. Now the League of Nations, as mentioned above, has expressed its views casting reflection upon the honour of Japan, and it has adopted a resolution which is incontestably unfriendly towards her.

In these circumstances, the Imperial Government are constrained to believe that a frank and full discussion to bring about a just, equitable and realistic solution of the conflict between Japan and China, cannot be expected from the Powers concerned at the proposed Conference.

Moreover, the present Sino-Japanese conflict arising from the special situation of East Asia has a vital bearing upon the very existence of the two countries. The Imperial Government are firmly convinced that an attempt to seek a solution at a gathering of so many Powers whose interests in East Asia are of varying degrees, or who have practically no interests there at all, will only serve to complicate the situation still further and to put serious obstacles in the path of a just and proper solution.

For these reasons explained above, the Imperial Government regret their inability to accept the invitation of the Royal Government.

The present conflict has been caused by none other than the Chinese Government who for these many years have been engaged as a matter of national policy in disseminating anti-Japanese sentiment and encouraging anti-Japanese movements in China, and who, in collusion with the communist elements have menaced the peace of East Asia by their virulent agitations against Japan. Consequently, what is most urgently needed for a solution of the conflict is a realization on the part of the Chinese Government of the common responsibility of Japan and China respecting the stability of East Asia, a revision of their attitude, and a change of their policy to that of co-operation between the two countries. What Japan asks of the Powers is that they comprehend fully this need. Their co-operation based upon such comprehension can alone, she believes, contribute effectively toward the stabilization of East Asia.

Sanctions against Japan On September 19, 1938, the Council of the League adopted China's appeal for the invocation of Article 17 of the League Covenant and sent an invitation to Japan, to which the latter replied declining to accept the invitation on the 22nd.

On the 30th of the same month, the Council adopted a report that the League members may individually apply Article 16 to Japan by virtue of paragraph 3 Article 17.

Complete Separation from the League On October 3, 1938, Japan announced the withdrawal of her cooperation with all committees of the League of Nations, stating, "Japan, even after her withdrawal from the League, has continued to copperate with that body in

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social and technical fields. However, the League's organs even in these spheres have, since the outbreak of the present China Affair, gone beyond their proper duties and assumed a greatly deplorable attitude of indulging in political discussions and of slandering at every turn the actions of Japan in China. Now the adoption by the Council of the report concerning sanctions against Japan has made clear the irreconcilability between the position of Japan and the League, as a result of which Japan cannot but find it difficult to maintain the policy of cooperation she has hitherto pursued toward the League."

Relations with China

The Shanghai Affair Anti-Japanese feeling in China was increasingly accentuated following the Wanpaoshan affair, the conflict between Koreans and Chinese in Chosen and the Manchurian Incident in particular. Among other places Shanghai was the scene of most various and organized anti-Japanese activities, which culminated in the publication of an article disrespectful to the Imperial family of Japan by the Minkuo Jipao, a Chinese newspaper in Shanghai, in January, 1932. Shortly afterwards there occurred several untoward actions of the Chinese against the Japanese in the city.

The Japanese residents in Shanghai immediately held a mass meeting and lodged a strong protest with Wu Tieh-cheng, mayor of Shanghai.

Seeing the general situation, Consul-General Murai sent an ultimatum to the Chinese with a time limit set for 6 p.m. on January 28 and received a reply from Mayor Wu promising to suppress the anti-Japanese agitators and accept all the Japanese demands.

On the evening of January 28, however, Chinese crowds gathered around the municipal offices of Shanghai loudly accusing the mayor of having weakly yielded to the Japanese, and a serious situation threatened to prevail in all parts of the city, with the result that the Municipal Bureau of the International Settlement had to declare a state of siege, the foreign garrison forces taking up their positions in their respective areas of defence.

The situation, however, went from bad to worse, and the Japanese and Chinese troops came into a collision, which lasted from January 29 to March 3, when the former completely drove out the latter from the Chapei district.

On the completion of this achievement, General Shirakawa, commander of the Japanese expeditionary forces, and Vice-Admiral Nomura, commander of the Japanese fleet, ordered suspension of all hostilities at 2 p.m. on March 3.

Jehol Expedition The expedition carried out by the joint forces of Manchoukuo and Japan to Jehol to pacify this province of the new nation, and the subsequent truce concluded at Tangku between the hostile Chinese troops and the Japanese expedition on May 31, 1933, practically put an end to the long-protracted state of affairs popularly known as the Manchurian Incident.

The Jehol expedition, which was launched following a declaration to this end made by the Manchoukuo Government on February 26, 1933, announcing that it was despatching without delay necessary forces "to exterminate completely all bandits within and to dislodge all the invading armies from the province," was executed with amazing speed and on March 4 a Japanese contingent occupied Chengte, the capital of the province; a few days later the Japanese troops taking several important positions along the Great Wall.

After having been driven out of the province, however, the Chinese troops continued hostile operations on the Great Wall positions from the south, and the Japanese forces were obliged to advance south across the Great Wall more than once to destroy the bases of Chinese hostilities.

The Truce In fact, on the second occasion the Japanese advanced within a few miles of Peiping and Tientsin, but they refrained from actually entering these cities, and instead succeeded in including the representatives of the Chinese forces to sign a truce on March 31 at Tangku, providing for a demilitarized zone between Peiping and Tientsin districts and the Great Wall.

The Manchoukuo authorities, immediately after the pacification of Jehol, started a constructive programme in the province, readjusting finances and mapping out plans for future industrial and economic development for the people of the province.

Exchange of Ambassadors In July, 1924, Japan and China agreed on the exchange of ambassadors, but, due to the subsequent internal problems of China, the matter had been left unrealized. Sino-Japanese relations assumed a sudden turn for the better early in 1935. Taking advantage of this situation, Foreign Minister Koki Hirota made a proposal to the Nanking Government for the promotion of the Japa-

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nese Legation in China to the status of an embassy and the matter was formally announced in Tokyo and Nanking at the same time on May 17. The Japanese Government promoted Mr. Akira Ariyoshi, Minister to China, to Ambassador, and the Chinese Government promoted General Tsiang Tso-pin, Chinese Minister to Tokyo, to Ambassador. At the initiative taken by Japan, both Great Britain and the United States at once promoted their Ministers in China to Ambassadors.

Incidents in 1935 Infringement of the Tangku truce pact on the Chinese side and violation of an official note exchanged between the Japanese and Chinese Governments regarding the retrocession of Tientsin in 1902 were the real causes of the North China incidents in 1935. Sun Yung-chin, bandit chieftain, with his followers, was expelled from Jehol Province by Japan-Manchoukuo combined forces to Shunhua in Hopei Province, where he was given support of a peace preservation corps under General Yu Hsueh-chung, chairman of the Hopei Provincial Government. It was discovered that General Yu supplied him with ammunition and foodstuffs. The Sun banditry, however, was subjugated by the Kwantung Army late in May, 1935. It was also found that General Ho Ying-chin, chairman of the Peiping branch of the National Military Council, had been giving bandits in Manchoukuo certificates of the Northeastern Volunteer Corps. All these were apparent instances of infringement of the Tangku truce pact.

Colonel Takashi Sakai, chief-of-staff of the Japanese Garrison in Tientsin, and Major Tan Takahashi, Japanese resident army officer in Peiping, called on General Ho on May 29 and blamed the dual policy of Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek towards Japan, pointing out these two anti-Japanese incidents. They handed the following demands of Japan to the General Ho :

1. Dismissal of Yu Hsueh-chung who is directly responsible for the incidents and the evacuation of the Central Army of China from Hopei Province.

2. Dismissal of Chang Tingyo, Mayor of Tientsin, and Li Chunyo, Director of the Tientsin Public Peace Bureau, both directly responsible for the assassination.

On June 10 the Nanking Government replied that it accepted all the demands made by Japan.

Establishment of Two Governments Towards the close of November, 1935, an independent government was established with the demilitarized zone as the centre, which was named as the East Hopei Anti-Communist Autonomous Committee. Mr. Yin Ju-keng, special administrative inspector of the Lwanchow-Shanhai-kwan area of the zone, became its chairman. In December, the Committee was renamed as the East Hopei Anti-Communist Autonomous Government and appointed Mr. Yin its chairman.

The Kuomintang Government despatched its War Minister, General Ho Ying-ch'in to the north. As the result of his conference with General Sung Cheh-yuan and General Han Fu-chu the Hopei-Chahar Political Council was established as an organ to manage the administration of North China. General Sung Cheh-yuan was appointed as its chairman and assumed the office on December 18, 1935. This institution, while being under supervision of the Kuomintang Government, is a new political organ which has in its hand the power to negotiate with Japan and Manchoukuo for the maintenance of amicable relations with them. The domain over which the power of this political organ will be exercised comprises Hopei and Chahar Provinces, and Shantung, Suipuan and Shansi Provinces are governed by Han Fu-chu and Yen Hsi-shan respectively.

Sino-Japanese Questions in 1936 With reference to Sino-Japanese relations, mention must be made of the fact that the students' movement launched towards the end of 1935 served greatly to intensify the anti-Japanese sentiment throughout China. As a result, many terroristic actions were successively aimed at the Japanese residents and officers in China during 1936, beginning with January 21, 1936, when a police official named Sumida of the Japanese Consulate in Swatow was shot to death with a revolver while en route to his office.

Sino-Japanese Negotiations In view of the frequent anti-Japanese terroristic actions, the authorities of the Japanese Foreign Office and War Department resolved to open important negotiations with the Nanking Government with a view to preventing further aggravation of the situation and adjusting the relations between Japan and China.

The negotiations were commenced between Mr. Shigeru Kawagoé, the Japanese Ambassador to China, and General Chang Chun, the then Chinese Foreign Minister. Carrying the negotiations a step further, Ambassador Kawagoé had an interview with General Chiang Kai-shek, president of the Chinese Executive Yuan, on October 8. The negotiations were centered on the

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North China question, the specific trade in North China, the control of anti-Japanese activities, the employment of Japanese advisers and the conclusion of a Sino-Japanese anti-Communist agreement.

The Chinese attitude towards the negotiations suddenly changed as a result of the outbreak of the East Suiyuan affair and on December 3 the negotiations in progress for nearly three months had to be discontinued. Two days later, Ambassador Kawagoé withdrew from Nanking to Shanghai.

East Suiyuan Question During the early part of November, 1936, skirmishes began to occur between the Chinese troops in Suiyuan Province and the Inner Mongolian forces in the eastern section of Suiyuan. On November 20, the central publicity headquarters of the Kuomintang, the Chinese Nationalist Party, issued a statement calculated to impress foreign countries that Japan was implicated in the Suiyuan affair, thus attempting to influence the negotiations in progress at the time between Mr. Shigeru Kawagoé, the Japanese Ambassador to China, and General Chiang Kai-shek, president of the Chinese Executive Yuan.

In order to clarify the situation, the Japanese Foreign Office also issued a statement on November 21, which read in substance as follows :

"Japan is always concerned over the conditions prevailing in the adjoining districts of Manchoukuo territory but she has nothing to do with the clash that took place between the Suiyuan troops and the Inner Mongolian forces. It hardly requires mentioning that the Japanese Army, not to say the Japanese Government, is not assisting the Mongols in any way."

Developments Following Sian Affair The Sian affair involving the forcible detention of General Chiang Kai-shek, president of the Chinese Executive Yuan and concurrently chairman of the National Military Council, by a group of troops under the control of Marshal Chang Hsueh-liang, the erstwhile Mukden warlord, suddenly occurred in the provincial capital of Shensi on December 12 but the Generalissimo returned safely to Nanking. Further, neither the Nanking Government nor the Kuomintang showed any agitation over the occurrence. These facts were taken to prove that the national unity of China had been greatly strengthened and accordingly, it came to be urged in various circles that China should he looked again in her new light.

It happened that the political change in Japan during March brought about the formation of the Hayashi Cabinet in succession to the Hirota Ministry. On March 3, Dr. Naotaké Sato who had just returned home with the intention of resigning from the post of Ambassador to France and retiring from active diplomatic service was appointed Foreign Minister of the new Cabinet. Speaking before the House of Peers and the House of Representatives, on March 8 and 11 respectively, Minister Sato set forth his foreign policy, which was well received abroad.

The Chinese interpreted Minister Sato's statements as meaning a revision of the three basic principles enunciated by Mr. Koki Hirota when he was Foreign Minister of the Okada Cabinet for adjusting Sino-Japanese relations. Further, as a result of the plenary session of the Central Executive and Central Supervisory Committees of the Kuomintang, which was held at Nanking in February, 1937, General Chang Chun was replaced by Dr. Wang Chung-hui, former judge of the Permanent Court of International Justice, as Foreign Minister of the Nanking Government. Following his assumption of the office, the new Chinese Foreign Minister emphasized that an adjustment of the relations between China and Japan should be based on the principles of reciprocity and equality.

In the meantime, there appeared increasing signs of a close cooperation between the Nanking Government and the Chinese Communist Army following the Sian affair. The movement launched by radical Chinese organizations for the establishment of a popular front against Japan was also intensified. All these combined to heighten the anti-Japanese sentiment among the Chinese people until finally they commenced to work desperately for placing North China under the complete control of the Nanking Government besides demanding dissolution of the East Hopei Anti-Communist Autonomous Government.

Under these circumstances, anti-Japanese outrages were repeated by the Chinese. On May 22, a police official of the Japanese Consulate at Swatow was subjected to violence. This caused the authorities of the Japanese Foreign Office to give warning that the sympathetic attitude which the Government and people of Japan had been manifesting towards China might be lost if the Nanking Government did not deal with the anti-Japanese activities in an appropriate manner.

Immediately following the outbreak of the Swatow affair, the Japanese

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political situation underwent a change with the Hayashi Cabinet being replaced by a new Ministry formed under the Premiership of Prince Fumimaro Konoé, then president of the House of Peers. Ex-Premier Koki Hirota again assumed the portfolio of Foreign Affairs, which was interpreted by the Chinese to signify the revival of the so-called three Hirota principles. For this reason, they again accelerated their anti-Japanese movement and brought about conditions more unfavourable to an adjustment of Sino-Japanese relations.

The North China Incident On Wednesday night, July 7th, a small unit of Japanese troops was engaged in maneuvers on their usual grounds, near Marco Polo Bridge, southwest of Peiping, and in the vicinity of Lukouchiao and Lungwangmiao when suddenly, at 11:40 o'clock the Japanese troops were fired upon by Chinese soldiers from the directions of Lukouchiao and Lungwangmiao. The Japanese were utterly unprepared to return the fire, for they were only 150 strong and had a supply of live ammunition amounting only to one ball-cartridge per person, which was being kept by the commanding officer. All that they could do at this critical moment was to halt their maneuvers, concentrate at a spot some distance from the Chinese, and send for help to their headquarters, situated about two and a half miles away in the former British barracks at Fengtai. Reinforcements came quickly, and with the Japanese replying with real shots to the Chinese fire, the first clash occurred.

Matters went from bad to worse, the fight extending finally to the direction of Shanghai on August 13, 1937, and the event developed to a gigantic conflict between the two countries unprecedented in the history of either of them.

China Affair in 1937-39 Since the beginning of the Sino-Japanese conflict on July 7, 1937, two years have elapsed during which time the issue has developed into major hostilities, the termination of which still remains remote. Japan's desire to co-operate with China in order to bring about the mutual welfare and prosperity of the two great neighbouring peoples has been frustrated by the Kuomintang Government, and she is now engaged in eliminating the obstructionist forces in China so as to make possible the political and social regeneration of that country by assisting the Chinese people according to the principles of Oriental peoples on the basis of Japan's progressive experience of the past 80 years. Japan is confident that she can elevate thereby the cultural and economic levels of East Asia as a whole. But it is extremely regrettable that, in this case as in all others, destruction has had to precede construction.

The total area under Japanese occupation in China comprises the seven provinces of Chahar, Suiyuan, Hopeh, Shantung, Shansi, Kiangsu and Anhwei in their entirety, the greater part of Honan Province, wide areas in the four provinces of Chekiang, Kiangsi, Hupeh and Kwangtung and all of Hainan Island.

The Japanese occupied region in China covers an area of 1,562,938 square kilometres, about two-and-half times as large as Japan, the area of which is 675,365 square kilometres.

The proportion of the Japanese occupied area to China Proper, which has an area of 3,157,346 square kilometres, is 50 to 100, while the percentage of the Japanese occupied area to continental China (including the outlying provinces), which has an area of 10,059,877 square kilometres, is 16 to 100.

For the first 16 months of the conflict, hostilities were featured by mass troop movements and major engagements. The Chinese successively lost Shanghai, Nanking, Hsuchow, Canton and Hankow—crushing defeats all—before they were convinced that they could not stand before the superior arms of the Japanese. The fall of Hankow, on October 27, 1938, marked a turning point in Chinese military strategy. From that date, scarcely a week after the loss of Canton, the Chinese abandoned large-scale military operations and took resort to guerilla warfare and behind-the-lines "hit-and-run" tactics.

These new tactics favoured the Japanese. Already in control of the most important areas of the country, they were able to concentrate on the consolidation of these areas and the establishment of peace and order therein, which was effected by the strengthening of garrison forces in the rear, the organization of peace preservation committees and other measures of an effective nature.

Peace and order have been restored to a large extent in North and South China. In central China, resistance to pacification has been stronger than in the other regions, owing to the proximity of the Japanese occupied area to the Nationalist Government's shrinking domain. (See Chapter on China.)

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Chronological Index of Principal Events

For the convenience of reference a chronological index of principal events in the country's foreign relations is appended :

OPENING OF THE COUNTRY
1853—Arrival of American fleet.
1854—First Japanese-American Treaty.
1856—Arrival of first American civil envoy, Townsend Harris.
1857—Harris concluded convention with the Shogunate.
1858—Japanese-American Commercial Treaty signed.

OCCUPATION OF TSUSHIMA BY RUSSIA
1861—A Russian fleet seized the island of Tsushima but abandoned it shortly afterwards through the intervention of Great Britain.

BOMBARDMENT OF KAGOSHIMA AND SHIMONOSEKI
1863—A British fleet bombarded Kagoshima city.
1864—A combined fleet of Great Britain, the United States, France and the Netherlands bombarded Shimonoséki.

IMPERIAL SANCTION OF TREATIES
1865—Treaties with Britain, France, the Netherlands, Russia and the United States were sanctioned by the Emperor.

TREATY REVISION
1871—Prince Iwakura's mission left for the United States and Europe.
1882—Count Inoué's Negotiations with Britain.
1888—Count Okuma's Negotiations.
,, Viscount Aoki's Negotiations.
1894—Revised Anglo-Japanese Treaty signed.
1897—Similar Treaties concluded with other Powers.

THE PERUVIAN SLAVE SHIP INCIDENT
1872—Japanese Government seized Peruvian slaver "Maria Luz" in Yokohama.

EXPEDITION TO TAIWAN
1872—Japan sent a punitive expedition to the island.

EXCHANGE OF SAGHALIEN AND THE KURILE ISLANDS
1875—Japan ceded Saghalien to Russia in exchange for the Kurile Islands.

BONIN ISLAND PROBLEM
1875—The United States recognized Japan's territorial sovereignty over the Bonin Islands.

CONVENTION OF TIENTSIN
1885—Count Ito and Li Hung-chang signed the convention defining Sino-Japanese relations in Korea.

NON-ALIENATION OF FUKIEN PROVINCE
1889—Japan guaranteed the non-alienation of Fukien province from China.

SINO-JAPANESE WAR
1894—Japan declared war.
1895—Treaty of Shimonoséki concluded.

ANGLO-JAPANESE ALLIANCE
1902—Alliance signed in London.

RUSSO-JAPANESE WAR
1904—Japan declared war.
1905—Treaty of Portsmouth signed.

JAPANESE-AMERICAN ARBITRATION TREATY
1905—Treaty signed in Washington, D. C. on Feb. 11.

PROTECTORATE OF KOREA
1905—Protectorate convention concluded.

PEKING TREATY
1905—Sino-Japanese convention embodying relevant terms of Portsmouth Treaty signed.

EXCLUSION OF JAPANESE SCHOOL CHILDREN IN CALIFORNIA
1906—Movement started in California for exclusion of Japanese children from common schools.

FRANCO-JAPANESE AND RUSSO-JAPANESE AGREEMENTS
1907—Franco-Japanese Convention concluded.
1907—Russo-Japanese Agreement concluded.

NEW JAPAN-KOREAN AGREEMENT
1907—New Agreement concluded allowing Japan complete supervision of Korean domestic administration.

IMMIGRATION PROBLEM IN CANADA
1907—Japan exchanged on Dec. 3 a memorandum with Canada in connection with the immigration problem.

U.S.-JAPAN ARBITRATION TREATY
1908—Treaty concluded on Sep. 12.

JAPAN-AMERICAN ACCORD
1908—Official Notes exchanged regarding the preservation of peace in the Far East.

ANTUNG-MUKDEN RAILWAY ISSUE
1909—An agreement signed on Aug. 15 between Japan and China regarding the Antung-Mukden Railway.

PROPOSAL TO NEUTRALIZE THE SOUTH MANCHURIA RAILWAY
1910—Japan refused on Jan. 21 to accept the proposal of Secretary of State Knox of the United States regarding neutralization of the South Manchuria Railway.

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RUSSO-JAPANESE AGREEMENT
1910—A new agreement concluded on July 4 between Japan and Russia regarding the maintenance of the status quo in Manchuria.

FINAL TREATY REVISION
1910—Japan notified Great Britain and 10 European countries on July 17 that existing treaties would be revised a year later. On August 4, similar notices served to France and Austria-Hungary.

ANNEXATION OF KOREA
1910—Treaty of Annexation concluded.

INTERNATIONAL COPYRIGHT TREATY
1910—Japan signed the International Copyright Treaty in Berlin on September 8.

FRANCO-JAPANESE AGREEMENT REGARDING PATENTS AND COPYRIGHT
1911—An agreement concluded on May 8, regarding patents and copyright in China.

NEW ANGLO-JAPANESE TREATY
1911—Treaty concluded on the basis of the arbitration treaties between Great Britain and the United States.

PUBLICATION OF THE REVISED TREATIES
1911—The United States published revised treaty with Japan on April 5. Great Britain, Spain, and Sweden did likewise on April 6, May 15 and July 13 respectively. Italy, Belgium, Denmark, the Netherlands, Switzerland and Canada published revised treaties with Japan simultaneously on July 15, followed by Germany, Austria-Hungary and France on July 16, August 3, and August 26 respectively.

RUSSO-JAPANESE EXTRADITION CONVENTION
1911—Convention concluded on September 13.

ANTI-JAPANESE ALIEN LAND LAW IN CALIFORNIA
1913—Passage of the so-called Webb Bill.

NANKING INCIDENT
1913—Negotiations regarding the Kuchow, Hankow and Nanking incidents concluded on October 7, the Chinese accepting all the Japanese demands.

MANCHURIA RAILWAY TREATY
1913—A treaty concluded between Japan and China regarding the railway building concessions.

RECOGNITION OF THE CHINESE REPUBLIC
1913—Japan recognized the Republic of China on October 6 simultaneously with the election of Yuan Shih-kai as president.

ABOLITION OF FOREIGN SETTLEMENTS IN CHOSEN
1914—The protocol abrogating the foreign settlements in Chosen, signed on April 20 the preceding year, is published.

THE GREAT WAR
1914—Japan declares war on Germany and Austria.

SINO-JAPANESE PARLEYS
1915—The Chinese Government requested Japan January 8 to delimit the war zone in Shantung and withdraw her troops from that zone. Accordingly, Minister Hioki in Peking held a conference with Yuan Shih-kai on January 18 to discuss Japan's counter proposals. Japan served an ultimatum on May 6, and the Chinese Government accepted all the Japanese proposals.

SPANISH-JAPANESE TREATY
1915—Ratifications of a commercial treaty exchanged on July 10.

ANTI-INDEPENDENT PEACE AGREEMENT
1915—Japan participated on Oct. 19 in the agreement of the Allied powers signed in London prohibiting the signatories from concluding a separate peace with Germany.

WARNING TO CHINA
1915—Anticipating disturbances in connection with the apparent designs of Yuan Shih-kai to revive the Imperial government in China, Japan issued a warning to China on October 28.

RUSSO-JAPANESE AGREEMENT
1916—The third Russo-Japanese agreement for protection of Japanese and Russian interests in the Far East signed on July 3.

ISHII-LANSING AGREEMENT
1917—Japan and the United States exchanged notes declaring that territorial propinquity created special relation between countries. This exchange of opinion, published on November 7, is generally known as the Ishii-Lansing Agreement.

SINO-JAPANESE MILITARY ENTENTE
1918—Entente concluded on May 16, and its text published by the Japanese Foreign Office on May 30.

SIBERIAN EXPEDITION
1918—Japanese participation announced.

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DECLARATION OF THE RENDITION OF SHANTUNG
1919—Count Uchida, the Foreign Minister announced the restoration of complete Chinese sovereignty on May 17.

SIGNING OF THE PEACE TREATIES
1919—Prince Kimmochi Saionji signed the Versailles treaties at 3 o'clock in the afternoon of June 28.

DEMAND FOR THE EVACUATION OF SIBERIA
1920—The Soviet Government of Irkutsk sent an ultimatum to Japan on March 11.

NIKOLAEVSK AFFAIR
1920—Attack on Japanese consulate launched.

DECLARATION OF SIBERIAN POLICY
1920—Japanese Government issued statement re withdrawal of troops.

ANTI-JAPANESE IMMIGRATION
1920—Revision of regulations by the Immigration Bureau of the United States.

RENEWAL OF THE ANGLO-JAPANESE ALLIANCE
1920—The Japanese and British Governments notified the Secretariat of the League of Nation on July 14, that the duration of the Anglo-Japanese alliance will be extended for another year.

REOPENING OF THE GERMAN EMBASSY IN TOKYO
1920—Dr. Solf arrived in Japan as the first German ambassador after the Great War.

WASHINGTON CONFERENCE
1921—Conference opened with Japan participating.

THE GENEVA TRI-PARTITE NAVAL DISARMAMENT CONFERENCE
1927—Conference opened with Japan participating.

THE LONDON NAVAL DISARMAMENT CONFERENCE
1930—Conference opened with Japan participating.

THE MANCHURIAN INCIDENT
1931—Incident occurred at Mukden.

THE JAPAN-MANCHOUKUO PROTOCOL
1932—Protocol signed whereby Japan extends de jure recognition to the new State.

THE WORLD ECONOMIC CONFERENCE
1933—Conference opened with Japan participating.

THE JAPAN-INDIA TRADE CONFERENCE
1933—Conference held at Simla and New Delhi, India.
1934—New treaty signed at London, on July 12.

MANCHOUKUO ESTABLISHED
1934—The New State was proclaimed "Empire" and Mr. Pu-yi endorsed as Emperor. March 1.

THE JAPAN-BRITAIN TRADE CONFERENCE
1934—Conference adjourned on March 14 in failure.

THE JAPAN-DUTCH CONFERENCE
1934—Conference opened at Batavia on June 8 which adjourned on December 21 indefinitely.

TRANSFERENCE OF NORTH MANCHURIA RAILWAY
1935—Transference of North Manchuria Railway by the U.S.S.R. to Manchoukuo formally signed at Tokyo on March 23.

JAPAN'S WITHDRAWAL FROM THE LEAGUE OF NATIONS
1935—Became completely effective on March 26.

THE VISIT OF THE EMPEROR OF MANCHOUKUO
1935—The Emperor of Manchoukuo visited Japan and made a formal call upon the Emperor of Japan on April 6.

SETTLEMENT OF NORTH-CHINA INCIDENT
1935—All demands of the Japanese garrison at Tientsin on various problems relating to North China accepted by the Nanking Government.

WITHDRAWAL FROM THE WASHINGTON NAVAL TREATY
1935—Japanese Government notified the U.S.A. Government their intention to terminate the Washington Naval Treaty, December 29.

JAPAN-GERMAN AGREEMENT
1936—The Agreement guarding against the Communist International was entered into, between Japan and Germany on November 25, 1936.

SINO-JAPANESE CONFLICT
1937—Beginning of Sino-Japanese hostilities on July 7.
Beginning of the hostilities at Shanghai on August 13.
Occupation of Shanghai by Japanese forces on November 13.
Fall of Nanking on December 13.
1938—Defeat of the Chinese armies at Suchow on May 19.

THE LEAGUE OF NATIONS ON THE CONFLICT
1937—The League of Nations declared Japanese violation of the Nine

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Power Treaty on October 6, and Japan refuted it promptly.

A conference was convened at Brussels on the Sino-Japanese Conflict, and Japan was invited to the conference. But Japan rejected the invitation on October 27.

THE TRIPARTITE AGREEMENT

1937—Italy entered the German-Japanese Agreement against the Comintern and the Tripartite Protocol made public on November 6.

THE CHANGKUFENG INCIDENT

1938—Soviet forces occupied Changkufeng of Manchoukuo on July 12.

Hostilities between Japanese and Soviet forces ceased by the agreement concluded on August 10.

CAPTURE OF CANTON AND HANKOW

1938—Canton was occupied by Japanese forces on October 21, and Wuhan cities on October 27.

DEVELOPMENT OF ANTI-COMINTERN AGREEMENT

1939—Entrance of Manchoukuo and Hungary into the Agreement on February 24.

Spain's formal participation took place on March 27.

BLOCKADE OF TIENTSIN FOREIGN CONCESSION

1939—English and French Concessions blockaded by Japanese Army on June 14.

ANGLO-JAPANESE PARLEY

1939—Tokyo Parley between Japan and Great Britain began on July 15.

List of Envoys to and from Foreign Countries

JAPANESE ENVOYS TO FOREIGN COUNTRIES

(July 31, 1939)

Country	Representative	Address
Great Britain	Mamoru Shigemitsu, Ambassador	Embassy of Japan, 37 Portman Square, London, W.I. England
"	Kiyoshi Uchiyama, Consul-General	Consulate-General of Japan, 15 St., Helen's Place, Bishopsgate, London, E.C. 3. England
France	Katsutaro Miyazaki, Chargé d'Affaires (ad interim)	Ambassade du Japon, 24 rue Greuze, Paris, (16°) France
Germany	General Hiroshi Oshima, Ambassador	Ambassade du Japon, Berlin W. 62, Ahornstr., 1, Allemagne
"	Hiroshi Kawamura, Consul-General	Consulat Général du Japon, Hamburg, 1, Amsterdamm, 39, (Europahaus) Allemagne
Italy	Toshio Shiratori, Ambassador	Ambassade du Japon, Viale Regina Magherita, 260, Rome, Italie
Belgium	Saburo Kurusu, Ambassador	Ambassade du Japon, 1 Boulevard Général Jacques, Ixelles, Bruxelles, Belgique
The U.S.S.R.	Shigenori Tōgō, Ambassador	Ambassade du Japon, Malaya Nikitskaya 13, Moscou, U.R.S.S.
"	Funao Miyakawa, Consul-General	Consulat Général du Japon, 24 Pekinskaya Ulitsa, Vladivostok, U.R.S.S.
"	—	Consulat Général du Japon, 3 Ulitsa Imeni Dzerzinskavo, Alexandrovsk-Sakhalinsky, Sakhalin, U.R.S.S.
"	—	Consulat Général du Japon, 54 Komsomolskaya Ulitsa, Habarovsky, U.R.S.S.

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Country	Representative	Address
Turkey	Toshihiko Taketomi, Ambassador	Ambassade du Japon, No. 59, Boulevard Tchankaya, Ankara, Turquie (Boîte Postale No. 357)
Manchoukuo	General Kenkichi Uyeda, Ambassador	Embassy of Japan, Hsinking
„	Taku Taniguchi, Chargé d'Affaires	Consulate-General of Japan, Harbin
„	Takeharu Miura, Consul-General	Consulate-General of Japan, Hsinking
The U.S.A.	Kensuké Horinouchi, Ambassador	Embassy of Japan, 2514 Massachusette Avenue, N.W. Washington, D.C., U.S.A.
„	Kōsaku Mizusawa, Consul-General	Consulate-General of Japan, 1742 Nuuanu Avenue, Honolulu, T.H., U.S.A.
„	Toshito Satō, Consul-General	Consulate-General of Japan, Postal Telegraph Bldg., 22 Battery St., San Francisco Cal., U.S.A.
„	Kanamé Wakasugi, Consul-General	Consulate-General of Japan, 500 Fifth Avenue, New York City, N.Y., U.S.A.
Brazil	Kazué Kuwashima, Ambassador	Ambassade du Japon, 75 Rua dos Voluntarios da Patria, Botafogo, Rio de Janeiro, Brésil
„	Junzō Sakané, Consul-General	Consulat Général du Japon, Avenida Brigadeiro Luiz Antonio 487, São Paulo, Brésil
China	—	Embassy of Japan, Peking
„	Tateki Horiuchi, Consul-General	Consulate-General of Japan, Peking
„	Denjiro Kato, Consul-General	Consulate-General of Japan, Tsingtao
„	Manabu Arino, Consul-General	Consulate-General of Japan, Tsinan
„	Yoshiaki Miura, Consul-General	Consulate-General of Japan, Shanghai
„	Kimikazu Hori, Consul-General	Consulate-General of Japan, Nanking
„	Yoshitoshi Hanawa, Consul-General	Consulate-General of Japan, Hankow
„	—	Consulate-General of Japan, Fuchow
„	Katsuo Okazaki, Consul-General	Consulate-General of Japan, Canton
„	Goro Uchida, Consul-General	Consulate-General of Japan, Amoy
„	Shōhei Morioka, Consul-General	Consulate-General of Japan, Changchiakow
„	Shigenori Tashiro, Consul-General	Consulate-General of Japan, Tientsin
„	Shizuka Mochizuki, Chargé d'Affaires	Consulate-General of Japan, Huhehota
„	Tadashi Sakaya, Consul-General	Consulate-General of Japan, Haikou
Switzerland	Eiji Amō, Minister	Légation du Japon, 95 Thunstrasse, Berne, Suisse

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Country	Representative	Address
Switzerland	Tsuneo Yanai, Consul-General	Consulat Général du Japon, 39, Quai, W. Wilson, Genève, Suisse
Spain	Makoto Yano, Minister	Légation du Japon, Villa la Cumbre, San Sebastian, Espagne
Portugal	Kikuji Yonezawa, Minister	Légation du Japon, Praça do Rio de Janeiro 14, Lisbôa, Portugal
Holland	Itaro Ishii, Minister	Légation du Japon, 1 Guliana van Stolberglaan, Den Haag, Pays-Bas
Sweden	Shigeru Kuriyama, Minister	Légation du Japon, 25 Standvägen, Stockholm, Suède
Finland	Yujiro Sugishita, Minister	Légation du Japon, 11, B, Parkgatan, Helsingfors, Finlande
Latvia	Shojiro Otaka, Minister	Légation du Japon, Jura Alunana ielā 2, dz 2. Riga, Lettonie
Poland	Shūichi Sakoh, Ambassador	Ambassade du Japon, Ulica Bronislawa Pierackiego 10, Varsovie, Pologne
Rumania	Taro Terazaki, Chargé d'Affaires (ad interim)	Légation du Japon, Boulevard Lascar Catargiu 29, Bucarest, Roumanie
Hungary	Kojiro Inoué, Minister	Légation du Japon, Hotel Dunapalota, Budapest, Hongrie
Iran	Shōichi Nakayama, Minister	Légation du Japon, Avenue Pahlavi, Téhéran, Iran
Thailand (Siam)	Kuramatsu Murai, Minister	Legation of Japan, 545 Rajaprarob Road, Makasan, Bangkok, Thailand
"	Shinichi Takasé, Consul-General	Consulate General of Japan, 545 Rajaprarob Road Makasan, Bangkok, Thailand
Canada	Motoichiro Omori, Chargé d'Affaires (ad interim)	Legation of Japan, Victoria Bldg., 140 Wellington St., Ottawa, Ontario, Canada
Mexico	Saichiro Koshida, Minister	Légation du Japon, Calle Colima No. 168, México, D.F., Mexique
"	——	Consulat Général du Japon, Calle Colima No. 168, México, D.F., Mexique
Peru	Masamoto Kitada, Minister	Légation du Japon, Avenida Arequipa 610, Lima, Pérou
Chile	Kanzo Shiozaki, Minister	Légation du Japon Avenida Pedro de Valdivia 522, Santiago, Chili
Argentine	Iwataro Uchiyama, Minister	Légation du Japon, Calle Reconquista 336, Buenos Aires, Argentine
Afghanistan	Kazuo Moriya, Minister	Légation du Japon, Kaboul, Afghanistan

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Country	Representative	Address
Cuba	Sakaé Nanjō, Chargé d'Affaires (ad interim)	Légation du Japon, Avenida de Bélgica entre Avenida de los Aliados y Victoria, Altura de Almendares, Habana, Cuba
Colombia	Kiyoshi Yamagata, Minister	Légation du Japon, Edificio de Banco de la Republica, Bogota, Colombie
Vénézuéla	Jun Ogimi, Chargé d'Affaires (ad interim)	Légation du Japon, Avenida de los Caobos, Plaza Mohedano, Caracas, Vénézuéla
Egypt	Masayuki Yokoyama, Minister	Légation du Japon, No. 6 Rue Hadika Garden City: Le Caire, Egypte
Union of South Africa	Kenichi Okada, Minister	Legation of Japan, Prudential House, Pretorious St., Pretoria, Union of South Africa (P. O. Box. 1225, Pretoria)
Singapore	Kaoru Toyoda, Consul-General	Consulate-General of Japan, Union Bldg., Collyer Quay, Singapore, Straits Settlements
Hong-Kong	Aigi Tajiri, Consul-General	Consulate-General of Japan, Prince's Bldg., 5. Ice House St., Hong-Kong
Philippines	Tanichiro Yoshida, Consul-General	Consulate-General of Japan, Willson Bldg., 143 Juan Luna, Binondo, Manila, P.I.
Dutch East Indies	Otoji Saito, Consul-General	Consulate-General of Japan, Scottweg 23, Batavia-Centrum, Java
British India	Torao Wakamatsu, Consul-General	Consulate-General of Japan, No. 5 Esplanade Mansions, Government Place East, Calcutta, British India
French Indo-China	Kiyoharu Urabé, Chargé d'Affaires	Consulat Général du Japon, 76 Boulevard Carnot, Hanoi, Tonkin, Indochine
Australia	Masatoshi Akiyama, Consul-General	Consulate-General of Japan, Grace Bldg., 77 York St., Sydney, New South Wales, Australia
New Zealand	Kiichi Gunshi, Consul-General	Consulate-General of Japan, Colonial Mutual Building, Wellington, New Zealand

FOREIGN ENVOYS TO JAPAN

(June 15, 1939)

Country	Representative	Address in Tokyo
Afghanistan	Zul Facar Khan, Minister	7 Aoba-cho, Shibuya-ku
Germany	General Eugen Ott, Ambassador	14, 1-chomé, Nagatacho, Kojimachi-ku
The U.S.A.	Joseph Clark Grew, Ambassador	1 Enokizaka-machi, Akasaka-ku
Argentine	Dr. Rodolfo Moreno, Minister	67 Shinsaka-machi, Akasaka-ku
Belgium	Pierre Attilis Forthomme, Chargé d'Affaires	5, Niban-cho, Kojimachi-ku
Brazil	Frederico de Castello-Branco Clark, Ambassador	2, 3-chomé, Omoté-cho, Akasaka-ku

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Country	Representative	Address in Tokyo
Canada	E. D. McGreer, Chargé d'Affaires	16, 3-chomé, Omoté-cho, Akasaka-ku
Chile	—	7, 1-chomé, Shirokané Dai-machi, Shiba-ku
Colombia	Alfredo Michelsen, Minister	Yusen Kaisha Building, Marunouchi, Kojimachi-ku
Denmark	Lars P. Tillitse, Minister	52, Hikawa-cho, Akasaka-ku
Egypt	Abdel Wahab Daoud Bey, Minister	331, 3-chomé, Kamiosaki, Shinagawa-ku
Spain	Santiago Méndez de Vigo, Minister	2, 1-chomé, Ichibei-cho, Azabu-ku
Finland	Hugo Valvanne, Minister	62 Tansu-machi, Azabu-ku
France	Charles Arsène-Henry, Ambassador	33 Fujimi-cho, Azabu-ku
Great Britain	Sir Robert Craigie, Ambassador	1 Goban-cho, Kojimachi-ku
Greece	Athanase G. Politis, Minister	The Imperial Hotel
Iran	Mahmoud Bahadori, Chargé d'Affaires	55 Zaimoku-cho, Azabu-ku
Italy	Giacinto Auriti, Ambassador	28, 1-chomé, Mita, Shiba-ku
Manchoukuo	Yuan Chen-tuo, Ambassador	50 Sakurada-cho, Azabu-ku
Mexico	Primo Villa Michel, Minister	21, 2-chomé, Nagata-cho, Kojimachi-ku
Norway	Finn Koren, Minister	17 Aoyama Takagi-cho, Akasaka-ku
Holland	Général J.C. Pabst, Minister	1 Sakaé-cho, Shiba-ku
Peru	Dr. Ricardo Rivera Schreiber, Minister	2, Hiroo-cho, Azabu-ku
Poland	Thaddée de Romer, Ambassador	9 Mita-Tsuna-machi, Shiba-ku
Portugal	Dr. A. Carreiro de Freitas, Chargé d'Affaires	1 Sannen-cho, Kojimachi-ku
Rumania	Georges Paraschivesco, Minister	55 Zaimoku-cho, Azabu-ku
Thailand (Siam)	Phya Sri Sena, Minister	140, 1-chomé, Harajuku, Shibuya-ku
Sweden	Widar Bagge, Minister	22, Nishimachi, Azabu-ku
Switzerland	Walter Thurnheer, Minister	3, No. 1, Nibancho, Kojimachi-ku
Turkey	R. Husrev Gerede, Ambassador	47 Kamiyama-cho, Shibuya-ku
The U.S.S.R.	Constantin Smetanin, Chargé d'Affaires	1 Mamiana-cho, Azabu-ku

Japanese consulates are established in the following places :

Country	Situation of Consulates
Canada	Ottawa, Vancouver
Great Britain	Liverpool
France	Marseilles
Belgium	Anvers
Sweden	Stockholm
U. S. S. R.	Oha
U. S. S. R.	Petropavlovsk
Manchoukuo	Manchuli
Manchoukuo	Chinchow
Manchoukuo	Antung
Manchoukuo	Chengchiatun
Manchoukuo	Hailoerh
Manchoukuo	Yingkou
Manchoukuo	Chifeng
Manchoukuo	Chengte
China	Chefoo
China	Hangchow
China	Kiukiang
China	Shihkiachwang
China	Tayuan

Country	Situation of Consulates
Cochin China	Saigon
Thailand (Siam)	Bangkok
Burma	Rangoon
British Borneo	Sandakan
Java	Sourabaya
Sumatra	Medan
Celebes	Menado
India	Bombay
Ceylon	Colombo
Arabia	Beyrouth
Philippines	Davao
Maroc	Casablanca
Egypt	Port Said
Egypt	Alexandria
Union of South Africa	Cape Town
British East Africa	Mombasa
Italian Oriental Africa	Addis-Abéba
U. S. A.	Los Angeles
U. S. A.	Portland
U. S. A.	Chicago
U. S. A.	Seattle
U. S. A.	New Orleans

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Country	Situation of Consulates
Cuba	Havana
Panama	Panama
Salvador	San Salvador
Argentine	Buenos Aires
Peru	Lima
Brazil	São Paulo
Brazil	Rio de Janeiro
Brazil	Belén
Brazil	Santos

The following foreign consulates are registered.

Country	Situation of Consulates
Germany	Yokohama, Kobé, Dairen, Osaka.
Argentine	Yokohama, Kobé, Osaka, Nagoya, Tokyo.
Belgium	Yokohama, Kobé Keijo, Dairen, Osaka.
Bolivia	Yokohama, Osaka, Kobé Tokyo.
Brazil	Kobé, Yokohama, Nagasaki.
Chile	Tokyo, Kobé, Yokohama.
Colombia	Yokohama, Kobé
Cuba	Kobé.
Denmark	Tokyo, Yokohama, Kobé, Nagasaki, Osaka.
U. S. A.	Tokyo, Yokohama, Nagoya, Kobé, Nagasaki, Taihoku, Keijo, Dairen.
France	Yokohama, Kobé, Dairen, Nagasaki, Tansui, Keijo.
Great Britain	Tokyo, Yokohama, Osaka, Kobé, Shimonoseki, Nagasaki, Tansui, Keijo, Dairen, Jinsen, Hakodate, Otaru.
Finland	Kobé, Yokohama, Dairen,
Greece	Yokohama, Kobé, Osaka.
Italy	Kobé, Yokohama, Taihoku Dairen.
Mexico	Yokohama, Kobé.
Norway	Tokyo, Yokohama, Kobé, Shimonoseki, Nagasaki, Tansui, Dairen.
Holland	Tokyo, Yokohama, Kobé, Nagasaki, Taihoku, Keijo, Dairen, Shimonoseki.
Panama	Yokohama, Osaka.
Peru	Kobé.
Portugal	Tokyo, Kobé, Nagoya, Kyoto, Osaka, Moji, Shimonoseki, Nagasaki.
U. S. S. R.	Hakodate, Keijo, Tsuruga, Dairen.
Sweden	Yokohama, Osaka, Kobé, Shimonoseki, Moji, Nagasaki, Dairen.
Switzerland	Tokyo.
Venezuela	Kobé, Tokyo, Yokohama.
Poland	Osaka, Tokyo, Yokohama.
Thailand	Osaka, Kobé, Nagoya, Yokohama.
Handuras	Kobé.
Salvador	Tokyo.
Latvia	Tokyo.
Dominica	Kobé, Yokohama.
Guatemala	Tokyo. Yokohama, Kobé.
Turkey	Osaka, Yokohama, Tokyo.
Uruguay	Kobé, Yokohama.
Rumania	Osaka.
Luxemburg	Tokyo.
Egypt	Tokyo.
Yugoslavia	Osaka.
Haiti	Kobé.
Albania	Osaka.
Paraguay	Tokyo, Yokohama.
Lithuania	Tokyo.
Esthonia	Dairen.
Manchoukuo	Moji, Niigata, Osaka, Shingishu.

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CHAPTER VII

NATIONAL DEFENCE[1]

The Imperial Precepts to The Soldiers and Sailors

The forces of Our Empire are in all ages under the command of the Emperor. It is more than twenty-five centuries since the Emperor Jimmu, leading in person the soldiers of the Otomo and Mononobé clans, subjected the unruly tribes of the land and ascended the Imperial Throne to rule over the whole country. During this period the military system has undergone frequent changes in accordance with those in the state of society. In ancient times the rule was that the Emperor should take personal command of the forces; and although the military authority was sometimes delegated to the Empress or to the Prince Imperial, it was scarcely ever entrusted to a subject. In the middle ages, when the civil and military institutions were framed after the Chinese model, the Six Guards were founded, the Right and Left Horse Bureax established, and other organizations, such as that of the Coast Guards, created. The military system was thus completed, but, habituated to a prolonged state of peace, the Imperial Court gradually lost its administrative vigour; in course of time soldiers and farmers became distinct classes, and the early conscription system was replaced by an organization of volunteers, which finally produced the military class. The military power passed over entirely to the leaders of this class; through disturbances in the Empire the political power also fell into their hands; and for about seven centuries the military families held sway. Although these results followed from changes in the state of society and were beyond human control, they were deeply to be deplored, since they were contrary to the fundamental character of Our Empire and to the law of Our Imperial Ancestors. Later on, in the eras of Kokwa and Kaéi, the decline of the Tokugawa Shogunate and the new aspect of foreign relations even threatened to impair our national dignity, causing no small anxiety to Our August Grandfather, the Emperor Ninko, and Our August Father, the Emperor Koméi, a fact which We recall with awe and gratitude. When in youth We succeeded to the Imperial Throne, the Shogun returned into Our hands the administrative power, and all the feudal lords their fiefs; thus, in a few years, Our entire realm was unified and the ancient régime restored. Due as this was to the meritorious services of Our loyal officers and wise councillors, civil and military, and to the abiding influence of Our Ancestors' benevolence towards the people, yet it must also be attributed to Our subjects' true sense of loyalty and their conviction of the importance of "Great Righteousness." In consideration of these things, being desirous of reconstructing Our military system and of enhancing the glory of Our Empire, We have in the course of the last fifteen years established the present system of the Army and Navy. The supreme command of Our forces is in Our hands, and although We may entrust subordinate commands to Our subjects, yet the ultimate authority We Ourself shall hold and never delegate to any subject. It is Our will that this principle be carefully handed down to posterity and that the Emperor always retain the supreme civil and military power, so that the disgrace of the middle and succeeding ages may never be repeated. Soldiers and Sailors, We are your supreme Commander-in-Chief. Our relations with you will be most intimate when We rely upon you as Our limbs and you look up to Us as your head. Whether We are able to guard the Empire, and so prove Ourself worthy of Heaven's blessings and repay the benevolence of Our Ancestors, depends upon the faithful discharge of your duties as soldiers and sailors. If the majesty and power of Our Empire be impaired, do you share with Us the sorrow; if the glory of Our arms shine resplendent, We will share with you

1 Note: The Imperial Army and Navy are fundamentally reorganized since July, 1937, and all matters connected with the changes are kept secret as a matter of course. We are, therefore, obliged to give only what was known before the present wartime reorganizations, although an explanation of the revision in the military service law is given at the end of this chapter.

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the honour. If you all do your duty, and being one with Us in spirit do your utmost for the protection of the state, Our people will long enjoy the blessings of peace, and the might and dignity of our Empire will shine in the world. As We thus expect much of you, Soldiers and Sailors, We give you the following precepts :—

(1) The soldier and the sailor should consider loyalty their essential duty. Who that is born in this land can be wanting in the spirit of grateful service to it? No soldier or sailor, especially, can be considered efficient unless this spirit be strong within him. A soldier or a sailor in whom this spirit is not strong, however skilled in art or proficient in science, is a mere puppet; and a body of soldiers or sailors wanting in loyalty, however well ordered and disciplined it may be, is in an emergency no better than a rabble. Remember that, as the protection of the state and the maintenance of its power depend upon the strength of its arms, the growth or decline of this strength must affect the nation's destiny for good or for evil; therefore neither be led astray by current opinions nor meddle in politics, but with single heart fulfil your essential duty of loyalty, and bear in mind that duty is weightier than a mountain, while death is lighter than a feather. Never by failing in moral principle fall into disgrace and bring dishonour upon your name.

(2) The soldier and the sailor should be strict in observing propriety. Soldiers and sailors are organized in grades, from the Marshal and the Admiral of the Fleet down to the private soldier or ordinary seaman; and even within the same rank and grade there are differences in seniority of service according to which juniors should submit to their seniors. Inferiors should regard the orders of their superiors as issuing directly from Us. Always pay due respect not only to your superiors but also to your seniors, even though not serving under them. On the other hand, superiors should never treat their inferiors with contempt or arrogance. Except when official duty requires them to be strict and severe, superiors should treat their inferiors with consideration, making kindness their chief aim, so that all grades may unite in their service to the Emperor. If you, Soldiers and Sailors, neglect to observe propriety, treating your superiors with disrespect and your inferiors with harshness, and thus cause harmonious co-operation to be lost, you will not only be a blight upon the forces but also be unpardonable offenders against the state.

(3) The soldier and the sailor should esteem valour. Ever since the ancient times valour has in our country been held in high esteem, and without it Our subjects would be unworthy of their name. How then may the soldier and the sailor, whose profession it is to confront the enemy in battle, forget even for one instant to be valiant? But there is true valour and false. To be incited by mere impetuosity to violent action cannot be called true valour. The soldier and the sailor should have sound discrimination of right and wrong, cultivate self-possession, and form their plans with deliberation. Never to despise an inferior enemy or fear a superior, but to do one's duty as soldier or sailor—this is true valour. Those who thus appreciate true valour should in their daily intercourse set gentleness first and aim to win the love and esteem of others. If you affect valour and act with violence, the world will in the end detest you and look upon you as wild beasts. Of this you should take heed.

(4) The soldier and the sailor should highly value faithfulness and righteousness. Faithfulness and righteousness are the ordinary duties of man, but the soldier and the sailor, in particular, cannot be without them and remain in the ranks even for a day. Faithfulness implies the keeping of one's word, and righteousness the fulfilment of one's duty. If then you wish to be faithful and righteous in any thing, you must carefully consider at the outset whether you can accomplish it or not. If you thoughtlessly agree to do something that is vague in its nature and bind yourself to unwise obligations, and then try to prove yourself faithful and righteous, you may find yourself in great straits from which there is no escape. In such cases your regrets will be of no avail. Hence you must first make sure whether the thing is righteous and reasonable or not. If you are convinced that you cannot possibly keep your word and maintain righteousness, you had better abandon your engagement at once. Ever since the ancient times there have been repeated instances of great men and heroes who, overwhelmed by misfortune, have perished and left a tarnished name to posterity, simply because in their effort to be faithful in small matters they failed to discern right and wrong with reference to fundamental principles, or because, losing sight of the true path of public duty, they kept faith in private relations. You should, then, take serious warning by these ex-

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amples.

(5) The soldier and the sailor should make simplicity their aim. If you do not make simplicity your aim, you will become effeminate and frivolous and acquire fondness for luxurious and extravagant ways; you will finally grow selfish and sordid and sink to the last degree of baseness, so that neither loyalty nor valour will avail to save you from the contempt of the world. It is not too much to say that you will thus fall into a life-long misfortune. If such an evil once makes its appearance among soldiers and sailors, it will certainly spread like an epidemic, and martial spirit and morale will instantly decline. Although, being greatly concerned on this point, We lately issued the Disciplinary Regulations and warned you against this evil, nevertheless, being harassed with anxiety lest it should break out, We hereby reiterate Our warning. Never do you, Soldiers and Sailors, make light of this injunction.

These five articles should not be disregarded even for a moment by soldiers and sailors. Now for putting them into practice, the all important is sincerity. These five articles are the soul of Our soldiers and sailors, and sincerity is the soul of these articles. If the heart be not sincere, words and deeds, however good, are all mere outward show and can avail nothing. If only the heart be sincere, anything can be accomplished. Moreover, these five articles are the Grand Way of Heaven and Earth and the universal law of humanity, easy to observe and to practise. If you, Soldiers and Sailors, in obedience to Our instruction, will observe and practise these principles and fulfil your duty of grateful service to the country, it will be a source of joy, not to Ourself alone, but to all people of Japan.

The 4th day of the 1st month of
the 15th Year of Meiji.
(Imperial Sign Manual)

General

Special Position of Army and Navy The Japanese Army and Navy are under the direct command of the Emperor and neither the Government nor the Diet has any right to interfere in the strategic actions or the number of men or ships to be maintained. In making any decision on military and naval strength or the organization thereof, the Emperor consults the Chiefs of the respective General Staffs, who are thereupon required to submit their plans direct to His Majesty. The plans are then handed to the Prime Minister, who in his turn consults the Diet as to the necessary appropriations. Thus the Diet, while powerless to interfere with the actual naval and military projects, is entitled to determine the amount to be appropriated for their execution. If, however, the Service estimates are reduced in such a way as to render the original projects impossible of excution, this is deemed to be an infringement of the Imperial Prerogative under Article XII of the Constitution.

The Board of Field Marshals and Fleet Admirals This Board was created in 1898 as the Emperor's highest advisory body on military and naval affairs. Its members are at present as follows:

Field Marshal H. I. H. Prince Kan-in;
Field Marshal H. I. H. Price Nashimoto;
Fleet Admiral H. I. H. Prince Fushimi.

The High Military Council This is a larger advisory body which was created in 1887. Its membership includes, in addition to that of the above-mentioned Board, the Ministers of War and Marine, the Chiefs of the Naval and Military General Staffs and other generals and admirals specially nominated by the Emperor. Its functions are to advise the Emperor on all matters appertaining to war, especially on the correlation of the various departments of military administration, in the broader sense of the world. The Council may meet sections to deliberate and tender advice on issues concerning the Army or Navy separately.

Present members specially nominated by the Emperor are:

Lieutenant-General	H. I. H. Prince Asaka
Lieutenant-General	H. I. H. Prince Higashikuni
Admiral	Sankichi Takahashi
Admiral	Hisanori Fujita
General	Hisaichi Térauchi
Admiral	Nobumasa Suétsugu
Admiral	Minéo Ōsumi
Lieutenant-General	Kotaro Nakamura

The Military Service System[1] The system of compulsory military service in Japan is by no means a new one. It was established for the first time at the political innovation of Taika (646

1 **Note: In 1939 some important revisions are made in the system by the promulgation of the Law amending the Military Service Law, an explanation of which may be found at the end of this chapter.**

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A.D.). And the system underwent a number of changes in course of time. It was improved greatly by the Taihoréi promulgated by the Mommu Tenno in the year 701 A.D. According to this law the whole country was divided into several military districts to facilitate the operation of the law and one-third of the youth in each district was compulsorily enlisted for military discipline. The number of the trained men in Japan in those days is said to have reached more than 100,000. A long period of peace then ensued, with the result that the law gradually dropped out of practice, giving room to the emergence of a division of people into two classes; namely, warriors on the one hand and farmers on the other.

The present law relating to military conscription was promulgated in 1872. By this law the conscription system of the country was brought back to what it was in the former times. This is numbered as one of the greatest achievements of the Meiji Tenno.

The fundamental aspects of the Japanese military service system are based upon the unique nature of the Japanese policy and the peculiar psychology of the Japanese people, who are not only willing, but deem it the highest honour, to serve in the army and the navy. All Japanese men, between 17 and 40 (except those who are disabled or those who have been imprisoned for six years or more) are required to serve.

The service is divided as follows:

(1) Jobi héi-éki (standing service). This is of two kinds: (a) Gen-éki (active service), 2 years for the army and 3 years for the navy; (b) Yobi-éki (1st reserve service), 5 years and 4 months for the army and 4 years for the navy.

(2) Kobi héi-éki (2nd reserve service), 10 years for the army and 5 years for the navy.

(3) Hoju héi-éki (replenishment reserve service). This is divided into two categories: — (a) First Supplementary Untrained Reservists, 2 years and 4 months for the army and 1 year for the navy, (b) Second Supplementary Untrained Reservists, 12 years and 4 months for the army and 11 years and 4 months for the Navy.

(4) Kokumin héi-éki (national service or Militia), extending in principle for the necessary period in either arm for the man to reach the age of 40.

Men are subjected to medical examination for conscription at the age of 20, and are classed as follows:

Class I; Class II, A, Class II, B; Class III; Class IV; and Class V. They are then allocated to the various categories of service according to their medical class as follows:

Medical Class	Description	Service to which Allocated
I, II A and B	Fit for active service.	Active service or replenishment reserve.
III	Fit for national service, but not for active service.	National service
IV	Unfit for any service.	Exempt from all service.
V	Nature of fitness undecided (may be included in Class I or Class II, A or B, in the following year.)	Allocation Postponed

They are then drafted to different branches of service according to the districts to which they belong and their ability and occupation.

Those who are fit for active service (Class I, Class II, A and B) are enrolled by lottery, at each conscription district, for active service or 1st or 2nd replenishment reserve. (Volunteer enrolments for active service are accepted.) Those having finished the period of active service are placed on the 1st reserve list for terms as stated above. At the end of such terms they are removed to the 2nd reserve, and then finally to the national service. Those who have gone through the period of replenishment reserve service are also transferred to the national service.

Sole supporters of families, and criminals sentenced to over 6 years' imprisonment or penal servitude are also exempt from service,. Those studying at certain schools, Government or private, which are recognized to be of equivalent or superior status to that of middle schools are exempt from conscription examination until the completion of their studies or until they attain their 27th year. Those staying abroad enjoy postponement of service under similar conditions, the age limit being 37.

By virtue of a revision of the conscription law in 1927, the active service of conscripts who have finished the course of a Young Peoples' School is reduced by six months, while that of the

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graduates from normal schools by nineteen months. In other words, the former have to serve only eighteen months and the latter only five months, instead of full two years. A similar system of short term active service has also been adopted by the Navy.

The term of active service for graduates of middle schools and higher grade schools who have received full disciplinary training while at school and passed the final examination thereof is reduced to 12 months.

The conscription examination of such students is postponed till they reach the age of full 27 years.

After 3 month's active service they may be chosen as cadets and get special traning for the remaining 9 months. They may be promoted, according to ability, to either corporals or second lieutenants in the first reserve service at or after the expiration of active service. From among the graduates of technical or scientific departments of universities cadets may be chosen to supply engineers and technical officers of artillery and air forces.

Examination for Conscription According to medical examination, conscripts are classified into six grades as mentioned above. The figures for the past 8 years, 1928–1936, were as follows :

	Total Number Examined	Class I	Class II A	Class II B	Class III	Class IV	Class V
1928	568,796	171,744	64,970	119,783	171,758	39,861	680
1929	585,819	175,979	69,372	119,721	178,790	41,075	882
1930	595,505	174,482	69,275	121,961	187,863	40,989	938
1931	619,146	178,355	72,617	124,942	200,263	42,245	724
1932	621,844	174,282	71,556	125,938	207,401	41,951	716
1933	631,099	178,994	72,796	132,681	205,777	40,141	710
1934	641,969	185,432	72,979	135,275	206,810	40,822	651
1935	633,886	188,470	72,833	130,041	201,716	40,108	718
1936	630,802	195,832	73,722	134,744	186,610	34,316	578

Statistics on height and weight ascertained through the medical examinations for recent 8 years, 1928–1936, are as follows :

	Average Height	Average Weight
1928	1.596 m.	52.639 kg.
1929	1.602 m.	52.823 kg.
1930	1.598 m.	52.727 kg.
1931	1.600 m.	53.007 kg.
1932	1.600 m.	52.841 kg.
1933	1.602 m.	52.816 kg.
1934	1.603 m.	52.994 kg.
1935	1.603 m.	52.950 kg.
1936	1.603 m.	53.176 kg.

The grades of education attained by men examined for conscription in recent 8 years, 1928–1936, were :

	University	Higher School	Middle School	Higher Elementary School and Young People's School	Elementary School	Elementary School (Unfinished)	Uneducated
1928	81	1,209	43,309	266,611	209,413	42,200	5,973
1929	143	3,589	50,684	284,081	205,362	36,408	5,553
1930	493	7,303	65,944	296,829	197,312	31,812	4,812
1931	1,721	11,406	65,698	313,628	192,772	28,913	5,009
1932	3,741	13,188	69,147	324,204	182,064	25,323	4,177
1933	6,616	15,049	70,422	339,677	174,024	21,634	3,677
1934	9,031	16,467	72,622	356,135	165,240	18,802	3,672
1935	10,057	17,031	72,034	358,107	155,851	17,394	3,412
1936	10,285	17,155	70,992	373,823	140,910	14,591	3,046

Of those listed above as uneducated 3,463 for 1928, 3,045 for 1929, 2,873 for 1930, 3,090 for 1931, 2,543 for 1932, 2,268 for 1933, 2,433 for 1934, 2,220 for 1935 and 2,044 for 1936 were illiterates. The ratio of illiteracy, which was 4.28 per cent in 1903, 3.44 in 1911 and 2.17 in 1915, has been decreasing steadily, being 0.88 in 1925, 0.70 in 1927, 0.61 in 1928, 0.38 in 1934, 0.35 in 1935 and 0.32 in 1936.

Classified according to occupations of the households from which conscripts come in 1936, farmers head the list with 196,419 or 31.1 per cent of the total. Details follow :

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Farmers	**196,419**
Fishermen	17,512
Miners	8,658
Industrial workers	192,348
Commercial workers	95,867
Transportation	24,486
Communications	5,807
Officials	16,698
Educators, priests, literary men, etc.	30,436
Miscellaneous	14,117
Unoccupied	28,454
Total	630,802

Volunteers The number of volunteers who are from 17 to 20 years of age, regulated by the Military Service Law, Article 7, was 25,891 in 1935 and 13,926 of which were allowed to enter the active service, a decrease of 182 in the number of volunteers and an increase of 1,132 in that of those who passed examination as compared with the previous year.

Conscripts and Leave of Absence Conscripts may return home to attend to family business for periods varying with the necessity of the case, but in no case exceeding 14 days. This departure from the general rule was proposed in 1919 to meet the convenience of the families of conscripts and was carried into effect at once.

Courts-Martial The Court-Martial Law provides that (1) all offences committed by officers and men shall be given public trial, (2) accused persons shall be given the benefit of counsel in their defence. Provision is also made for appeal.

The Army has eight courts-martial, namely, the High, the Divisional and six other temporary ones; the Navy has seven, the High, the Tokyo, the Admiralty and four other temporary ones. Courts-martial are always composed of judges (military or naval officers), law officials (civil) and clerks. The number of these varies in accordance with the nature of the court in question.

Gendarmerie The gendarmerie is under the control of the War Minister and mainly takes charge of military police, although it may assist civil or judicial police. Orders may, therefore, come from Ministers of Home Affairs and Justice. As military police its function is to see military laws and order kept. Guarding of military secrets, policing of fortress districts and naval stations, enforcement of laws concerning conscription, active service, calling out of the reserve, enforcing levy and martial laws, general surveillance of military discipline, and keeping order in war districts; these things come under its administrative responsibility. The searching and detection of crimes among military men, the collection of evidences and the arrest of culprits come under its judicial responsibility. The number of gendarmes is: Japan proper 1,450, Korea 490, Manchuria 190, and Formosa 90.

The Army

Outline History The Army under the Imperial régime was organized for the first time in the fourth year of Meiji (1871), when the samurai of the Kagoshima, Kochi and Yamaguchi clans formed an Imperial Bodyguard consisting of a few battalions, and four regular army divisions were established in Tokyo, Osaka, Kumamoto and Sendai. In January, 1873, the Government adopted a conscription system, by which members of all social classes were held equally liable for military service. The divisions in Nagoya and Hiroshima, which were established that year, were the first fighting units in this country to contain members of the farmer, merchant and other non-samurai classes. The total strength of the Japanese Army at that time was seven divisions consisting of about 36,000 men on peace standing and 46,250 on a war footing.

The number of soldiers to be mobilized was steadily increased after the Saigo Rebellion of 1877, but it was with this "cadre" of seven divisions that Japan defeated China in 1894-5. In the ten years following the Japan-China War, six more divisions were established with the result that Japan was able to put nearly one million men in the field during the Russo-Japanese War of 1904-5.

In 1922 Japan's Army strength reached twenty-one divisions consisting of 308,000 men on peace standing. The peaceful atmosphere in world affairs after the European War and the national financial condition made it necessary for Japan to reduce the army, and as the result of a readjustment effected between 1922 and 1924, a reduction of 1,800 officers, 56,000 men and 13,000 horses was made. This corresponds to a reduction of about five divisions on peace standing. In May, 1925, four more divisions (the 13th, 15th, 17th and 18th) was abolished, and the

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present strength of the Japanese Army is 17 divisions and about 230,000 men on peace standing, inclusive of the Taiwan and Kwantung Armies.

Army Expenditure

The Army expenditure from 1893-94 down to 1937-38 have been as follows :

Year	Running Expenses	Extraordinary Expenses	Total
		(In yen)	
1893-94	12,420,000	2,301,000	14,721.000
(Just before Sino-Japanese War)			
1896-97	32,614,000	30,629,000	53,243,000
1903-04	39,353,000	7,529,000	46,884,000
(Just before Russo-Japanese War)			
1906-07	37,835,000	30,045,000	67,870,000
(Just after Russo-Japanese War)			
1912-13	80,175,000	23,950,000	104,125,000
1917-18	88,344,000	35,093,000	123,437,000
1923-24	176,224,000	47,704,000	223,927,000
1924-25	179,331,000	27,403,000	206,734,000
1925-26	170,761,000	44,044,000	214,805,000
1926-27	167,561,000	29,380,000	199,941,000
1927-28	174,190,000	43,913,000	218,104,000
1928-29	167,620,000	81,486,000	249,106,000
1929-30	178,898,000	48,356,000	227,255,000
1930-31	174,546,000	26,278,000	200,824,000
1931-32	163,679,000	63,808,000	227,488,000
1932-33	148,266,000	225,309,000	373,575,000
1933-34	166,471,000	296,173,000	462,644,000
1934-35 (Budget)	169,038,000	284,656,000	453,694,000
1935-36 („)	179,803,000	313,155,000	492,958,000
1936-37 („)	190,900,000	317,400,000	508,310,000
1937-38 („)	217,804,071	510,161,269	727,965,340
1938-39 („)	165,783,439	398,810,750	564,594,189

Note: For details of 1938-39 and 1939-40 budgets see Chapter VIII Public Finance, where the military expenditure in relation to the Sino-Japanese hostilities is given also.

Administrative Organization

Administration of the Army is conducted by the following three organs, the chiefs thereof working under direct order from the Throne :

The Ministry of War The central organ for military administration. The Ministry contains eight departments, the names and functions of which are listed below :

(a) The Minister's secretariat takes charge of all secret affairs, papers and other records, and general office work.

(b) The Bureau of Personal Affairs is in charge of all the affairs concerning the personnel of the army, It consists of two sections, the one dealing with appointments, promotion, etc., the other of decorations.

(c) The Bureau of Military Affairs is the real centre of military administration, and is responsible for the establishment of the system and organization of the Army, for the proclamation and withdrawal of martial law, and for all the affairs concerning ceremonies to be observed by the soldiers, morals and discipline among the men, the drafting of men and horses to various units, the conscription system, etc., etc.

(d) The Replenishment Bureau is divided into two sections, one for mobilization and the other for co-ordination, and is responsible for the establishment and improvement of the mobilization system, preparation and coordination of war supplies, improvement of military transportation, etc.

(e) The Arms and Ordnance Bureau consists of the section for rifles and guns and the section for various supplies. It is in the charge of arms, ordnance, and various supplies of war.

(f) The Intendance Bureau has four sections, the Paymaster's, Audit, Clothing and Provisions, and Construction. This bureau is responsible for expenditure, the inspection of accounts, preparation of budgets, provisions, clothing, structures, etc.

(g) The Medical Bureau is responsible for all sanitary and medical arrangements among officers and men. It con-

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sists of the section for sanitary affairs and the section for medicine and surgery.

(h) The Judicial Bureau is responsible for the organization of courts-martial and all other affairs in connection with martial law.

The Ministry of War also supervises the following organizations situated in various parts of the country.

(a) The Military Aviation Bureau is the central organ for the study of military aviation, and is required to organize the education of pilots and mechanics, to supervise repairs, replenishment, and purchases of aeronautical supplies, etc.

(b) The Technical Investigation Bureau conducts researches on all technical developments likely to effect military efficiency. Inspection of ordnance and various war supplies is conducted by this bureau. Under its supervision is the Laboratory of Military Science which conducts research on methods of scientific warfare.

(c) The Military Technical Board. This is an organ for deliberation on all technical problems submitted by the War Minister.

(d) The Military Arsenal is responsible for the establishment of designs and plans of arms and ordnance, as well as repairs and examination of various supplies of war inclusive of gunpowder. It has branches in Osaka, Nagoya, Oji, Kokura and Héijo.

(e) The Woolen Factory at Senju is engaged in the manufacture of woollen yarn and clothes, for military supplies.

(f) The Remount Bureau has charge of horse replenishment, including breeding and purchase.

(g) The Military Arms Depot is responsible for the purchase, storage, repairs, maintenance, supply, exchange, and scrapping of arms and ordnance. It also takes care of the guns installed in fortresses. The main office is in Tokyo and there are branches in Chiba, Osaka, Nagoya, Kokura, and Hiroshima.

(h) The Military Clothing Depot has its head office in Tokyo, and branches in Osaka and Hiroshima. It takes care of the manufacture, purchase, storage, and supply of all clothing supplies.

(i) The Military Hygienic Supplies Depot is responsible for the manufacture, purchase, storage, supply, and inspection of all hygienic supplies.

(j) The Military Depot of Provisions and Forage, with its head office in Tokyo and branches in Osaka and Ujina, is in charge of the preparation and supply of provisions and forage.

(k) The Fortifications Bureau is responsible for the construction, inspection, and maintenance of all defensive structures, besides being required to conduct researches on artillery and military engineering.

(l) The Military Transport Bureau is situated at Ujina and looks after all matters concerning the transportation of troops.

The General Staff It deliberates on national defence and strategy. It is also required to train and supervise all staff officers. The Staff College and the Land Survey Bureau are under the control of the Chief of the General Staff.

The Land Survey Bureau is responsible for the replenishment of military maps, production of maps for public use and the training of experts for the Bureau services.

The Department of Military Training It is in charge of all military schools and the training and education of officers and men, as well as the co-ordination and development of military education; aeronautical education of military aviation, however, is entrusted to the Aviation Bureau, and the training of staff officers comes under the General Staff.

The Department consists of the headquarters and sections for cavalry, artillery, engineers and commissariat.

Field Organization

The Division A division generally consists of 2 infantry brigades, 1 cavalry regiment, 1 engineer battalion, and 1 commissariat battalion. To some larger divisions, a tank corps, or a mountain artillery regiment, or a heavy field artillery regiment, is attached. While a few others include a full cavalry brigade, a regiment of transport or an anti-aircraft regiment. Eight ammunition columns (4 infantry and 4 artillery), 6 field hospitals, and 1 remount depot accompany each division on service. The number is about 10,000 on peace standing. Divisional commanders hold the rank of Lieutenant-General, brigade commanders that of Major-General.

The Regiment An infantry regiment consists of 3 battalions and a machine-gun corps, and an infantry battalion of 3 companies of 150 men each, and a machine gun section. A company is subdivided into three sections.

A cavalry regiment, of which Japan has 25 at present, consists of 2 or 3 squadrons. Eight of these regiments are organized into four independent cavalry brigades, while the remaining seventeen

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are attached one to each of the divisions.

Japan has 30 artillery regiments and 10 battalions, namely 15 regiments of field artillery, 1 battalion of horse artillery, 4 regiments and 1 battalion of mountain artillery, and 8 regiments of heavy field artillery. A field artillery regiment is divided into 3 battalions, and a battalion into 3 companies. On peace strength a field artillery regiment consists of only 6 batteries each equipped with four guns. In addition there are 3 regiments and 8 battalions of heavy artillery, which are responsible for the defence of fortified zones.

In peace time 1 regiment and 1 battery of anti-aircraft artillery are maintained.

Air Force Japan's air force is divided into units attached to the Army and Navy respectively. The Army air force consists at present of 11 reconnoitering squadrons, 11 fighting squadrons, 4 bombing companies, and 2 balloon companies, consisting of approximately 1,000 planes.

The Peace Strength

A full statistical classification of the peace strength of the Army, with the total number of soldiers nearly 250,000, in 1936, is given below. In addition to the units listed, a force of gendarmerie 2,220 strong and a medical corps, about 1,500 strong are maintained.

Units	No. of Complete Regiments	No. of Additional Battalions
Infantry	70	6
Cavalry	25	—
Field Artillery	14	—
Mountain Artillery	5	1
Mounted Artillery	—	1
Heavy Field Artillery	8	—
Heavy Artillery	3	8
Engineers	—	17
Railway Corps	2	—
Telegraph Corps	2	—
Air Force	9	—
		(corps)
Balloon Corps		1
Commissariat		15
Tank Corps		2
		(corps)
Anti-Aircraft Artillery	1	1

This force is divided into 17 divisions and 34 brigades and was stationed in December, 1935 as follows:

Imperial Guard Division

Divisional headquarters	Tokyo
Headquarters of 1st Infantry Guard Brigade	Tokyo
Guard Regiments 1st and 2nd	Tokyo
Headquarters of 2nd Infantry Guard Brigade	Tokyo
Guard Regiments 3rd and 4th	Tokyo
Headquarters of 1st Cavalry Brigade	Narashino
Cavalry Guard Regiment	Tokyo
13th and 14th Cavalry Regiments	Narashino
Headquarters of 4th Heavy Field Artillery Brigade	Tokyo
Artillery Guard Regiment	Tokyo
Heavy Field Artillery Regiments 4th	Shimoshizu
Heavy Field Artillery Regiments 8th	Tokyo
Engineer Guard Battalion; Commissariat Guard Battalion	Tokyo
Railway Regiment 1st	Chiba
Railway Regiment 2nd, Telegraph Regiment 1st	Tokyo
Air Force Regiment 5th	Tachikawa
Balloon Corps	Chiba

1st Division

Divisional headquarters	Tokyo
Headquarters of 1st Infantry Brigade	Tokyo
Infantry Regiment 1st	Tokyo
Infantry Regiment 49th	Kofu
Headquarters of 2nd Infantry Brigade	Tokyo
Infantry Regiment 3rd	Tokyo
Infantry Regiment 57th	Sakura
Headquarters of 2nd Cavalry Brigade	Narashino
Cavalry Regiment 1st	Tokyo
Cavalry Regiment 15th and 16th	Narashino
Headquarters of Heavy Field Artillery Brigade 3rd	Kohnodai
Field Artillery Regiment 1st	Tokyo
Horse Artillery Battalion	Kohnodai
Heavy Field Artillery Regiment 1st and 7th	Kohnodai
Yokosuka Heavy Artillery Regiment	Yokosuka
Engineer Battalion 1st	Tokyo
Commissariat Battalion 1st	Tokyo

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2nd Division

Divisional hedquarters	Sendai
Headquarters of 3rd Infantry Brigade	Sendai
Infantry Regiment 4th	Sendai
Infantry Regiment 29th	Wakamatsu
Headquarters of 15th Infantry Brigade	Takata
Infantry Regiment 16th	Shibata
The 3rd Battalion of this regiment is stationed at Muramatsu.	
Infantry Regiment 30th	Takata
Cavalry Regiment 2nd	Sendai
Field Artillery Regiment 2nd	Sendai
Independent Mountain Artillery Regiment 1st	Takata
Engineer Battalion 2nd	Sendai
Commissarist Battalion 2nd	Sendai

3rd Division

Divisional headquarters	Nagoya
Headquarters of 5th Infantry Brigade	Nagoya
Infantry Regiment 6th	Nagoya
Infantry Regiment 68th	Gifu
Headquarters of 29th Infantry Brigade	Shizuoka
Infantry Regiment 18th	Toyohashi
Infantry Regiment 34th	Shizuoka
Headquarters of 4th Cavalry Brigade	Toyohashi
Cavalry Regiment 3rd	Nagoya
Cavalry Regiment 25th and 26th	Toyohashi
Headquarters of 1st Heavy Field Artillery Brigade	Mishima
Heavy Field Artillery Regiments 2nd and 3rd.	Mishima
Field Artillery Regiment 3rd	Nagoya
Anti-aircraft Artillery Regiment 1st	Hamamatsu
Engineer Battalion 3rd	Toyohashi
Air Force Regiments 1st and 2nd	Gifu
Air Force Regiment 7th	Hamamatsu
Commissariat Battalion 3rd	Nagoya

4th Division

Divisional headquarters	Osaka
Headquarters of 7th Infantry Brigade	Osaka
Infantry Regiment 8th	Osaka
Infantry Regiment 70th	Sasayama
Headquarters of 32nd Infantry Brigade	Wakayama
Infantry Regiment 37th	Osaka
Infantry Regiment 61st	Wakayama
Cavalry Regiment	Osaka
Field Artillery Regiment 4th	Shitayama
Miyama Heavy Artillery Regiment Engineers	Miyama
Battalion 4th	Takatsuki
Commissariat Battalion 4th	Osaka

5th Division

Divisional headquarters	Hiroshima
Headquarters of 9th Infantry Brigade	Hiroshima
Infantry Regiment 11th	Hiroshima
Infantry Regiment 41st	Fukuyama
Headquarters of 21st Infantry Brigade	Yamaguchi
Infantry Regiment 21st	Hamada
Infantry Regiment 42nd	Yamaguchi
Cavalry Regiment 5th	Hiroshima
Field Artillery Regiment 5th	Hiroshima
Engineer Battalion 5th	Hiroshima
Telegraph Regiment 2nd	Hiroshima
Commissariat Battalion 5th	Hiroshima

6th Division

Divisional headquarters	Kumamoto
Headquarters of 11th Infantry Brigade	Kumamoto
Infantry Regiment 13th	Kumamoto
Infantry Regiment 47th	Oita
Headquarters of Infantry Brigade 36th	Kagoshima
Infantry Regiment 23th	Miyakonojo
Infantyy Regiment 45th	Kogoshima
Cavalry Regiment 6th	Kumamoto
Field Artillery Regiment 6th	Kumamoto
Engineer Battalion 6th	Kumamoto
Commissariat Battalion 6th	Kumamoto

7th Division

Divisional headquarters	Asahigawa
Headquarters of 13th Infantry Brigade	Asahigawa
Infantry Regiment 25th	Sapporo
Infantry Regiment 26th	Asahigawa
Headquarters of 14th Infantry Brigade	Asahigawa
Infantry Regiment 27th and 28th	Asahigawa
Cavalry Regiment 7th	Asahigawa
Field Artillery Regiment 7th	Asahigawa
Hakodaté Heavy Artillery Battalion	Hakodaté
Engineer Battalion 7th	Arahigawa
Commissariat Battalion 7th	Asahigawa

8th Division

Divisional headquarters	Hirosaki

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Headquarters of 4th Infantry Brigade	Hirosaki
Infantry Regiment 5th	Aomori
Infanty Regiment 31st	Hirosaki
Headquarters of 16th Infantry Brigade	Akita
Infantry Regiment 17th	Akita
Infantry Regiment 32nd	Yamagata
Headquarters of 3rd Cavalry Brigade	Morioka
Cavalry Regiment 8th	Hirosaki
Cavalry Regiment 23rd and 14th	Morioka
Field Artillery Regiment 8th	Hirosaki
Engineer Battalion 8th	Morioka
Commissariat Battlion	Hirosaki

9th Division

Divisional headquarters	Kanazawa
Headquarters of 6th Infantry Brigade	Kanazawa
Infantry Regiment 7th	Kanazawa
Infantry Regiment 35th	Toyama
Headquarters of 18th Infantry Brigade	Tsuruga
Infantry Regiment 19th	Tsuruga
Infantry Regiment 36th	Sabayé
Cavalry Regiment 9th	Kanazawa
Mountain Artillery Regiment 9th	Kanazawa
Engineer Battalion 9th	Kanazawa
Commissariat Battlion 9th	Kanazawa

10th Division

Divisional headquarters	Himeji
Headquarters of 8th Infantry Brigade	Himeji
Infantry Regiment 39th	Himeji
Infantry Regiment 40th	Tottori
Headquarters of Infantry Brigade 33rd	Okayama
Infantry Regiment 10th	Okayama
Infantry Regiment 63rd	Matsuyé
Cavalry Regiment 10th	Himeji
Field Artillery Regiment 10th	Himeji
Engineer Battalion 10th	Okayama
Commissariat Battalion 10th	Himeji

11th Division

Divisional headquarters	Zentsuji
Headquarters of 10th Infantry Brigade	Zentsuji
Infantry Regiments 12th	Zentsuji
Infantry Regiment 22nd	Matsuyama
Headquarters of 22nd Infantry Brigade	Tokushima
Infantry Regiment 43rd	Tokushima
Infantry Regiment 44th	Kochi
Cavalry Regiment 11th	Zentsuji
Mountain Artillery Regiment 11th	Zentsuji
Engineer Battalion 11th	Zentsuji
Commissariat Battalion 11th	Zentsuji

12th Division

Divisional headquarters	Kurumé
Headquarters of 12th Infantry Brigade	Fukuoka
Infantry Regiment 14th	Kokura
Infantry Regiment 24th	Fukuoka
Headquarters of 24th Infantry Brigade	Kurumé
Infantry Regiment 46th	Ohmura
Infantry Regiment 48th	Kurumé
The 3rd Battalion of this regiment is stationed at Saga	
Tank Corps 1	Kurumé
Cavalry Regiment 12th	Kurumé
Headquarters of 2nd Heavy Field Artillery Brigade	Kokura
Field Artillery Regiment 24th	Kurumé
Independent Mountain Artillery Regiment 3rd	Kurumé
Heavy Field Artillery Regiment 5th and 6th	Kokura
Shimonoseki Heavy Artillery Regiment	Shimonoseki
Sasebo Heavy Artillery Battalion	Sasebo
Kechi Heavy Artillery Battalion	Kechi
Engineer Battalion 18th	Kurumé
Flying Air Force Regiment 4th	Tachiarai
Commissariat Battalion 18th	Kurumé

14th Division

Divisional headquarters	Utsunomiya
Headquarters of 27th Infantry Brigade	Utsunomiya
Infantry Regiment 2nd	Mito
Infantry Regiment 59th	Utsunomiya
Headquarters of 28th Infantry Brigade	Takasaki
Infantry Regiment 15th	Takasaki
Infantry Regiment 50th	Matsumoto
Cavalry Regiment 18th	Utsunomiya
Field Artillery Regiment 20th	Utsunomiya
Engineer Battalion 14th	Mito
Commissariat Battalion 14th	Utsunomiya

16th Division

Divisional headquarters	Kyoto
Headquarters of 19th In-	

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fantry Brigade	Kyoto
Infantry Regiment 9th	Kyoto
The 3rd Battalion of this regiment is stationed at Ohtsu	
Infantry Regiment 20th	Fukuchiyama
Headquarters of 30th Infantry Brigade	Tsu
Infantry Regiment 33rd	Tsu
Infantry Regiment 38th	Nara
Cavalry Regiment 20th	Kyoto
Field Artillery Regiment 22nd	Kyoto
Maizuru Heavy Artillery Battalion	Maizuru
Engineer Battalion 16th	Kyoto
Air Force Regiment 3rd	Yokkaichi
Commissariat Battalion 16th	Kyoto

19th Division

Divisional headquarters	Ranan
Headquarters or 37th Infantry Brigade	Kanko
Infantry Regiment 73rd	Ranan
Infantry Regiment 74th	Kanko
Headquarters of 30th Infantry Brigade	Ranan
Infantry Regiment 75th	Kainei
Infantry Regiment 76th	Ranan
Cavalry Regiment 27th	Ranan
Field Artillery Regiment 25th	Ranan
Engineer Battalion 19th	Kainei

20th Division

Divisional headquarters	Ryuzan
Headquarters of 39th Infantry Brigade	Heijo
Infantry Regiment 77th	Heijo
Infantry Regiment 78th	Ryuzan
Headquarters of 40th Infantry Brigade	Ryuzan
Infantry Regiment 79th	Ryuzan
Infantry Regiment 80th	Taiko
The 3rd Battalion of the regiment is stationed at Taiden.	
Cavalry Regiment 28th	Ryuzan
Field Artillery Regiment 26th	Ryuzan
Anti-aircraft Corps of above regiment	Heijo
Heavy Artillery Battalion of Masan	Masan
Engineer Battalion 20th	Ryuzan
Air Force Regiment 6th	Heijo

The Headquarters of special units are distributed as follows :

Tokyo Garrison Headquarters	Tokyo
Headqaurters of Chosen Army	Keijo
Headquarters of Taiwan Army	Taihoku
Headquarters of Taiwan Garrison	Taihoku
1st Taiwan Infantry Regiment 1	Taihoku
2nd Taiwan Infantry Regiment 2	Taihoku
Taiwan Mountain Artillery Battalion	Taihoku
Kiirun Heavy Artillery Battalion	Kiirun
Mako Heavy Artillery Battalion	Mako
Heito 8th Flight Regiment	Heito
Headquarters of Kwantung Army	Ryojun
Headquarters of Independent Garrison	Koshurei
1st Infantry Battalion Independent Garrison	Koshurei
2nd Infantry Battalion Independent Garrison	Mukden
3rd Infantry Battalion Independent Garrison	Tashihchiao
4th Infantry Battalion Independent Garrison	Lienshan-kwan
5th Infantry Battalion Independent Garrison	Ssupinkai
6th Infantry Battalion Independent Garrison	Antung
Ryojun Heavy Artillery Battalion	Ryojun
Headquarters of Japanese Force in China	Tientsin
Japanese Infantry Garrison in Tientsin	Tientsin
Japanese Infantry Garrison in Peiping	Peiping

Fortresses

The Army has 17 fortresses at places of strategic importance in different parts of Japan proper and its dependencies. At each of these fortresses, a heavy artillery regiment or battalion is stationed, and in some cases an air force detachment. Their sites and divisional attachments are as follows :

	Site	Division
(1)	Yokosuka	1st
(2)	Chichijima (Bonin Is.)	"
(3)	Yura	4th
(4)	Amamioshima	6th
(5)	Hoyo	"
(6)	Tsugaru	7th
(7)	Shimonoseki	12th
(8)	Tsushima	"
(9)	Sasebo	"
(10)	Nagasaki	"

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(11)	Iki	12th
(12)	Maizuru	16th
(13)	Chinkaiwan	Chosen Army
(14)	Eikowan	Chosen Army
(15)	Kiirun	Taiwan Army
(16)	Bokoto	,,
(17)	Ryojun (Port Arthur)	Kwantung Army

Promotion and Age Limit

Army officers in service are promoted to higher ranks by selection in accordance with the following rules in time of peace, the time limit being reduced by one-half in war time :

One year from Sub-Lieutenant to Lieutenant, 2 years from Lieutenant to Captain, 4 years to Major, 2 years to Lieutenant-Colonel, 2 years to Colonel, 2 years to Major-General, 3 years to Lieutenant-General. Promotion to full General and then to Marshal is subject only to the Emperor's will.

The age limit for officers on the active list varies according to rank as follows :

General	65
Lieutenant-General	62
Major-General	58
Colonel	55
Lieutenant-Colonel	53
Major	50
Captain	48
Lieutenant and Sub-Lieutenant	45

There is no age limit for Marshals.

Army Education

Schools providing instruction in military affairs are of three categories as follows :

(1) Those under the authority of the Department of Military Education, of which a full list is given below :

Name	Place
Artillery and Engineering School	Tokyo
Infantry School	Chiba prefecture
Cavalry School	,, ,,
Field Artillery School	,, ,,
Heavy Field Artillery School	Kanagawa prefecture
Engineers' School	Chiba ,,
Signallers' School	Tokyo ,,
Mechanical Transport School	,, ,,
Narashino Military School	Chiba prefecture
Toyama School	Tokyo city
Military Academy	,, ,,
Military Preparatory School	,, ,,
5 Non-Commissioned Officers' Schools	Tokyo, Sendai, Toyohashi, Kumamoto

Toyama School teaches fencing, gymnastics and military music to both officers and men.

(2) The Staff College (Tokyo City) under the direct control of the General Staff.

(3) Those under the control of various bureaux of the Ministry of War, of which a full list is given below :

Name	Place
Tokorozawa Flying School	Saitama prefecture
Akéno Flying School	Miyé prefecture
Hamamatsu Flying School	Shizuoka prefecture
Shimoshizu Flying School	Chiba prefecture
Engineering School	Tokyo City
Intendance School	Tokyo City
Army Medical School	Tokyo City
Army Veterinary School	Tokyo City
Gendarmerie Training School	Tokyo City

The Flying School at Tokorozawa is to give necessary training to military fliers as to how to handle and repair a plane and its engine, and meteorogical observation, besides a knowledge of the materials of which planes and engines are constructed. This school is opened to civilian students. The Flying School at Shimoshizu is to teach aerial photography, aerial communications and

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reconnoitering. The Akéno Flying School gives courses to army pilots on the aerial tactics, air navigation, handling of machine-guns on a plane and also on the construction of aerial weapons.

To raise the level of educational capacity and general efficiency among officers, certain special courses and facilities are arranged. Graduates from universities in science or engineering are now entitled to the position of engineer of artillery lieutenants after six months' cadetship, while those from the medical and agricultural colleges are qualified to become surgeon and veterinary lieutenants respectively after three months' cadetship. Non-commissioned officers of ability may be promoted to the rank of lieutenant in virtue of a system adopted in 1930, after a short period of special training. Posts still higher, even to the supreme Marshalship, are open to non-commissioned officers of exceptional ability.

The Navy

Outline History As a result of the policy of seclusion strictly followed by the Shogunate Government of the Tokugawas, Japan was without anything worthy of the name of a navy, when Commodore Perry's fleet entered Uraga Bay in the 6th year of Kaéi (1853) with a view to inducing the Shogun's Government to open Japanese ports to the world. By the 4th year of Anséi (1857), however, Japan was in possession of a few warships given her by Holland and England. They formed the first squadron of the Western type that the nation ever had. By the efforts of the Meiji Government, this squadron developed into an efficient fleet of 28 fighting craft and 24 torpedo-boats, with a total tonnage of over 50,000 tons by 1894, when Japan declared war on China. After the Sino-Japanese War, Japan's navy grew very rapidly and in 1902, just before the outbreak of Russo-Japanese War, was in possession of 78 ships with a total tonnage of 256,816 tons.

The Naval Policy Japan's naval policy was, and is, to maintain a fleet powerful enough to defend the country against any naval force which could be dispatched to the western Pacific by any naval Power of the world. This policy was embodied first in the expansion plan adopted in 1907, including the construction of 8 battleships, 8 battle-cruisers, 21 light cruisers, 64 destroyers, and 32 submarines. As a preliminary to carrying out the plan, it was decided to build 8 battleships, 4 battle-cruisers, 11 light cruisers and a number of destroyers and submarines at a total expenditure of ¥254,000,000. In 1916, the Diet passed the programme to be carried out in the seven years ending 1923. In 1917, the programme was enlarged by a project covering the construction of 2 more battle-cruisers and a number of auxiliary ships in the six years ending 1923. In 1919, this programme was enlarged by a new project covering the construction of 8 capital ships and 85 auxiliary ships at a total expenditure of ¥750,000,000 to be appropriated in the eight years ending 1927. Thus, in 1921, Japan's naval expenditure amounted to about ¥500,000,000 or about one-third of the total amount of the budget.

The 1919 Programme The number and kind of ships to be constructed by the 1919 plan were 8 battleships armed with 16-inch guns (Nagato, Mutsu, Tosa, Kaga, etc.) and 8 battle-cruisers (Amagi, Akagi, etc., etc.) 26 light cruisers, 94 destroyers, and 93 submarines. As a result of the Washington Conference, the construction of these ships was abandoned, the Mutsu and the Nagato being retained on the list, while the Akagi and the Amagi were retained for conversion into plane carriers. (The great earthquake of 1923 made the Amagi unfit for service, and she was replaced by the Kaga).

After the Conference every effort was made to build up a powerful fleet of auxiliary ships to compensate for the deficiency in capital ships, of which Japan was allowed only 9 as against the 15 each of America and Britain. This effort resulted in the establishment of a well balanced fleet of auxiliary ships. The Naval Treaty signed in London in 1930, however, again gave Japan a low ratio in the number and tonnage of eight-inch gun cruisers, and allowed her only 52,700 tons of submarines, in spite of her demand for a minimum of 78,000 tons. This made it necessary further to reinforce the auxiliary fleet.

The 1931 Plan In 1931, the First Naval Replenishment Plan was referred to the Diet which passed it almost unanimously. The plan covers the construction of 4 light cruisers of 8,500 tons each, 12 first class destroyers of 1,400

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tons each, 9 first class submarines, 1 large mine-layer, 3 smaller mine-layers, 4 torpedo-boats, and 6 mine-sweepers, at a total expenditure of ¥247,080,000 to be appropriated in the 6 years.

The 1932 Plan The replenishment plan is accompanied by two other plans, the first of which covers the establishment of 12 naval flying corps on land and an aeronautic arsenal, the improvement and reinforcement of other ships, and the improvement of planes carried on plane-carriers and arms to be mounted on naval planes. The total expenditure for this, amounting to ¥81,970,000, is to be voted by 1936. On its completion, the plan is to be followed by another expansion plan covering the establishment of 2 more flying corps on land at a total expenditure of ¥50,000,000. The second plan supplementary to the 1931 Replenishment Plan covers a total expenditure of ¥44,950,000 to be appropriated for the modernization of capital and auxiliary ships, plane-carriers, submarines, and the replacement of guns, etc. When these replenishment programmes are completed, Japan will have 12 Treaty cruisers, 23 light cruisers, 4 plane-carriers, 4 submarine tenders, 6 mine-layers, 8 coast defence ships, 13 gunboats, 79 first class destroyers, 34 second class destroyers, 33 first class submarines, 38 second class submarines, 4 torpedo-boats, 14 mine-sweepers, 3 training-ships, 1 target ship, 2 surveying ships, 17 transports, and 1 ice-breaker.

The naval authorities referred a second naval replenishment plan to the Ministry of Finance for study on October 31, 1932. The plan calls for a total expenditure of ¥460,000,000 covering the construction of one plane-carrier of 8,000 tons, two 8,500 ton cruisers with 6-inch guns, 14 first class destroyers of 1,400 tons each, six submarines, one mine-layer of 5,000 tons type, a number of torpedo-boats and mine-sweepers, and the establishment of 8 flying corps on land, all for completion in the 4 years ending 1936.

Improvement In 1935 the Second Air Force Squadron was added to the Second Fleet which was composed of the Akagi, aircraft carrier, and 9th destroyer flotilla.

Naval defence on Chinese seas was formerly divided into three sections, i.e. north China defended by boats under the Ryojun Minor Naval Station, central China defended by the Third Fleet and south China by boats under the Bako Minor Naval Station. These three were united into one in 1935 and is now defended by the Third Fleet which was composed of the 10th and 11th Squadrons and the 5th Destroyer Squadron.

In addition to the naval barrack which had been instituted in 1933 defence corps were organized in 1935 to reinforce the coastal defence (see "The Three Districts", this Chapter).

An air force enlargement plan has been carried out according to the first and second programmes. Kuré and Saéki air corps were completed, and the four corps at Kisarazu, Maizuru, Tomioka (Yokohama) and Shikaya (Kagoshima prefecture) are to be completed by the end of 1936.

In educational line improvements were made by prolonging school years in Naval College, Naval Engineering College and Naval Paymasters' College from 3 years 8 months to 4 years, and a greater number of freshmen were taken into these colleges.

Naval Expenditure

The naval expenditure from 1893-94 down to 1937-38 have been as follows (As to the minutes of the 1937-38 budget, see Chapter VIII, Public Finance, Budget for 1937-38.)

Year	Running Expenses	Extraordinary Expenses (In Yen)	Total
1893-94 (Just before Sino-Japanese War)	5,141,000	2,960,000	8,101,000
1896-97 (Just after Sino-Japanese War)	7,351,000	12,655,000	20,006,000
1903-04 (Just before Russo-Japanese War)	21,530,000	14,588,000	36,118,000
1906-07 (Just after Russo-Japanese War)	27,991,000	33,885,000	61,876,000
1912-13	41,534,000	53,952,000	95,486,000
1917-18	48,528,000	113,906,000	162,434,000
1925-26	122,242,000	106,761,000	229,003,000
1926-27	127,428,000	109,879,000	237,307,000
1927-28	136,545,000	136,992,000	273,537,000
1928-29	143,026,000	125,106,000	268,132,000

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Year	Running Expenses	Extraordinary Expenses (In Yen)	Total
1929-30	147,648,000	120,016,000	267,664,000
1930-31	146,888,000	95,147,000	242,035,000
1931-32	138,914,000	88,215,000	227,129,000
1932-33	140,740,000	172,069,000	312,809,000
1933-34	179,027,000	230,948,000	409,975,000
1934-35 (budget)	199,909,000	289,237,000	489,147,000
1935-36 („)	215,917,000	313,765,900	529,683,000
1936-37 („)	236,750,000	313,640,000	550,390,000
1937-38 („)	273,953,380	407,700,236	681,653,616
1938-39 („)	293,382,149	383,976,291	677,358,440

Note: For details of 1938-39 and 1939-40 budgets see Chapter VIII, Public Finance, where the Navy expenditure in relation to the Sino-Japanese hostilities is given also.

Administrative Organization

Warships and other vessels organized into fleets and squadrons actually represent what is called the Japanese Navy, and all the organs under the jurisdiction of the Ministry of Marine are intended for the construction, maintenance, control and successful utilization of these vessels. Each naval station and fleet is placed in the charge of a Commander-in-chief, who is responsible for the discipline and education of his men.

The Minister The Minister of Marine is in charge of the administration of the Navy, while the Chief of the Naval Staff is directly responsible to the Emperor for operation, mobilization and intelligence. The administrative departments under the supervision of the Minister of Marine are the following:

(1) Ministerial Secretariat
(2) Bureau of Military Affairs
(3) Personnel Bureau
(4) Education Bureau
(5) Bureau of Stores
(6) Medical Bureau
(7) Bureau of Accounts and Supplies
(8) Bureau of Civil Engineering
(9) Bureau of Judicial Affairs
(10) Library
(11) Telegraphy Division

The schools under the supervision of the Minister are:

(1) Naval War College (Tokyo). This school is intended for the training of advanced students selected from among naval officers.

(2) Naval College (Etajima). This school is intended for the education of intending naval officers. Warrant officers are also educated here before they are promoted to the rank of special service officer.

(3) Naval Engineering College (Maizuru). This school is intended for the education of intending engineering officers. Warrant engineering officers are received under the same conditions as at the Naval College.

(4) Naval Medical College. This school is to train surgeons and pharmacists and to conduct research in the field of surgery, medicine and naval sanitation. Warrant Ward masters are educated here before they are qualified for the rank of Wardmaster Lieutenant.

(5) Naval Paymasters' College. This school is intended for the education of intending naval paymasters. Warrant Writers are educated here before they are qualified for the rank of Accountant Lieutenants.

Under the Commander-in-Chief The following schools are under the direct supervision of the Commanders-in-Chief of the Naval Stations.

(1) Naval Gunnery School (Yokosuka). Officers, special service officers, warrant officers and seamen of special-ratings are admitted.

(2) Torpedo School (Yokosuka). Officers, warrant officers and seamen specially selected are admitted.

(3) Naval Communication School (Yokosuka). Officers, warrant officers and seamen specially selected are admitted.

(4) Navigation School (Yokosuka). Officers, warrant officers and seamen specially selected are admitted.

(5) Submarine School (Kuré). Officers, warrant officers and seamen specially selected are trained here for submarine warfare. Researches on submarine construction and operation are also conducted.

(6) Naval Machinists' School (Yokosuka). This school is for the training of warrant officers and seamen aspiring to the rank of engineering officer, or special service engineering officer, or shipwright.

Active Service Organization

The Three Districts The coasts of

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Japan and the seas surrounding the country are divided into three Naval Districts, and these districts are placed in the charge of naval stations as follows :

1st Naval District, consisting of the coasts of Aomori, Iwaté, Miyagi, Fukushima, Ibaraki, Chiba Tokyo, Kanagawa, Shizuoka, Aichi, Miyé, Hokkaido and Karafuto, and the adjacent seas, is in the charge of the Yokosuka Naval Station.

2nd Naval District, consisting of the coasts of Wakayama, Osaka, Hyogo, Okayama, Hiroshima, Yamaguchi, Shimané, Tottori, Kyoto, Fukui, Ishikawa, Toyama, Niigata, Yamagata, Akita, Tokushima, Kochi, Ehimé, Kagawa, Oita, Miyazaki, and the eastern part of Fukuoka prefecture, and the adjacent seas, is in the charge of the Kuré Naval Station.

3rd Naval District, consisting of the coasts of the remainder of Fukuoka prefecture, Saga, Nagasaki, Kumamoto, Kagoshima, Okinawa, Taiwan and Chosen and the adjacent seas, is in the charge of the Sasébo Naval Station.

The coasts and adjacent seas of the South Sea Islands, now under mandate to Japan, are in the charge of the Yokosuka Naval Station. There are also minor naval Stations at Maizuru in Kyoto prefecture, Ohminato in Aomori prefecture, Chinkai in Chosen, Bako in the Boko Islands (Pescadores) and Ryojun (Port Arthur) in Kwantosyu (Kwantung).

The naval districts have each a naval barrack, which is responsible for the defence of the naval port where it is posted, besides being required to protect the neighbouring district from attack. In addition to the naval barrack, each naval station or minor naval station has a defence corps, which is responsible for the defence of the neighbouring seas. Where there is no naval barrack, the defence corps is required to take care of the port where it is stationed and to protect the neighbouring district from attack. The naval ports and minor naval ports have respectively one or more air force detachments, which are required to protect the port and neighbouring district from naval and aerial raids.

Naval Office in Manchoukuo

Japan's recognition of Manchoukuo and provisions of the Japan-Manchoukuo Protocol necessitated military and naval actions in that country on the part of Japan and to meet the emergency the Naval Department of Japan issued a law in March, 1933, for the establishment of the Naval Department in Manchoukuo to be located in Hsinking.

The Office takes charge of the watch and protection of the rivers and the coast lines of Manchoukuo. The commander is directly under the Emperor, and as to the administration he acts in accordance with the order of the Minister of the Navy of Japan. At present a provisional Naval Defence Brigade is quartered at Harbin and is guarding the banks of the Sungari.

Ryojun (Port Arthur) Naval Station The Imperial Naval Station at Port Arthur was abolished in November, 1922, according to the Naval disarmament programme. But the newly created situation in Manchuria made it a matter of necessity to revive it and it was re-established in April, 1933. The station is under a special regulation independent of the Naval stations in home land. It has specific duties in the Kwantung Leased Territory and is engaged in the protection of the coasts of Kwantung Province, Manchoukuo and the North China above the Yangtze.

The Standing Fleets

The standing fleets as reorganized on November 3, 1936, are as follows:

Combined Fleet

The Combined Fleet is organized with the 1st, 2nd fleets and the 12th Squadron, Mamiya and Naruto appended.

1st Fleet

1st Squadron—Nagato, Mutsu, Hyuga.
3rd Squadron—Haruna, Kirishima.
8th Squadron—Kinu, Natori, Yura.
1st Destroyer Squadron—Kawachi, 9th and 21st destroyer flotillas.
1st Submarine Squadron—Isuzu, 7th and 8th submarine flotillas.
1st Air Force Squadron—Hosho, Ryujo, and 30th destroyer flotilla.

2nd Fleet

4th Squadron—Takao, Maya.
5th Squadron—Nachi, Haguro, Ashikaga.
2nd Destroyer Squadron—Jintsu, 7th, 8th and 19th destroyer flotillas.
2nd Submarine Squadron—Jingéi, 12th, 29th and 30th submarine flotillas.
2nd Air Force Squadron—Kaga, 22nd destroyer flotilla.
12th Squadron—Okishima, Kamoi, 28th destroyer flotilla.

3rd Fleet

10th Squadron—Izumo, Tenryu, Tatsuta.
11th Squadron—Ataka, Toba, Séta, Katada, Hira, Hotzu, Atami, Futami, Kuri, Tsuga and Hasu.

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5th Destroyer Squadron—Yubari, 13th and 16th destroyer flotillas.
Saga is appended.

Training Squadron

Yakumo and Iwaté.

The Naval Air Force

The Naval Air Force consists of :
(1) 7½ aeroplane corps at Kasumigaura, 5 aeroplane corps at Yokosuka, 5½ aeroplane corps at Tatéyama, 1½ aeroplane corps at Sasébo, 2½ corps at Omura, 1½ corps at Kuré, 1½ Corpse at Sahéki and 1½ Corps at Ominato, the number of planes belonging to these air corps are unavailable ; and (2) the aircraft-carriers proper, Kaga, Akagi, Hosho, Notoro, Ryujo, Kamoi and several other ships, the number of planes carried are unavailable. Flying officers and men number over 10,000.

The Personnel

Classified according to ranks, naval officers on the active list were as follows at the end of 1934 :

Admirals to Rear-Admirals and non-executive officers	148
Captains to Lieut.-Commanders and non-executive officers	2,395
Lieutenants to 2nd Sub-Lieutenants, non-executive officers, midshipmen and special service officers	3,958
Warrant officers	1,953
Cadets at school	348
Total	8,802

Equipment Each naval station is equipped with a shipbuilding yard, and one or more dry docks for accomodating warships. The Yokosuka and Kuré arsenals are capable of taking in superdreadnoughts of over 40,000 tons, but those of Sasébo and Maizuru are only fit for building cruisers and smaller ships. There are a number of up-to-date private establishments, such as the Mitsubishi shipyard at Nagasaki, Kawasaki shipyard at Kobé, Fujinagata shipyard at Osaka, and Ishikawajima shipyard at Tokyo. Of these the Mitsubishi and Kawasaki shipyards are capable of building superdreadnoughts.

Warship Building

The first warship built in Japan was the Séiki (870 tons) launched at Yokosuka in 1875. She played an important part in the civil war of 1877. The Hashidaté (4,228 tons), launched just before the Sino-Japanese War of 1894-5, remained the largest warship built at home until 1903. Soon after the Russo-Japanese War, Japan succeeded in building the battle-cruisers Tsukuba (13,800 tons), Ikoma, and Kurama (14,600 tons each), the battleships Satsuma (19,300 tons), Aki (19,250 tons), Kawachi and Settsu (20,800 tons each). The two last named were the first dreadnoughts planned and constructed at home and marked a new stage in the progress of naval architecture in Japan.

The Tsukuba and Kawachi sank 18 and 17 years ago respectively as a result of an explosion of their magazines, the former at Yokosuka and the latter at Tokuyama, while the Satsuma and Aki were removed from the list and sunk in target practice. The Settsu has been converted into a target ship of 16,130 tons and is still in service.

Independent of Foreign Material Up to recent years, Japan was dependent on foreign countries as regards war material, but is now almost independent in this connection. She has ample supplies of coal, iron, copper and zinc as long as she controls the mines in Manchuria. At present 95 per cent of warship building materials is of home production and in case of international competitive building of warships Japan will lose little out of the competition in international payments. The supply of crude oil as still insufficient, but the rapid progress in the oil-shale industry of Manchuria, and the remarkable development of the oil industry in North Saghalien, Formosa, etc., show that the empire will shortly be self-sufficing in this respect also. The Imperial Iron Works at Yawata (Kyushu) has an annual output of about 200,000 tons armour plates, rails, etc., while the Muroran Steel Works of Hokkaido is turning out an ample quantity of steel for use by the Army and Navy. In the chemical industry also, Japan is now almost independent and prepared for any form of chemical warfare.

List of Ships

The Navy consisted on September 30, 1936 of the following ships, classified by types with the total tonnage in each :

Type	No.	Tonnage
Battleships	9	272,070
Training Battleship	1	19,500
1st Class Cruisers	12	107,800
2nd Class Cruisers	25	107,255
Aircraft Carriers	6	68,370
Seaplane Carriers	3	31,050
Submarine Tenders	5	31,015
Mine Layers	6	19,630

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Type	No.	Tonnage
Coast Defence Vessels	7	55,450
Gun Boats	11	5,045
1st Class Destroyers	80	95,479
2nd Class Destroyers	30	23,390
1st Class Submarines	37	49,157
2nd Class Submarines	25	20,927
Torpedo Boats	12	2,108
Mine Sweepers	12	6,642
Special Service Ships	21	219,935
Total	302	1,134,823

(Tonnage of ships under construction is not included. The full individual list of warships at the same date is given in the Japan Year Book, 1937.)

The Planes

The battle planes in use in the Naval Air Force are of type 3 and type 90. The bombers and torpedo planes in use are of type 13, type 89 and type 92. Some of these machines played an important part in the Sino-Japanese conflict in Shanghai, but some of them are not suitable for an aerial war in the future.

The reconnoitering planes in use are of type 14. They are equipped with a 450 h.p. motor and can cover nearly 200 kilometres an hour. They are armed with a machine-gun mounted behind the seat of the reconnoitering officer, so that he can defend the machine against enemy fire from behind. Their speed is considered too slow for satisfactory service in the future. There are also in use type 15 and type 90.

There are also a few large patrol planes of type 90. No. 1 of these is of metallic material, 21 metres long, 30 metres wide, 12 tons in weight, and is equipped with a number of motors producing 2,100 h.p. in all. Its maximum speed is 220 kilometres an hour. The No. 2 of type 90 is 20 metres long, 30 metres wide, 13 tons in weight, and equipped with motors producing 2,400 h.p. in all. Both of them are superior in capacity to the PN-12 of the American Navy, which has a speed of less than 200 kilometres.

Naval Promotion

Officers are promoted by selection, and candidates for special promotion are selected at the conference of the Admirals' Council.

The regular course of promotion for them is: Midshipmen, over one year's service on a training ship; 2nd Sub-Lieutenants, over one year's service; 1st Sub-Lieutenants, over 18 months' service including 6 months' service in Torpedo or Gunnery School. Lieutenants of over 4 years' service are promoted to Lieutenant-Commander.

Special service 1st Sub-Lieutenants, over two years' service; Special service 2nd Sub-Lieutenants, over three years' service. Special service Lieutenants (combatants, engineers and paymasters) may be promoted to Lieutenant-Commander by special appointment.

The qualifications for subsequent promotion are as follows:

Promotion	Minimum Service in Lower Rank
Commanders—Lieutenant-Commanders	2 years
Captains—Commanders	2 ,,
Rear-Admirals—Captains	2 ,,
Vice-Admirals—Rear-Admirals	2 ,,
Admirals—Vice-Admirals	Period determined by Imperial order subject to special merit

N. B. 1st class warrant or ranking officer of over 6 years in the service may be promoted to 1st Lieutenant or ranking officer.

Revision of the Military Service Law

The Law Amending the Military Service Law was promulgated on March 8, 1939. The items of revision include: amendments to the regulations on the term of military service; conscription of ex-service men; postponement of conscription for students and the manner of this conscription; abrogation of the short-term service system; and recognition of the privilege of postponement of conscription for Japanese students in Manchoukuo Government schools.

Revision of the Term of Service Both the development of the China Affair and the rapid change in the trend of international politics require that the Imperial forces be strengthened quickly through increases in the number of men in the services. To maintain sufficient forces, the term of service needs to be lengthened and the number of new conscripts must be increased.

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Accordingly, under the new Law the term of the supplementary reserve service for the Army has been lengthened from 12 years and four months to 17 years and four months, while that of the first reserve service for the Navy has been prolonged from four years to five years and that of the second reserve service from five years to seven years.

Change in Method of Conscription of Young Men To meet the demand for a stronger national defence, a sizable increase in the number of conscripts is inevitable. The physical standard of soldiers must be upheld, if not raised, since the technical progress of and growing complications in modern armies require a high degree of strength and endurance in the individual soldier. Unfortunately, the physical condition of young men in Japan has tended to deteriorate in recent years, making it difficult to obtain the increased number of conscripts without adopting revisions in the old method of conscription. Therefore, necessary changes have been made in the method of selecting the young men at the physical examination for military service.

According to the old provisions pertaining to the physical standards of young men to be taken as conscripts, the minimum height of those fit for service, i.e. men who may be classed medically in Classes I and II, was fixed at 1.5 metres, and the active service men and the first supplementary untrained reservists were to be chosen from among the men with heights of 1.6 metres or above. The final selection was made by a drawing participated in by those whose height was 1.6 metres or above and who were classed medically as fit for the said service. All those who were lower in height, no matter what their other physical qualifications were, were exempted from the drawing and were enlisted as second supplementary untrained reservists.

In case the required number of those eligible for first-reserve service was unobtainable from those who measured 1.6 metres or above, the standard height was to be lowered by one millimetre at a time until the quota was filled. It may be seen that according to this method of lowering the standard height for eligibles before the final drawing took place, it was possible for a certain number of those under the standard height to be selected instead of those who measured 1.6 metres or above.

To prevent this, the new Law provides for a new method to be adopted wherein the supplementary eligibles are not allowed to draw lots with the originally eligible men measuring 1.6 metres or more.

Revised Method of Calling Ex-service Men for Training Ex-service men constitute the most valuable asset, as it were, for recruiting soldiers in time of war. Obviously, they must be called out for training regularly to be instructed in new kinds of drills in order to keep them competent as well-trained reservists. Only in this way will the Army and the Navy be able to mobilize first-class forces quickly in time of war. The following revisions have been made in the method of calling out ex-service men for periodical training.

1. According to old provisions, the duration of training for ex-service men was fixed at less than 35 days for the Army and less than 70 days for the Navy, while the latter could be increased up to 50 days when deemed necessary. The new regulation extends this lengthening privilege to the Army also in view of the necessity of drilling army ex-service men in the advanced and more complex technique of present-day military science.

2. Formerly, first supplementary untrained reservists only were called out for actual training. Now, second supplementary untrained reservists may also by called out for this purpose.

3. Formerly, when there was a shortage in forces even with the recalling of all those under leave of absence at the time of special need, such as the stationing of garrisons, only those ex-soldiers who were in the first year of their first-reserve service were summoned to cover the shortage. But the actual conditions on the Asiatic Continent are now such that a considerable number of soldiers must be stationed in different districts, and the number of ex-service men resident on the Continent is relatively small. It is considered that a time may come when the armies on the Continent supplemented only with recruits from the first-reserve service men in their first year of service will be altogether insufficient for garrisons or for other military purposes. To eliminate this danger, the new provisions empower the Army to call out when necessary all men in the first reserve list, regardless of the year of service they are in.

4. Conscripts may be found non-effective at the time of medical examination on their entrance to the barracks to which they are assigned, as a result of suffering disease or accident in the in-

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terval between enrolment and the actual call to service. According to the old provisions, these men were exempted from service altogether. The revised provisions prescribe that "They shall be called to active service at a later date or year, or may be exempted from it." The proper application of this provision is left to the judgment of competent authorities.

Abrogation of the Short-term Service System The short-term service system for teachers in elementary schools is peculiar to Japanese conscription. The reason for the survival of this system through all former revisions in the military service law may be found in the fact that the Government was anxious not to weaken the teaching force in elementary schools by the absence of teachers from their duties even for purposes of national defence. The short-term system allowed these teachers to remain only five months in active service and this period was devoted to making them acquire a knowledge of military affairs so that they could accomplish their duty as educators of the people both in scientific and military subjects. The system worked well as a result of the complete understanding between the military and educational authorities.

But times have changed and the five-month service is now all too short to provide teachers with a comprehensive knowledge of military affairs to the extent that they may give proper instructions on military subjects in their schools. Simultaneously, their influence on pupils and communities will be greatly increased with a knowledge of military affairs acquired by entering the full service with other members of the nation or by going to the front when so destined. Under such considerations, the short-term service system has been abrogated entirely, although investigations are being made by competent authorities not to cause any material harm to the education of the younger generation by this sudden change.

Hitherto, those entitled to the short-term service entered the service without drawing lots or passing the conscription medical examination. Now, they are handled in the same manner as all other young men as regards physical standards and methods of selection. The number of conscripts taken from among elementary school teachers may be comparatively small. It is undeniable that the number of those who are thus taken will not be so large as might be expected because of the change in the regulations for conscripts taken from other sources whereby these will be unproportionately increased in the near future, while a large number of men in the reserve service may be trained in peace-time. Once taken into the defence services, these teacher-soldiers and -sailors will not only be trained much more thoroughly in military affairs than in the past but also many of them will be chosen as cadets, with the result that they will gain the military point of view and when they are released from active service they will achieve greater distinction in the eyes of their pupils in elementary schools and may accordingly achieve brilliant success in their chosen field.

Revisions in Postponement of Student Conscription The strength of an army is subject to the amount of mental vigour and physical strength of its soldiers. Both of these qualities are, as a rule, the possessions of young men with life before them. Therefore, conscripts should be chosen before they advance over the fixed age of twenty. But the medical examination and enrolment of students who reach the age of twenty has been postponed for as many years as they pursue their studies in schools and consequently many are much older than other young men at the time of their examination and enrolment, whereas their earlier enrolment is desirable since most of them may become important constituents of the army as reserve or non-commissioned officers.

The revised system, therefore, places a certain limit to the term of postponement, shortening it by an extent that will not deter their studies in schools, yet that will amend the irrationality which formerly arose by the application of rules under which they were conscripted according to certain fixed ages, regardless of the month of their birth or the number of years they needed to complete their respective studies. A comparison of the new and old regulations concerning the maximum years of age up to which conscription is postponed follows:

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OLD SYSTEM

Students in:	Maximum Year of Age (at which they are subjected to examination)
Middle Schools Higher Schools, Middle-school Departments Business Schools (Middle-school Grade)	22
Normal Schools Higher Schools, College Departments and Special Courses Universities, Preparatory Departments Colleges of Three or Four Years Higher Normal Schools (Post-graduate Course omitted) Temporary Institutes for Training Business Schools or Young People's Teachers' Schools	25
Colleges of Five Years or More Higher Normal Schools, Post-graduate Courses Universities	27

NEW SYSTEM

Students in:	Maximum Year of Age (up to which conscription may be postponed) Those who were born	
	Before or on April 1	On or after April 2
Middle Schools Higher Schools, Middle-school Department Business Schools (Middle-School Grade)	—	21
Normal Schools Higher Schools, College Departments Universities, Preparatory Departments Institutes for Training Young People's School Teachers Temporary Institutes for Training Teachers	22	23
Institutes for Training Business School Teachers Higher Schools, Special Courses Colleges of Three or Four Years Higher Normal Schools (Post-graduate Course Omitted)	23	24
Colleges of Five Years or More Higher Normal Schools, Post-graduate Courses Universities (Medical Department Omitted)	24	25
Universities, Medical Department	25	26

Furthermore, a new provision is added to the new system according to which all students in the above-mentioned schools may be conscripted in time of emergency even before the expiration of the term of postponement so that they may take part in the defence of their country.

These new rules will come into force from December 1, 1939. Those who are in schools on that day shall remain under the old rules so as not to interfere with their course of study.

Extension of Privilege of Postponement of Conscription to Japanese Students Abroad Japan is eager to assist Manchoukuo in her efforts to develop her national life and to give her all aid in such matters as educational enterprises which are most important in the mutual development of the two countries. Thus, the Japanese Government has extended the application of the system for the postponement of conscription for students to Japanese subjects studying in the government schools of Manchoukuo whose grades of study and school status are analogous to the above-mentioned schools in Japan.

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CHAPTER VIII

PUBLIC FINANCE

Finance of the Showa Era

For the first six years of Showa, 1926–32, two Séiyukai and two Minséito (incarnation of Kenséikai) Cabinets came into power in turn. The former stood for a traditional inflation policy, while the latter for deflation policy. Financial retrenchment was carried out by the Minséito Cabinet and the gold embargo was lifted by the Hamaguchi Cabinet (Minséito) on January 11, 1930. Mr. Junnosuké Inoué, Finance Minister of that Cabinet, adopted a no-loan policy. A noteworthy financial retrenchment was carried out by Mr. Inoué in the 1930–31 fiscal year's budget and, in spite of a strenuous protest of the army and navy against the retrenchment, he was successful in effecting a saving of ¥35,063,000, of which ¥26,733,000 was the result of reduction of administrative expenses and ¥8,330,000 by the postponement of different enterprises.

The Inukai Cabinet that succeeded the Wakatsuki Cabinet on December 16, 1931, decided to adopt the budget drafted by the preceding Cabinet, due to lack of time to formulate a new one. However, the new Cabinet determined not to abolish the Overseas Ministry and other administrative organizations, which were decided on by the Wakatsuki Cabinet, but decided to carry out administrative readjustment. The sinking fund system was temporarily suspended and the deficient income was to be met by loans.

Expansion of National Budget

The first expansion of Japanese finance had come with the World War when it had passed the ¥1,000,000,000 mark and the next one came with the Manchurian incident, and in 1932 it approached the ¥2,000,000,000 mark. The increase of the national ways and means has continued since and the budget for 1937–38 reaches ¥2,815,000,000, an increase of ¥510,000,000 or 18 per cent as compared with the previous year.

The exchange rate of the yen has greatly fluctuated in these years. But even when the lowered value of the yen is taken into consideration the real increase in the national finance cannot be denied, while the rate of its per capita increase far exceeds that of population.

The per capita national wealth, national revenue and national expenditure have all increased greatly since 1912, the index numbers on the base of that year taken as 100 being 290.2 for national wealth in 1930, 289.7 for national revenue in 1934 and 293.3 for national expenditure in 1936, or the rate of their increase is almost on a par with each other.

Among the resources of national revenue the rate of increase of loans is much more ahead of those of taxes and others. The outstanding national loans which amounted to ¥2,570,000,000 at the end of 1912 increased to ¥9,850,000,000 at the end of 1935, or the per capita debt increased from ¥50 for Japan proper and ¥37 for the Empire in 1912 to ¥145 for Japan proper and ¥102 for the Empire in 1935. The amount of national revenue from taxes increased, but its proportion to the total revenue decreased and the per capita amount of taxes also decreased as compared with 1926 as given in the following table.

As to the finance of local governments its increase is still more rapid than that of the central government, its index number in 1935 being 555.65 against 371.71 for the latter as compared with 1912.

Note: For the detailed historical accounts of public finances up to the Taisho Era see previous numbers of the Japan Year Book.

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YEARLY COMPARISON OF REVENUE AND EXPENDITURE, NATIONAL LOANS, NATIONAL WEALTH AND NATIONAL INCOME

(Amount in ¥1,000)

	Expenditure, General Account		Revenue, General Account			
					From Loans	
	Amount	Revalued according to the current value of the yen (Amount divided by the average index No. of prices)	Total Amount	From Taxes Amount	Proportion to the Total	Amount
1912	593,596	449,456	687,392	360,970	52.51	18,327
1913	573,634	433,520	721,975	369,480	51.18	10,895
1914	648,420	513,356	734,648	343,708	46.79	12,689
1915	583,270	456,536	708,616	312,745	44.13	1,705
1916	590,795	382,218	813,309	348,673	42.87	1,577
1917	735,024	377,904	1,084,958	430,604	39.69	16,984
1918	1,017,036	399,198	1,479,116	519,293	35.11	28,355
1919	1,172,328	375,770	1,808,633	672,386	37.18	19,090
1920	1,359,978	396,276	2,000,652	696,257	34.80	53,632
1921	1,489,856	561,955	2,065,711	785,852	38.04	53,033
1922	1,429,690	551,855	2,087,345	896,404	42.94	26,926
1923	1,521,050	577,292	2,045,298	787,203	38.49	35,041
1924	1,625,024	594,811	2,127,391	887,238	41.71	127,970
1925	1,524,989	571,499	2,071,369	894,809	43.20	46,590
1926	1,578,826	667,157	2,056,361	886,999	43.13	34,033
1927	1,765,723	785,988	2,062,755	898,673	43.57	61,094
1928	1,814,855	802,678	2,005,691	915,910	45.67	157,085
1929	1,736,317	789,845	1,826,445	893,505	48.92	99,863
1930	1,557,864	860,793	1,596,972	835,041	52.29	38,000
1931	1,476,875	955,025	1,531,082	735,504	48.04	120,272
1932	1,950,141	1,210,816	2,045,276	695,837	34.02	659,593
1933	2,254,662	1,256,219	2,331,760	748,567	32.10	753,038
1934	2,163,004	1,217,633	2,246,982	843,183	37.53	742,542
1935	2,206,478	1,189,733	2,259,321	899,899	40.99	678,371
1936	2,282,175	—	2,372,098	1,007,080	42.75	609,621

	From Others					
	Proportion to the Total	Amount	Proportion to the Total	Loans Outstanding at the end of the year	National Wealth (In ¥1,000,000)	National Income
1912	2.67	308,095	44.82	2,573,219	—	2,944
1913	1.79	339,600	47.04	2,584,123	32,043	3,030
1914	1.45	380,251	51.76	2,506,371	—	3,130
1915	0.24	394,166	55.62	2,489,234	—	3,030
1916	0.19	463,059	56.93	2,467,702	—	3,055
1917	1.59	637,370	58.75	2,698,741	45,696	3,527
1918	1.92	931,468	62.97	3,051,776	—	4,670
1919	1.06	1,117,157	61.77	3,277,873	86,079	6,384
1920	2.68	1,250,763	62.52	3,777,264	—	8,284
1921	2.57	1,226,826	59.39	4,077,116	—	10,855
1922	1.29	1,164,015	55.77	4,341,896	—	13,389
1923	1.71	1,223,054	59.80	4,729,956	—	13,252
1924	6.02	1,112,183	52.28	4,863,013	102,341	12,904
1925	2.25	1,129,970	54.55	4,999,176	—	13,382
1926	1.66	1,135,329	55.21	5,171,766	—	12,503
1927	2.96	1,102,988	53.47	5,397,867	—	11,637
1928	7.83	932,696	46.50	5,831,261	—	11,434
1929	5.47	833,077	45.61	5,959,457	—	11,510
1930	2.38	723,931	45.33	5,955,817	110,188	10,636
1931	7.86	675,306	44.11	6,187,657	—	8,716
1932	32.25	689,846	33.73	7,054,196	—	8,539
1933	32.29	830,155	35.60	8,139,038	—	9,719
1934	33.05	661,257	29.43	9,090,454	—	11,247
1935	30.03	654,867	28.99	9,854,301	—	—
1936	25.70	755,397	31.55	10,574,506	—	—

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YEARLY COMPARISON OF PER CAPITA NATIONAL EXPENDITURE, TAXES, LOANS, WEALTH AND INCOME

(In yen)

	Expenditure, General, Account	Taxes	Loans Outstanding The Empire	Japan Proper	National Wealth	National Income
1912	11.47	7.13	37.52	50.88	—	58
1913	10.95	7.20	36.82	50.37	600	59
1914	12.08	6.60	34.99	48.16	—	60
1915	10.71	5.92	34.15	47.19	—	57
1916	10.70	6.51	33.33	46.13	—	57
1917	13.12	7.95	35.93	49.85	815	65
1918	17.51	9.48	40.09	55.75	—	85
1919	20.84	12.21	42.81	59.56	1,530	116
1920	24.52	12.55	48.94	68.09	—	149
1921	26.56	14.01	52.20	72.69	—	194
1922	25.19	15.79	54.93	76.50	—	236
1923	26.47	13.70	59.09	82.30	—	231
1924	27.93	15.25	59.91	83.59	1,759	222
1925	25.88	15.19	60.81	84.85	—	227
1926	26.43	14.85	61.15	86.57	—	209
1927	29.08	14.80	63.22	88.89	—	192
1928	29.47	14.87	67.46	94.70	—	186
1929	27.79	14.30	68.05	95.38	—	184
1930	24.61	13.19	67.14	94.10	1,741	168
1931	22.99	11.45	67.57	96.34	—	136
1932	29.99	10.70	76.91	108.50	—	131
1933	34.14	11.34	87.27	123.25	—	147
1934	32.33	12.60	96.15	135.87	—	168
1935	32.60	13.68	102.74	145.58	—	—
1936	33.64	14.05	—	—	—	—

Note:—Figures for expenditure and taxes in 1912-1934 represent settled accounts, in 1935 current accounts and in 1936 budget.

YEARLY COMPARISON OF REVENUE AND EXPENDITURE OF LOCAL GOVERNMENTS

(In ¥1,000)

	Expenditure		Revenue		Expenditure		Revenue
	Amount	Revalued according to the current value of the yen			Amount	Revalued according to the current value of the yen	
1912	330,467	250,221	387,215	1924	1,306,100	478,075	1,613,590
1913	320,595	242,288	367,924	1925	1,409,196	528,105	1,712,791
1914	320,433	253,688	366,224	1926	1,593,997	673,567	1,912,002
1915	311,636	243,923	359,474	1927	1,969,307	876,611	2,247,828
1916	328,558	212,563	379,876	1928	1,893,809	837,598	2,156,918
1917	378,569	194,637	472,927	1929	1,714,647	779,988	1,956,528
1918	495,041	194,309	588,912	1930	1,752,737	968,470	1,993,262
1919	652,387	209,112	809,664	1931	1,625,969	1,062,447	1,826,211
1920	949,166	276,572	1,153,424	1932	1,898,928	1,179,019	2,097,910
1921	1,078,450	406,778	1,337,528	1933	1,534,905	1,412,361	2,761,632
1922	1,288,896	497,509	1,567,242	1934	1,792,632	1,009,137	1,793,126
1923	1,253,754	475,844	1,541,055	1935	1,836,237	990,099	1,837,117

Note:—Figures for 1912-1933 represent settled accounts, for 1934 and 1935 budget.

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STATE REVENUE AND EXPENDITURE FOR 1938—39 COMPARED WITH 1937—38

Sources of Revenue	1938-39 Budget	1937-38 Working Budget	Comparison Increase	Comparison Decrease
		(In yen)		
Ordinary:				
Taxes:	1,577,141,047	1,250,722,354	326,418,693	—
Income tax	648,679,929	429,524,381	219,155,548	—
Land tax	50,360,097	58,760,697	—	8,400,600
Business profits tax	90,477,681	73,475,167	17,002,514	—
Capital interest tax	33,129,297	29,176,704	3,952,593	—
Tax on the capital of corporations	23,600,193	15,454,980	8,145,213	—
Succession tax	36,015,151	33,475,676	2,539,475	—
Mining tax	8,238,716	5,859,028	2,379,688	—
Special tax on foreign currency securities	2,714,345	2,793,739	—	79,394
Tax on liquors	269,499,606	235,210,774	34,288,832	—
Table water tax	4,917,140	4,139,591	777,549	—
Sugar excise	136,645,171	98,743,607	37,901,564	—
Textiles consumption tax	35,192,211	43,040,849	—	7,848,638
Gasoline tax	16,156,800	14,913,855	1,242,945	—
Tax on bourses	39,256,306	19,279,858	19,976,448	—
Tax on the transfer of securities	3,424,227	4,624,717	—	1,200,490
Customs duties	175,825,497	179,300,612	—	3,475,115
Tonnage dues	3,008,680	2,948,119	60,561	—
Stamp receipts	100,056,184	86,748,493	13,312,691	—
Receipts from government undertakings and properties:	367,081,200	336,895,080	30,186,120	—
Forests	54,828,568	48,561,490	6,267,078	—
Profits of monopoly	254,050,017	235,104,624	18,945,393	—
Dividend receipts	29,410,048	28,958,902	451,146	—
Prisons receipts	21,145,376	19,069,241	2,076,135	—
Other receipts from Government undertakings and properties	7,647,191	5,200,823	2,446,368	—
Receipts from the Special Account for postal, telegraph and telephone services	81,500,000	81,000,000	500,000	—
Payments to the Government by the Bank of Japan	15,066,086	13,087,561	1,978,525	—
Miscellaneous receipts	56,162,034	57,142,057	—	980,023
Transfers from Special Account of funds for educational improvement and agricultural village development	6,755,227	7,495,307	—	740,080
Total	2,203,761,778	1,833,085,852	370,675,926	—
Extraordinary:				
Proceeds of sale of State property	6,779,805	6,620,789	159,016	—
Miscellaneous receipts	19,985,802	45,979,277	—	25,993,475
Receipts from the issue of public loans	1,008,062,080	827,395,329	180,666,751	—
Local payment to expenses incurred by the State for the benefit of certain prefectures	5,165,719	7,122,439	—	1,956,720
Local contributions to expenses incurred by the State for the benefit of certain prefectures	7,938,709	10,912,633	—	2,973,924
Payment from Insurance Companies	3,047,607	3,162,652	—	115,045
Transfers from Special Accounts	3,542,623	8,875,368	—	5,332,745
Receipts from the Special Profits Tax	117,090,508	58,522,658	58,567,850	—

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Sources of Revenue	1938-39 Budget	1937-38 Working Budget	Comparison Increase	Comparison Decrease
		(In yen)		
Transfer of the surplus from the preceding year	—	20,649,102	—	20,649,102
Tax on Dividends	6,700,000	67,890,000	—	61,190,000
Receipts from Certain Special Accounts	36,637,060	—	36,637,060	—
Tax on Interest on National Bonds and Company Debentures	2,079,538	—	2,079,538	—
Travelling Tax	7,906,098	—	7,906,098	—
Admission Tax	10,334,726	—	10,334,726	—
Special Admission Tax	110,000	—	110,000	—
Tax on Commodities	53,910,362	—	53,910,362	—
Other Receipts	21,469,000	24,711,280	—	3,242,280
Total	1,310,759,637	1,081,841,527	228,918,110	—
Total Revenue	3,514,521,415	2,914,927,379	599,594,036	—

Branches of Expenditure	1938-39 Budget	1937-38 Working Budget	Comparison Increase	Comparison Decrease
Ordinary:		(In yen)		
Imperial Household	4,500,000	4,500,000	—	—
Foreign Affairs:	18,950,517	18,036,167	914,350	—
Department proper	3,788,261	3,557,965	230,296	—
Embassies, legations and consulates abroad	14,316,612	13,440,914	875,698	—
Other expenses	845,644	1,037,288	—	191,644
Home Affairs:	45,151,036	45,853,566	—	702,530
Shinto shrine	1,251,720	1,251,360	360	—
Department proper	1,031,620	969,398	62,222	—
Prefectures (Dō, Fu and Ken)	12,035,800	11,710,177	325,623	—
Police	24,957,620	25,989,198	—	1,031,578
Other Expenses	5,874,276	5,933,433	—	59,157
Finance:	732,719,024	507,525,101	225,193,723	—
Department proper	1,996,265	1,561,847	434,418	—
Cabinet and Privy Council	1,705,442	1,769,005	—	63,563
House of Peers and House of Representatives	4,032,533	4,761,323	—	728,790
Custom-houses	6,279,322	5,818,414	460,908	—
Expenses for the collection of inland taxes	26,538,159	21,231,404	5,306,755	—
Taxes returned and exchange loss, compensation, etc.	23,709,606	19,040,932	4,668,674	—
Transferred to national debt consolidation fund	581,798,448	417,168,355	164,630,093	—
Funds in reserve	80,000,000	33,000,000	47,000,000	—
Other expenses	6,659,249	3,175,821	3,485,428	—
Army:	165,848,841	217,804,071	—	51,955,230
Department proper	651,918	647,531	4,387	—
Expenses for Military Affairs	164,434,926	216,098,066	—	51,663,140
Other expenses	761,997	1,058,474	—	296,477
Navy:	294,093,290	273,953,380	20,139,910	—
Department proper	620,615	537,771	82,844	—
Expenses for military affairs	292,571,852	272,191,269	20,380,583	—
Other expenses	900,823	1,224,340	—	323,517
Justice:	47,003,699	43,884,783	3,118,916	—
Department proper	771,036	747,719	23,317	—
Judicial courts and office consignment	20,895,294	20,106,235	789,059	—
Prisons	25,282,234	22,975,405	2,306,829	—
Other expenses	55,133	5,424	—	269
Education:	133,843,589	133,136,264	707,325	—
Department proper	2,275,988	2,457,707	—	181,719

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Branches of Expenditure	1938-39 Budget	1937-38 Working Budget	Comparison Increase	Comparison Decrease
		(In yen)		
Education grants	96,836,085	96,618,980	217,105	—
Government educational institutions and library	32,141,383	32,205,249	—	63,866
Other Expenses	2,590,133	1,854,328	735,805	—
Agriculture and Forestry:	39,086,605	39,825,232	—	738,627
Department proper	1,245,261	1,284,325	—	39,064
Forestry expenses	27,639,932	23,853,150	3,836,782	—
Other expenses	10,151,412	14,687,757	—	4,536,345
Commerce and Industry:	7,306,547	6,724,213	582,334	—
Department proper	1,641,986	1,541,201	100,785	—
Patent bureau and mining inspection Office	1,456,483	1,372,020	84,463	—
Other expenses	4,208,078	3,810,992	397,086	—
Communications:	200,337,451	185,414,412	14,923,039	—
Department proper	864,546	832,961	31,585	—
Pensions and annuities	195,191,945	180,867,457	14,324,488	—
Other expenses	4,280,960	3,713,994	566,966	—
Overseas Affairs:	2,413,782	2,302,874	110,908	—
Department proper	848,325	837,153	11,172	—
Other expenses	1,565,457	1,465,721	99,736	—
Welfare:	76,192,138	49,821,275	26,370,863	—
Department proper	1,007,572	916,307	91,265	—
Other expenses	75,184,566	48,904,968	26,243,098	—
Total	1,767,446,519	1,528,781,338	238,665,181	—
Extraordinary:				
Foreign Affairs	30,898,697	35,550,747	—	4,652,050
Home Affairs	233,942,952	228,259,715	5,683,237	—
Finance	(a)417,619,430	66,683,443	350,935,987	—
Army	(b)400,906,845	510,461,269	—	109,554,424
Navy	(c)386,290,061	410,004,912	—	23,714,851
Justice	3,788,810	3,396,952	391,858	—
Education	12,707,400	12,852,126	—	144,726
Agriculture and Forestry	90,457,835	85,914,081	4,543,754	—
Commerce and Industry	45,341,001	31,729,292	13,611,709	—
Communications	28,819,357	22,505,667	9,313,690	—
Overseas Affairs	28,713,937	31,109,302	—	2,395,365
Welfare	67,588,571	14,442,344	53,146,227	—
Total	1,747,074,896	1,452,909,850	294,165,046	—
Total Expenditure	3,514,521,415	2,981,691,188	532,830,227	—

Note:—For comparison with the Budget for 1938-39, certain adjustments have been made in the figures of the Budget for 1937-38.

Budget for the Fiscal Year 1938-39

General Features In the compilation of the Budget Estimates for the fiscal year 1938-39, comprising those of the General Account and Special Accounts, endeavours were made to increase as much as possible expenditures for the undertakings connected with the China incident, while at the same time, retrenchment was effected in other categories of expenditure. On the side of revenue, not only were tax increases of temporary nature made to apply the receipts to a part of the expenditure for the China incident, but a considerable growth in the tax and other receipts, arising from activity in the economic sphere, was also estimated. Deficits were to be covered by the proceeds of public loans.

The Budget Estimates approved by the Diet in the 73rd Session (December 1937 to March 1938) consisted of the original Budget and Supplementary Budgets Nos. 1, 2 and 3 for the General Account, and the original Budget and the Supplementary Budgets Nos. 1 and 2 for the Special Accounts. The sequence of the original Budget and the Supplementary Budgets for the General Account will be stated below:—

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(1) The original Budget was as follows:

Revenue	¥
Ordinary	2,023,028,727
Extraordinary	844,768,128
Normal revenue	150,604,389
Receipts from the issue of public loans	694,163,739
Total	2,867,796,855
Expenditure	
Ordinary	1,640,536,301
Extraordinary	1,227,260,554
Total	2,867,796,855

(2) The Supplementary Budget No. 1 was as follows:

Revenue	¥
Ordinary	164,218,985
Extraordinary	222,273,345
Nomal revenue	149,231,510
Receipts from the issue of public loans	73,041,835
Total	386,492,330
Expenditure	
Ordinary	69,195,890
Extraordinary	317,296,440
Total	386,492,330

(3) The Supplementary Budget No. 2 was as follows:

Revenue	¥
Ordinary	15,671,723
Extraordinary	155,334,135
Normal revenue	1,515,112
Receipts from the issue of public loans	153,819,023
Total	171,005,858
Expenditure	
Ordinary	55,199,594
Extraordinary	115,806,264
Total	171,005,858

(4) The Supplementary Budget No. 3 was as follows:

Revenue	¥
Ordinary	842,343
Extraordinary	88,384,029
Normal revenue	1,346,546
Receipts from the issue of public loans	87,037,483
Total	89,226,372
Expenditure	
Ordinary	2,514,734
Extraordinary	86,711,638
Total	89,226,372

When these amounts are included, the total figures of the Budget Estimates for the General Account for the fiscal year 1938-39 were as follows:

Revenue	¥
Ordinary	2,203,761,778
Extraordinary	1,310,759,637
Normal Revenue	302,697,557
Receipts from the issue of public loans	1,008,062,080
Total	3,514,521,415
Expenditure	
Ordinary	1,767,446,519
Extraordinary	1,747,074,896
Total	3,514,521,415

Comparison of the Budget for 1938-39 with the Budget for 1937-38

General Account The following are the comparisons of the Budget for 1938-39 with the revised Budget for 1937-38:—

	1938-39	1937-38	Increase (+) or Decrease (−) compared with 1937-38
		(In yen)	
Revenue			
Ordinary	2,203,761,778	1,833,085,852	(+) 870,675,926
Extraordinary	1,310,759,637	1,081,841,527	(+) 228,918,110
Normal revenue	302,697,557	233,797,096	(+) 68,900,461
Receipts from the issue of public loans and borrowings	1,008,062,080	827,395,329	(+) 180,666,751
Transfer of surplus from the preceding year	0	20,649,102	(−) 20,649,102
Total	3,514,521,415	2,914,927,379	(+) 599,594,035
Expenditure			
Ordinary	1,767,446,519	1,528,781,338	(+) 238,665,181
Extraordinary	1,747,074,896	1,452,909,850	(+) 294,165,046
Total	3,514,521,415	2,981,691,188	(+) 532,830,227

Note:—For comparison with the Budget for 1938-39, certain adjustments were made in the Budget figures for 1937-38.

Special Accounts The Budget for the most important Special Accounts for 1938-39, and comparisons with the Budget for 1937-38 are as follows:—

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(a) Imperial Government Railways Special Account.

	1938-39	1937-38	Increase (+) or Decrease (−) compared with 1937-38
		(In yen)	
Capital Account			
Revenue	218,115,676	199,277,173	(+) 18,838,503
Expenditure	244,955,676	222,812,407	(+) 22,143,269
Stores Account			
Revenue	285,740,000	231,350,099	(+) 54,389,901
Expenditure	285,740,000	231,350,099	(+) 54,389,901
Profit and Loss Account			
Revenue	985,519,962	888,423,034	(+) 97,096,928
Expenditure	823,915,286	737,245,861	(+) 85,669,425

(b) Special Account for Postal, Telegraph and Telephone Services.

Capital Account			
Revenue	79,981,551	91,930,679	(−) 11,949,128
Expenditure	93,611,598	100,865,664	(−) 7,254,066
Stores Account			
Revenue	53,856,092	50,900,253	(+) 2,955,839
Expenditure	53,856,092	50,900,253	(+) 2,955,839
Working Account			
Revenue	431,470,498	367,360,642	(+) 64,109,856
Expenditure	386,864,560	330,892,843	(+) 55,971,717

(c) Special Accounts for Special Regions.

(1) Chōsen (Korea)			
Revenue	518,915,028	427,653,964	(+) 91,261,064
Expenditure	518,915,028	425,123,781	(+) 93,791,247
(2) Taiwan (Formosa)			
Revenue	183,014,971	164,794,579	(+) 18,220,392
Expenditure	183,014,971	163,906,929	(+) 19,108,042
(3) Kwantung			
Revenue	24,056,582	27,663,748	(−) 3,607,166
Expenditure	24,056,582	27,663,748	(−) 3,607,166
(4) Karafuto (Japanese Saghalien)			
Revenue	38,688,529	37,274,037	(+) 1,414,492
Expenditure	38,688,529	37,274,037	(+) 1,414,492
(5) Nanyō (Mandated Territory in the Pacific)			
Revenue	9,904,471	8,682,482	(+) 1,221,989
Expenditure	9,674,669	8,682,482	(+) 992,187

Current Accounts of Revenue and Expenditure for 1938-39

(As outstanding on May 31, 1939)

According to the report of the Finance Ministry the revenue and expenditure of the General Account for the fiscal year 1938-39 stood on May 31, 1939, as follows:

	Amount	Increase as compared with May, 1938
	(Unit ¥1,000)	
Revenue,		
Ordinary	2,052,350	376,873
Extraordinary	1,252,256	459,131
Total	3,304,606	836,004
Expenditure		
Ordinary	1,597,127	188,385
Extraordinary	1,372,821	74,202
Toral	2,969,948	262,587

Increase of Revenue Increase of revenue from ordinary taxes amounted to ¥36,000,000 as compared with the similar figures in May, 1938 for the fiscal year 1937-38. Customs duties decreased by ¥18,000,000, and revenue from the land tax, the foreign bond special tax, the negotiable papers transfer tax, the gasoline tax, the tax on bourses, and tonnage dues also decreased. But, in all

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other items it showed a remarkable increase, headed by ¥254,193,000 of the income tax.

Receipts from public undertakings and State property increased by ¥11,660,000, revenue from the Bank of Japan ¥3,432,000, and that from the special profits tax ¥83,470,000.

Revenue from all taxes amounted to ¥1,983,165,000, consisting of ¥1,689,726,000 from ordinary taxes and ¥293,439,000 from extraordinary taxes, resulting from the measures for the increase of revenue from taxes and natural increase of taxes on account of the industrial boom in the emergency.

Details of the revenue account follow:

	Amount	Increase or decrease (-) as compared with May, 1938
	(Unit ¥1,000)	
Ordinary:		
I Taxes		
Income tax	732,516	254,193
Land tax	51,509	- 6,940
Business profit tax	105,277	14,019
Capital interest tax	33,121	5,822
Juridical person capital tax	21,942	12,587
Inheritance tax	45,481	9,629
Mining tax	10,735	3,291
Foreign bond special tax	2,700	- 73
Tax on liquors	278,668	37,208
Tax on soft drinks	5,371	635
Sugar excise	145,357	50,129
Textile consumption tax	46,898	7,959
Gasoline tax	13,494	- 3,839
Tax on bourses	25,038	- 5,063
Negotiable papers transfer tax	2,359	- 495
Customs duties	166,422	- 18,540
Tonnage dues	2,562	- 205
Tax on the issue of bank notes	267	162
Total	1,689,726	360,481
II Stamp receipts	91,408	- 1,867
III Receipts from public undertakings and State property	115,996	11,660
IV From Special Account for Communications	81,500	500
V From the Bank of Japan	13,104	3,432
VI Miscellaneous receipts	60,613	2,665
Total of Ordinary Revenue	2,052,350	376,879
Extraordinary:		
I Sale of State property	7,598	702
II Miscellaneous receipts	19,088	- 25,633
III Payment by public bodies for the repairing and construction of harbours	2,898	- 4,766
IV Shares assumed by public bodies for local public works	7,733	- 2,942
V Receipts for encouragement of scholary researches	32	- 1
VI Transfers from Special Accounts	547	- 1,686
VII Payment by insurance companies	3,514	97
VIII Receipts under the Export Credits Guarantee System	388	- 85
IX Refunding of the loans to exporters	12	—
X Special Profits tax	185,941	83,470
XI Tax on dividends	35,445	35,445
XII Tax on the interests of public loans and corporation shares	1,042	1,042
XIII Transit duty	8,087	8,087
XIV Entrance tax	8,278	8,278
XV Special enterance tax	72	72

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	Amount	Increase or decrease (−) as compared with May, 1938
	(Unit ¥1,000)	
XVI Tax on commodities	54,574	54,574
XVII Receipts from Srecial Accounts	6,700	− 61,190
XVIII Loans	685,475	248,284
XIX Brought forward from the balance of the previous year	205,313	115,390
XX From Manchoukuo for national defence	19,500	—
Total of Extraordinary Revenue (including others)	1,252,256	459,131
Grand Total	3,304,606	836,004

Expenditure Expenditure increased by ¥262,587,000 as compared with the similar figures in May, 1938, for the fiscal year 1937-38. The following table shows the amounts expended by different Departments.

Department	Ordinary	Extraordinary
	(Unit ¥1,000)	
Imperial Household	4,500	—
Foreign Affairs	18,040	30,135
Home Affairs	49,389	242,701
Finance	579,998	94,013
Army	130,701	358,301
Navy	286,837	392,408
Justice	48,459	4,133
Educatton	133,188	12,479
Agriculture and Forestry	38,426	94,281
Commerce and Industry	6,791	45,939
Communications	194,808	24,973
Overseas Affairs	2,367	26,273
Welfare	103,616	47,179
Total	1,597,127	1,372,821
Grand Total	2,969,948	

Public Loan Programme

The issue of public loans for financing expenditure for the General Account and Special Accounts amounts during the current fiscal year to ¥5,628,052,018, representing an increase of ¥2,338,800,285 as compared with that in the revised Budget for 1937-38. The public loan programme for the fiscal year 1938-39 and comparisons with that of the preceding fiscal year are as follows:

GENERAL ACCOUNT

Items	1938-39	1937-38	Increase (+) or Decrease (−) compared with 1937-38
Loans for reconstruction works necessitated by the earthquake of 1923	8,804,031	7,353,733	(−) 3,549,702
Loans for the improvement of roads	9,166,350	10,598,771	(−) 1,432,421
Loans for expenditure in connection with the Manchurian incident	124,617,380	265,904,526	(−) 141,287,146
Loans for the covering of revenue deficits	870,474,319	538,594,549	(+) 331,879,770
Loans for expenditure for the North China incident	0	4,943,750	(−) 4,943,750
Total	1,008,062,080	827,395,329	(+) 180,666,751

SPECIAL ACCOUNTS

Loans for postal, telegraph and telephone services and for reconstruction works necessitated by the earthquake of 1923	18,500,000	36,000,000	(−) 17,500,000
Loans for the construction and improvement of Government railways	42,000,000	42,000,000	—
Loans for public undertakings in Chōsen	106,000,000	65,000,000	(+) 41,000,000
Loans for expenditure for the North China incident	0	401,185,246	(−) 401,185,246

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Items	1938-39	1937-38	Increase (+) or Decrease (−) compared with 1937-38
Loans for expenditure for the China incident	4,453,489,938	2,022,671,158	(+) 2,430,818,780
Total	4,619,989,938	2,566,856,404	(+) 2,053,133,534
Grand Total	5,628,052,018	3,394,251,733	(+) 2,233,800,285

ANNUAL STATE REVENUE AND EXPENDITURE

Financial Year	Revenue Ordinary	Revenue Extraordinary	Revenue Total	Expenditure Ordinary
	(In yen)			
1921-22	1,283,812,503	781,898,683	2,065,711,186	841,749,861
1922-23	1,428,206,040	659,139,395	2,087,345,435	891,257,440
1923-24	1,303,832,042	741,166,225	2,045,298,267	960,593,700
1924-25	1,238,640,171	688,751,153	2,127,391,324	1,051,010,011
1925-26	1,443,234,938	628,134,374	2,071,369,313	1,016,289,096
1926-27	1,452,409,833	603,951,528	2,056,361,361	1,081,993,470
1927-28	1,484,779,896	577,975,441	2,062,755,337	1,171,777,282
1928-29	1,505,012,997	500,678,107	2,005,691,104	1,184,241,592
1929-30	1,481,143,304	345,301,447	1,826,444,751	1,212,726,860
1930-31	1,422,059,449	174,912,618	1,596,972,168	1,202,152,685
1931-32	1,314,911,859	216,170,183	1,531,082,042	1,111,824,193
1932-33	1,287,038,893	758,236,675	2,045,275,568	1,182,862,616
1933-34	1,391,418,998	940,340,595	2,331,759,594	1,313,017,990
1934-35	1,342,930,935	904,050,670	2,246,981,605	1,224,782,544
1935-36	1,405,426,797	853,894,509	2,259,321,306	1,268,992,250
1936-37	1,561,649,514	810,449,098	2,372,098,612	1,320,140,686
1937-38*	1,945,998,351	968,472,140	2,914,470,491	1,409,250,592
1938-39‡	2,203,761,778	1,310,759,637	3,514,521,415	1,767,446,519

Financial Year	Expenditure Extraordinary	Expenditure Total	Surplus Gross	Surplus Net
		(In yen)		
1921-22	648,105,752	1,489,855,613	575,855,573	117,741,946
1922-23	538,432,182	1,429,689,622	657,655,813	272,824,121
1923-24	560,456,605	1,521,050,305	524,247,962	141,519,583
1924-25	574,014,062	1,625,024,073	502,367,251	224,099,454
1925-26	508,699,494	1,524,988,590	546,380,723	178,046,963
1926-27	496,832,955	1,578,826,425	477,534,936	102,923,106
1927-28	593,945,798	1,765,723,080	297,032,257	52,512,693
1928-29	630,613,419	1,814,855,011	190,836,093	42,665,325
1929-30	523,590,194	1,736,317,055	90,127,696	—
1930-31	355,711,046	1,557,863,732	39,108,436	5,991,200
1931-32	365,051,071	1,476,875,265	54,206,777	19,193,075
1932-33	767,278,007	1,950,140,623	95,134,944	29,373,981
1933-34	941,644,246	2,254,662,236	77,097,358	13,653,358
1934-35	938,221,361	2,163,003,905	83,977,700	4,403,493
1935-36	937,485,683	2,206,477,933	52,843,373	1,950,750
1936-37	962,035,114	2,282,175,801	89,922,811	34,638,176
1937-38*	1,299,906,890	2,709,157,483	205,313,008	84,160,507
1938-39‡	1,747,074,896	3,514,521,415	—	—

Note:—(1) The financial year begins on April 1st and ends on March 31st.
(2) The figures for 1935-36 and the years preceding it represent the settled accounts.
(3) * Represent the actual account on July 31, 1937.
(4) ‡ Represent the budget.
(5) The gross surplus indicates the balance of revenue over expenditure for each financial year. Under the Budget and Account Act the surplus actually created in each financial year is transferred to the Budget of the succeeding year, and this Gross

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Surplus includes not only the accumulation brought forward from preceding financial years, but the net surplus actually created in that year. Accordingly, the balance of the gross and the net surplus represents a part or a total of the surplus created in the preceding year. Part of the gross surplus is applied to disbursements and deferred expenditures during the succeeding year and the balance is carried forward as a surplus to be used in succeeding financial years.

The National Loan Redemption Act as amended in 1915 required redemption of the national debt up to 1.16% of the amount outstanding at the commencement of the preceding financial year. The same Act was further amended in 1927 to require an additional appropriation for the same purpose of not less than 25% of the surplus actually created in the year before the preceding one. The same Act as amended in 1932, however, provides that the amount to be applied to redemption of the national debt shall, for the time being, be over one-third of 1.16% of the total debts outstanding at the commencement of the preceding financial year, and that the additional appropriation for the same purpose of not less than 25% of the surplus actually created in the year before the preceding one may be suspended.

(6) As fractions not exceeding 1 yen are omitted, the totals of the figures and the grand total do not correspond. This explanation is applicable to the following tables.

STATE REVENUE IN 1936-37—1938-39

Sources of Revenue	1936-37	1937-38 (Budget)	1938-39 (Budget)
		(In yen)	
Ordinary:			
Taxes:	1,007,080,493	1,250,722,354	1,577,141,047
Land tax	58,592,350	58,760,697	50,360,097
Income tax	276,555,799	429,524,381	648,679,929
Business tax	4,309	—	—
Business profits tax	73,231,123	73,475,167	90,477,681
Capital interest tax	15,033,848	29,176,704	83,129,297
Tax on the capital of corporations	—	15,454,980	23,600,193
Succession tax	31,790,577	33,475,676	36,015,151
Travelling tax	—	—	—
Mining tax	5,291,783	5,859,028	8,238,716
Special tax on foreign currency securities	—	2,793,739	2,714,345
Tax on the issue of bank notes	—	—	—
Tax on liquors	220,099,956	235,210,774	269,499,606
Tax on soy	—	—	—
Table water tax	4,219,027	4,139,591	4,917,140
Sugar excise	86,781,641	98,743,607	136,645,171
Textiles consumption tax	42,557,520	43,040,849	35,192,211
Gasoline tax	—	14,913,855	16,156,800
Tax on bourses	15,844,655	19,279,858	39,256,306
Tax on the transfer of securities	—	4,624,717	3,424,227
Customs duties	174,129,933	179,300,612	175,825,497
Tonnage dues	2,947,968	2,948,119	3,008,680
Other taxes	—	—	—
Stamp receipts	93,822,779	86,743,493	100,056,184
Receipts from Government undertakings and properties:	307,650,653	331,176,735	367,081,200
Postal, telegraph and telephone services	—	—	—
Forests	46,676,378	48,350,375	54,828,568
Profits of monopoly	215,166,810	233,968,819	254,050,017
Other receipts from Government undertakings and properties	45,807,465	48,857,541	58,202,615
Receipts from the Special Account for postal, telegraph and telephone services	81,000,000	81,000,000	81,500,000
Payment to the Government by the Bank of Japan	14,984,291	13,087,561	15,066,086
Transferred from Special Account of funds for educational improvement and agricultural village development	6,723,988	7,495,307	6,755,227

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Sources of Revenue	1936-37	1937-38 (Budget) (In yen)	1938-39 (Budget)
Other miscellaneous receipts	59,387,310	57,033,847	56,162,034
Total	1,561,649,514	1,827,259,297	2,203,761,778
Extraordinary:			
Proceeds of sale of State property	20,053,762	6,518,169	6,779,805
Miscellaneous receipts	11,335,738	45,979,277	19,985,802
Local payment to expenses incurred by the State for the benefit of certain prefectures	7,321,014	7,122,439	5,165,719
Local contributions to expenses incurred by the State for the benefit of certain prefecture	10,084,551	10,645,966	7,938,709
Fund belonging to Special Accounts transferred	26,120,908	76,765,368	10,242,623
Receipts from the issue of public loans	609,621,777	1,228,580,575	1,008,062,080
Repayment from the insurance companies	3,412,246	3,162,652	3,047,607
War-profits tax	—	—	—
Special profits tax	44,681,145	58,522,658	117,090,508
Transfer of the surplus from the preceding year	52,843,373	20,649,102	—
Receipts under the export credits guarantee system	422,088	1,202,000	1,938,000
Emergency tax for the North China incident	—	66,548,361	—
Borrowings for the North China incident	—	36,591,321	—
Receipts from the Taxes newly created under the Law relating to Emergency Taxes for the China Incident	—	—	110,977,784
Other Miscellaneous receipts	24,552,496	26,392,622	19,531,000
Total	810,449,098	1,588,680,510	1,310,759,637
Total revenue	2,372,098,612	3,415,939,807	3,514,521,415

STATE EXPENDITURE IN 1936-37—1938-39

Branches of Expenditure	1936-37	1937-38 (Budget) (In yen)	1938-39 (Budget)
Ordinary:			
Imperial Household	4,500,000	4,500,000	4,500,000
Foreign Affairs:	17,508,746	18,020,872	18,950,517
Department proper	3,269,512	3,557,965	3,788,261
Embassies, Legations and Consulates abroad	12,936,130	13,440,914	14,316,612
Other expenses	1,276,104	1,021,993	845,644
Home Affairs:	61,904,514	75,864,446	45,151,036
Department proper	904,498	1,075,465	1,031,620
Prefectures (Dō, Fu & Ken)	10,640,982	11,723,829	12,035,800
Other expenses	50,359,034	63,065,152	32,083,616
Finance:	413,599,663	504,164,859	732,719,024
Department proper	986,569	1,472,777	1,996,265
Cabinet and Privy Council	1,662,858	1,901,587	1,705,442
House of Peers and House of Representatives	4,010,644	4,739,948	4,032,533
Court of Administrative Litigation and Board of Auditors	602,271	675,408	674,658
Custom-houses	5,207,660	5,818,414	6,279,822
Expenses for the Collection of inland taxes	16,962,468	21,231,404	29,538,159
Transferred to National Debt Consolidation Fund	363,352,894	417,168,355	581,798,448
Other expenses	20,814,299	51,156,966	109,694,197
Army:	191,433,465	217,804,071	165,848,841
Department proper	610,964	647,531	651,918
Expenses for military affairs	189,336,953	216,098,066	164,434,926
Other expenses	1,485,548	1,058,474	761,997
Navy:	236,408,109	273,953,380	294,093,290

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Branches of Expenditure	1936-37	1937-38 (Budget) (In yen)	1938-39 (Budget)
Department proper	485,441	537,771	620,615
Expenses for military affairs	234,798,763	272,191,269	292,571,852
Other expenses	1,123,905	1,224,340	900,823
Justice:	38,129,399	41,173,831	47,003,699
Department proper	525,836	747,719	771,036
Judicial courts	19,273,977	20,027,986	20,895,294
Prisons	18,279,713	20,342,702	25,282,234
Other expenses	49,873	55,424	55,135
Education:	131,144,564	133,189,892	133,843,589
Department proper	2,440,966	2,525,083	2,275,988
Government educational institutions and libraries	31,583,115	32,205,249	32,141,383
Other expenses	97,120,483	98,459,560	99,426,218
Agriculture and Commerce:	33,602,445	39,404,327	39,086,605
Department proper	1,447,130	1,284,325	1,245,261
Forestry expenses	23,716,096	23,853,150	27,689,932
Other expenses	8,439,219	14,266,852	10,151,412
Commerce and Industry:	5,763,106	6,739,288	7,306,547
Department proper	1,628,135	1,594,001	1,641,986
Patent Bureau and Mining Inspection Office	1,413,082	1,435,120	1,456,483
Other expenses	2,721,889	3,710,167	4,208,078
Communications:	183,982,437	185,502,388	200,337,451
Department proper	1,189,466	832,961	864,546
Communication expenses	1,257,450	1,300,224	1,359,288
Pensions and annuities	179,845,461	180,867,457	195,191,945
Other expenses	1,690,060	2,501,746	2,921,672
Overseas Affairs:	2,164,233	2,302,874	2,413,782
Department proper	703,442	837,153	848,325
Other expenses	1,460,791	1,465,721	1,565,457
Welfare:	—	579,273	76,192,138
Department proper	—	402,254	1,007,572
Other expenses	—	177,019	75,184,566
Total	1,320,140,686	1,503,199,501	1,767,446,519
Extraordinary:			
Foreign Affairs	14,587,108	29,884,180	30,898,697
Home Affairs	151,277,598	240,683,000	233,942,952
Finance	23,737,694	165,436,708	417,619,430
Army	319,285,926	813,569,539	400,906,845
Navy	331,042,417	514,104,912	386,290,061
Justice	2,907,773	3,254,421	3,788,810
Education	11,429,234	13,462,043	12,707,400
Agriculture and Commerce	65,024,753	83,693,216	90,457,835
Commerce and Industry	11,389,353	31,706,015	45,341,001
Communications	14,408,638	22,220,667	28,819,357
Overseas Affairs	16,944,614	30,490,242	28,713,937
Welfare	—	190,692	67,588,571
Total	962,035,114	1,948,695,635	1,747,074,896
Total Expenditure	2,282,175,801	3,451,895,136	3,514,521,415

Budget for 1939-1940

(In yen)

GENERAL ACCOUNT

Ordinary Revenue

I Taxes	Total	1,471,830,448
Income tax		809,470,836
Land tax		48,234,225
Business profit tax		113,488,730

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	Capital interest tax		42,378,440
	Juridical person capital tax		27,492,857
	Inheritance tax		49,401,572
	Mining tax		8,808,593
	Foreign bond special tax		2,650,672
	Tax on liquors		254,767,879
	Tax on soft drinks		5,035,672
	Sugar excise		117,678,182
	Textile consumption tax		43,612,668
	Gasoline tax		11,733,216
	Tax on bourses		27,134,863
	Negotiable papers transfer tax		2,369,163
	Customs duties		175,195,725
	Tonnage dues		2,468,464
II	Stamp receipts		90,122,388
III	Receipts from public undertakings and State property	Total	371,619,749
	Forests		70,605,362
	Monopoly Bureau		240,964,807
	Printing Bureau		4,308,001
	Senju Woolen Factory		5,826
	Capital profit of Navy factories		2,740,000
	Navy Fuel Factory		258,779
	Naval Explosives Factory		250,000
	Rent of State property		733,185
	Dividend receipts		30,675,035
	Prisons' receipts		21,078,754
IV	From Special Account for Communications		81,500,000
V	From the Bank of Japan		15,676,108
VI	Miscellaneous receipts	Total	65,165,263
	Certificates and fees		776,868
	Penal fees and confiscated money		2,862,125
	Indemnification and forfeit		472,189
	Custom houses, miscellaneous		1,573,212
	Receipts anent pension		4,869,825
	Allotments anent pension		2,141,832
	Charges anent pension in Special Accounts		27,713,365
	Receipts from privately supported boys in the Military Preparatory School		275,760
	Receipts from Bonin Islands		1,926
	Interests		221,511
	Receipts from Horse Race Association		17,874,334
	Contribution of local governments for Labour Exchange Expenses		1,500,385
	Other miscellaneous receipts		4,881,931
VII	Transferred from Special Account of funds for educational improvement and agrarian village development		6,926,813
	Total of ordinary revenue		2,372,840,769

Extraordinary Revenue

I	Sale of State property	Total	7,192,619
	Lands		300,000
	Goods		6,667,699
	Live-stock		224,920
II	Miscellaneous receipts	Total	61,853,017
	Building and repairing works in trust		160,129
	Investigations in trust		99,414
	Money paid back		331,720
	Share of the sales proceeds of seal furs		165,540
	Repayments of advances per Earthquake Note Settlement Law		4,181,575

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	Contribution to the national loan reimbursement fund		5,000
	Receipts from the S. M. R. Co.		1,475,971
	Receipts from the Nippon Iron Foundry		1,214,292
	Transferred from the Special Fund for Cultural Work for China		1,000,000
	Transferred from the Special Account for Silk Price Control		4,744,000
	Receipts by the redemption of the loss sustained by the loans for small industrialists and merchants		181,002
	Paid in by the 2600 the Anniversary Celebration Association		34,840
	Transferred from the Special Account of Gold Fund		6,043,798
	Contribution of local governments for Labour Exchange Expenses		1,497,287
	Payment in accordance with the Convertible Notes Readjustment Law		40,718,449
III	Payments by public bodies for the repairing and construction of harbours		5,288,481
IV	Shares assumed by public bodies for local public works	Total	8,889,425
	River improvement		5,217,781
	Harbour equipments		1,231,427
	Road improvement		2,440,217
V	Receipts for encouragement of scholarly researches	Total	33,000
	Imperial donation		12,000
	Contributions		21,000
VI	Transfers from Special Accounts	Total	1,739,763
	From		
	State Property Readjustment Fund		1,180,321
	Printing Bureau		150,000
	Governmental universities		100,000
	Communications works		194,881
	Health Insurance		60,000
	Post Office Life Insurance		54,561
VII	Payment by insurance companies		3,352,169
VIII	Receipts under the Export Credits Guarantee System		1,675,000
IX	Refunding of the loans to exporters		3,728,000
X	Special profits tax		219,845,298
XI	Tax on dividends		35,304,592
XII	Tax on the interests of public loans and corporation shares		1,443,570
XIII	Transit-duty		9,243,712
XIV	Entrance tax		8,114,740
XV	Special entrance tax		105,090
XVI	Tax on commodities		53,961,730
XVII	Receipts from Special Accounts for General Accounts	Total	6,700,000
	From		
	Deposits Bureau, Ministry of Finance		6,000,000
	South Seas Government		700,000
XVIII	Loans	Total	809,195,494
	Earthquake loans and conversions		4,428,779
	Road loans and conversions		8,974,377
	Revenue deficiency loans and conversions		795,792,338
XIX	Brought forward from the Balance of the previous year		84,160,507
	Total of extraordinary revenue		1,321,826,207
	Grand total of revenue		3,694,666,976

Ordinary Expenditure

I	Imperial Household		4,500,000

Department of Foreign Affairs

I	Department proper	Total	3,792,533
	Salaries		601,472
	Office expenses		914,345
	Salaries of foreigners		35,400

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	Telegrams		432,422
	Entertainments		2,000
	International allotments		9,311
	Students abroad		156,229
	Special services		1,641,354
II	Offices abroad	Total	15,922,113
	Salaries		6,006,424
	Office expenses		4,500,728
	Travelling expenses		2,457,999
	Salaries of foreigners		40,849
	Law court and registering expenses		31,454
	Detention expenses		41,560
	Land and house rent		1,398,983
	Telegrams		1,066,700
	Entertainments		377,416
III	Protection of resident Japanese abroad	Total	554,653
	Salaries		120,801
	Office expenses		433,852
IV	Japanese Embassy at Hsinking, Educational Section		172,296
	Shrines		1,700
	Salaries		58,941
	Office expenses		111,655
V	Miscellaneous expenses		115,850
	Sum total		20,557,445

Department of Home Affairs

I	Isé Shrine		230,000
II	Other State shrines		1,021,720
III	Department proper	Total	1,212,544
	Salaries		465,635
	Office expenses		713,774
	International allotments		1,853
	Special services		31,282
IV	Police Training Institute		30,045
V	Prefectural offices	Total	12,286,901
	Salaries		8,204,593
	Office expences		3,840,648
	Imperial attendance		79,105
	Bonin Islands		61,292
	Porice for the Seven Islands of Izu		19,214
	Special services		82,049
VI	Conscription expenses		3,025,026
VII	Joint payment for police expenses		25,765,238
VIII	Grants to social works		4,163,259
IX	Miscellaneous expenses		107,114
	Sum total		47,841,847

Department of Finance

I	Department proper	Total	2,045,271
	Salaries		733,475
	Office expenses		1,278,440
	International allotments		1,062
	Customs duties investigation committee		23,294
	Special services		9,000
II	Cabinet expenses	Total	1,717,205
	Salaries		359,925
	Office expenses		902,882
	Rewards		100,828
	Examinations for high officials		52,440
	Punishment of officials		1,413
	Official service limitation committee		2,868

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	Rice Self Control Committee		6,300
	Committee for the Investigation of the control of Transportation Enterprises		18,000
	National Mobilization Commission		27,000
	National Mibilization Compensation Committee Meeting		18,000
	Contribution to International Statistics Association		1,000
	Special services		226,550
III	Privy Council expenses		198,032
IV	House of Peers		1,745,776
V	House of Representatives		2,286,118
VI	Board of Audit		539,708
VII	Court of Administrative Litigation		125,093
VIII	Board of Planning		646,335
IX	Bureau of Repairing and Property Overseeing		88,840
X	Custom houses	Total	6,265,254
	Salaries		1,778,635
	Office expenses		2,294,414
	Inspection of diseases		547,413
	Others		1,644,792
XI	Tax collection houses and brewery laboratory	Total	27,352,628
	Salaries		8,065,770
	Office expenses		5,763,024
	Committee meetings		222,044
	Disposing expenses		262,674
	Stamps, etc.		76,900
	Aid to local public bodies		11,944,644
	Aid to textile associations		497,763
	Aid to brewers' associations		519,809
XII	Miscellaneous rebates, repayments and compensations		24,216,196
XIII	Transferred to the national debt adjustment fund		706,987,492
XIV	Payment to the Deposits Bureau		1,464,011
XV	Educational expenses for the resident Japanese in Manchoukuo borne by the Imperial Treasury		4,450,000
XVI	Miscellaneous expenses		737,930
XVII	State Reserve Fund		90,000,000
	Sum total		870,865,889

Department of War

I	Department proper	Total	623,180
	Salaries		364,530
	Office expenses		258,650
II	Military expenses	Total	182,249,156
	Salaries		45,121,391
	Buildings and repairs		9,584,004
	Miscellaneous payments		18,993,762
	Clothes and provisions		24,176,352
	Ordnance and horses		65,890,324
	Manoeuvres		14,871,441
	Medical treatments		842,016
	For short-time service soldiers and privately supported students		710,194
	Detention		60,086
	Transportation		1,677,260
	Imperial attendance		52,146
	Special services		270,180
III	Contribution to Yasukuni Shrine		12,000
IV	Miscellaneous expenses		759,267
	Sum total		183,643,603

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Department of Marine

I	Department proper	Total	743,544
	Salaries		511,750
	Office expenses		231,794
II	Military expenses	Total	285,587,555
	Salaries		63,623,145
	Buildings and repairs		1,729,229
	Miscellaneous payments		7,284,939
	Clothes and provisions		30,590,339
	Construction and repairs of ships		119,055,802
	Manoeuvres		715,349
	Medical treatments		1,606,895
	Naval stations and ports		1,200,698
	Expenses on ships		50,636,734
	Waterways		1,815,385
	Educational expenses		2,535,417
	Aids to seamen's families		1,157,765
	Grants to the mutual aid society		3,561,220
	Detention		11,338
	Special services		63,300
III	Miscellaneous expenses		884,896
	Sum total		287,215,995

Department of Justice

I	Department proper	Total	1,201,841
	Salaries		295,657
	Office expenses		334,781
	International allotments		4,161
	Aid to protection work for ex-convicts		433,497
	Judicial investigations		79,055
	Aid to the prison Police Training Institute		9,690
	Aid to the Lawyers' Association		45,000
II	Court expenses	Total	21,499,622
	Salaries		12,518,979
	Office expenses		6,014,952
	Judicial and registering expenses		2,473,596
	Adjudication expenses		302,334
	Detention		109,107
	Special services		80,654
III	Prison expenses	Total	25,804,350
	Salaries		605,028
	Office expenses		6,398,624
	Prisoners		18,800,698
IV	Miscellaneous expenses		55,989
	Sum total		48,561,802

Department of Education

I	Department proper	Total	2,099,182
	Salaries		474,096
	Office expenses		624,648
	Scientific investigations		377,522
	Investigations on physical culture		176,316
	Protection of national treasures		180,500
	International allotments		19,497
	Students abroad		114,678
	Aeronautic commission		6,250
	Investigation and preservation of important historical places and natural monuments		39,430
	Adult education		86,245
II	Cultural Bureau		429,386
III	Meteorological observatories		3,690,211

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IV	Latitude observatory		54,119
V	Common education	Total	90,546,241
	National share of elementary school teachers' salaries		85,000,000
	Aid to elementary education expenses		1,950,000
	Aid to normal school expenses		2,300,000
	Salaries of elementary school teachers called to defence services		357,169
	Committee for qualification of special municipalities, towns and villages		3,252
	Miscellaneous expenses		335,800
	Encouragemnet of school attendance		500,000
	Aid for Sanitary Facilities for Elementary School Teachers		100,000
VI	Business education		792,384
VII	Social education		5,216,379
VIII	Thought guidance		123,136
IX	Deaf and dumb education		209,614
X	Aid to additional salaries of public school teachers for long service		1,213,320
XI	Aid to pension fund of private middle schools		93,600
XII	Universities and libraries	Total	33,938,727
	Imperial universities		14,224,235
	Government universities		6,080,915
	Imperial and school libraries		13,633,577
XIII	Miscellaneous expenses		6,129
	Sum total		138,412,428

Department of Agriculture and Forestry

I	Department proper	Total	1,262,928
	Salaries		445,760
	Office expenses		415,216
	International allotments		29,798
	Supervision of fisheries		357,838
	Qualification of breeding oxen		14,316
II	Horse Bureau		2,744,892
III	Forestry expenses		28,782,024
IV	Experimental stations		2,015,952
V	Raw silk conditioning houses		1,640,069
VI	Studs and pastures		4,756,982
VII	Fisheries institutes		484,382
VIII	Subsidies	Total	2,724,717
	To		
	Agricultural associations		122,744
	Experiments and lectures		26,496
	Creation and maintenance of landed farmers		2,060,630
	Fishery associations		20,664
	Prevention of silk-worm diseases		83,283
	Rice self-control		106,320
	Local expenses for taking statistics		304,580
IX	Miscellaneous expenses		243,258
	Sum total		44,655,204

Department of Commerce and Industry

I	Department proper	Total	1,729,414
	Salaries		651,214
	Office expenses		730,223
	International allotments		15,065
	Weights and measures		283,208
	Geological investigation		49,704
II	Exportation Bureau		665,589
III	Fuel Bureau		390,007
IV	Patent Bureau		875,957

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V	Mine Supervision Bureau		871,919
VI	Experimental stations		2,123,922
VII	Inspection and directory stations		1,059,575
VIII	Subsidy for local expenses for taking statistics		495,231
IX	Miscellaneous expenses		43,227
	Sum total		8,254,841

Department of Communications

I	Department proper	Total	444,174
	Salaries		234,225
	Office expenses		203,067
	Aid to the International Navigation Conference		2,000
	International allotments		4,882
II	Communication expenses		1,468,555
III	Board of Electricity		955,704
IV	Electro-technical Laboratory		720,297
V	Training of Mariners		152,940
VI	Lighthouse Bureau		1,363,292
VII	Aeronautic Bureau		1,066,055
VIII	Central Aeronautical Laboratory		349,421
IX	Annuity and Pension	Total	220,809,953
	Annuities		15,464,008
	Pension		205,345,945
X	Miscellaneous expenses		8,065
	Sum total		227,338,456

Department of Overseas Affairs

I	Department proper	Total	847,458
	Salaries		330,810
	Office expenses		425,098
	Special services		46,550
	International allotments		45,000
II	Transferred to the Special Account of Karafuto Government from the profits of tobacco monopoly		1,850,893
III	Miscellaneous expenses		5,284
	Sum total		2,703,653

Department of Welfare

I	Department proper	Total	1,097,084
	Salaries		420,965
	Office expenses		552,246
	Subsidy for promotion and investigation		116,096
	International allotments		7,777
II	Board of Insurance		228,595
III	National Correction House		45,648
IV	Wounded Soldiers' Hospital		86,508
V	Hygienic Laboratory		116,242
VI	Aliment Research Institute		98,855
VII	Public Sanatorium		346,870
VIII	National Tuberculosis Sanatorium		534,791
IX	National Leper Asylums		1,018,660
X	National Laboratory for the Investigation of Population Problem		107,346
XI	Labour Exchanges		3,000,771
XII	For qualification examinations for physicians and pharmacists		27,306
XIII	Protection and relief of the Ainu		37,858
XIV	Military relief		54,194,025
XV	Subsidies	Total	13,099,624
	To		
	Prevention of epidemics		3,034,682

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	Juvenile protection and correction	152,165
	Insane hospitals	342,823
	Local expenses	51,700
	Relief works	4,616,946
	Prevention of parasites	23,608
	Prevention of ill-treatment of children	20,000
	Health consultation rooms	690,000
	National health insurance association	875,000
	Mother and child protection	2,292,700
	Expenses for social works	1,000,000
XVI	Health Insurance	4,244,017
XVII	Miscellaneous expenses	92,153
	Sum total	78,426,353
	Grand total of Ordinary Expenditure	1,962,977,498

Extraordinary Expenditure

Department of Foreign Affairs

I	Equipments and repairs	2,045,058
II	Removal of legations	209,400
III	Establishment of a new legation	190,000
IV	Subsidies to educational bodies abroad	1,740,670
V	Protection and overseeing of resident Japanese abroad	5,821,393
VI	Protection and guidance of emigrants	543,346
VII	Measures for the development of foreign trade	1,314,766
VIII	International cultural enterprises	1,000,000
IX	Extraordinary diplomatic work	5,146,622
X	Japan-Manchoukuo Economic Co-operative Committee meetings	25,000
XI	Compilation of Japanese police history in Manchoukuo	5,000
XII	Expenses re the China Affair	13,690,031
XIII	Aids to the Rehabilitation of the Japanese in China	150,000
XIV	Extraordinary increase of salaries	3,056,555
	Sum total	34,937,841

Department of Home Affairs

I	Subsidies to local public bodies for water-works, river improvement, port construction, public works, etc,	9,937,374
II	River improvement works	28,103,504
III	Harbour improvement works	8,188,481
IV	Road improvement works	11,414,594
V	Aid to the improvement of smaller rivers	3,639,894
VI	Aid to the improvement of smaller harbours	1,008,806
VII	Aid to the improvement of public roads and city planning works	200,000
VIII	For the spread of anti-aircraft drill	100,000
IX	Improvements in Hokkaido	29,821,595
X	Buildings and repairs	77,654
XI	Miscellaneous investigations	343,741
XII	Isé Shrine Construction Office	69,004
XIII	Extraordinary expenses for shrines	1,110,000
XIV	Road improvement at Kashiwara Shrine and Unébi Imperial Tomb	13,680
XV	Investigations on shrines and education of Shinto priests	50,463
XVI	Special institutions for police	2,017,251
XVII	General Election	266,904
XVIII	Election of "highest tax" members of the House of Peers	100,000
XIX	Promotion of public welfare work in Loochoo Islands	678,931
XX	Promotion of public welfare work in Oshima county, Kagoshima	162,864

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XXI	Fisheries at Bonin Islands and Seven Islands of Izu	45,553
XXII	Promotion of local self governments	4,458,607
XXIII	Extraordinary aids to local finance	103,306,997
XXIV	Promotion of Constitutional Local Autonomous Governments	200,000
XXV	Propaganda for National Mobilization	300,000
XXVI	After-cost of the rehabilitation works re 1923 Great Earthquake and Fire	300,000
XXVII	Aid to the works of rehabilitation	73,321
XXVIII	Aid to the prevention of tidal wave damage in Sanriku districts	63,663
XXIX	Aid to the rehabilitation of Hakodaté	302,157
XXX	Temporary secretarial expenses	309,659
XXXI	Aid to local governments for the rehabilitation works in areas affected by natural calamities	10,137,000
	Sum total	243,801,699

Department of Finance

I	Buildings and repairs	15,588,899
II	Investigations	1,145,734
III	Extraordinary financial and economic investigation and adjustment expenses	391,565
IV	Compilation of the financial history of the Meiji and Taisho eras	25,351
V	Clerical work concerning reparations	50,617
VI	Control of gold	36,432
VII	Compensation of principal and interest of the 4% Chinese loan	3,845,616
VIII	Aid to advances to shipbuilding works	2,361,262
IX	Residues of bonds given to lords instead of their feuds	250
X	Special increase of salaries	89,880
XI	Extraordinary control of foreign exchange	465,892
XII	Extraordinary expenses for the Board of Audit	16,300
XIII	Preservation of the Cabinet documents	7,959
XIV	Extraordinary examination for lawyers	5,809
XV	Urgent expenses for the unification and utilization of natural resources	363,846
XVI	Clerical expenses for the promotion of Tohoku districts	39,628
XVII	Aid to the dividend of the Tohoku Promotion Corporation	1,492,192
XVIII	Office of the 2600th Anniversary	49,752
XIX	Special institution for diplomatic communications	3,023,640
XX	Extraordinary clerical expenses anent pension	145,542
XXI	Rewards in connection with the Manchurian Incident	4,266,586
XXII	Bureau for Manchurian Affairs	5,910
XXIII	Celebration of the 50th anniversary of the promulgation of the Imperial Constitutions	9,500
XXIV	Board of Audit	152,394
XXV	Adjustment of State property	430,481
XXVI	Reconstruction of buildings damaged by earthquakes	542,592
XXVII	Extraordinary supervision of custom houses	30,120
XXVIII	Control of exports of cotton fabrics	10,355
XXIX	Extraordinary control of foreign trade	139,384
XXX	Levy of Special Profits Tax	1,184,092
XXXI	Promotion of National Savings	681,182
XXXII	Issuance of Petty Notes	2,820,000
XXXIII	Transfer to the Special Account for Military Expenses	351,923,720
XXXIV	Conversion of old convertible Bank Notes	2,000,000
XXXV	Payment to the capital of the South Manchuria Railway Co.	40,000,000
XXXVI	Construction of school buildings for Japanese in Manchoukuo	1,050,000
XXXVII	Subsidies	1,565,000
	Sum total	435,957,482

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Department of War

I	Buildings and repairs		826,109
II	Completion of national defence	Total	138,721,164
	Repairs of fortresses		8,958,436
	Armaments		129,762,728
III	Grounds and buildings		584,000
IV	Land survey		260,000
V	Reconstructions in the quake-stricken districts		1,894,525
VI	Bridges, ranges, etc.		2,631,998
VII	Use of land and buildings		68,357
VIII	Map printing		444,750
IX	Temporary grants		101,890
X	Subsidies for automobile manufacture		251,502
XI	Aid to the Ex-service Men's Association		700,000
XII	Improvement of Air Corps		99,482,771
XIII	Improvements in armies		64,571,067
XIV	Special increase of salaries		632,201
XV	Rewards anent the Manchurian Incident		238,203
XVI	Repairs of Damages		560,000
XVII	Purchase of land for Military Airports		100,000
	Sum total		312,068,537

Department of Marine

I	Construction of ships	239,724,625
II	Equipments in ports, schools, hospitals and factories	43,372,316
III	Equipments of air forces	8,732,155
IV	Equipments of ships	56,030,424
V	Armaments	7,864,000
VI	Buildings and repairs	999,062
VII	Entrusted repairs	160,129
VIII	Drawings and books	146,961
IX	Technical and chemical studies	5,677,916
X	Temporary grants	283,040
XI	Allotment of the International Hydrographic Bureau	5,579
XII	Reinstallation of quake-damaged war-machines	200,000
XIII	Despatch of ships	180,000
XIV	Drawing weather charts, etc.	49,663
XV	Special increase of salaries	537,865
XVI	Educational armaments	2,000,000
XVII	Books	19,000
XVIII	Capital of the Naval Fuel Depot	500,000
XIX	Entrusted marine survey	150,000
XX	Movable Meteorological Observation Facilities	94,032
	Sum total	366,726,767

Department of Justice

I	Investigations on laws	36,224
II	Buildings and repairs	538,198
III	Prevention of thought crimes	928,839
IV	Officiating debt arbitration cases	785,771
V	Extraordinary prison expenses	1,104,328
VI	Judicial system investigation committee	13,500
VII	Improvement of judicial police	243,477
VIII	Enforcement of the revised Commercial Law	4,750
IX	Arbitration of tenant disputes and register of landed farmers	173,824
X	Investigation Committee for Judicial System	13,500
XI	Arbitration of Matrinominal Troubles	128,159
XII	The 50th Anniversary of the Establishment of the Court Organization Law	20,000
XIII	Prosecution of Actions against the Election Law	123,231
	Sum total	4,113,801

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Department of Education

I	Buildings and repairs	1,942,133
II	Compilation of a history of the Imperial House system	9,900
III	Compilation of historical materials of the Meiji Restoration	111,720
IV	Training of meteorologists	58,817
V	Extraordinary investigations	279,711
VI	Extraordinary lectures	162,000
VII	Travelling expenses of delegates to international conferences	31,100
VIII	Subsidies to various educational and cultural bodies	1,762,950
IX	Earthquake rehabilitation work	1,718,340
X	Extraordinary disbursement for universities and libraries	4,708,747
XI	Social education	72,000
XII	Extraordinary expenses for the preservation of national treasures	163,669
XIII	Repair and protection of the Himéji Castle	43,000
XIV	Extraordinary expenses for historical places	54,842
XV	Investigation and protection of important art productions	18,856
XVI	Propaganda for National Mobilization	700,000
XVII	Extraordinary expenses for encouragement of school attendance	1,051,828
XVIII	Extraordinary Education of industrial technicists	2,479,205
XIX	Education of high grade seamen	4,500
XX	Extraordinary expenses for the training of young men	397,000
XXI	Extraordinary expenses for thought guidance	47,000
XXII	Improvement of school education	72,000
XXIII	Improvement of meteorological stations	308,300
XXIV	Extraordinary expenses for health protection of elementary school teachers	125,000
XXXV	Extraordinary expenses for equipments	27,693
XXVI	Reconstruction of elementary schools in typhoon stricken districts	240,421
XXVII	Meteorological facilities	567,185
XXVIII	Investigation of historical places of Emperor Jimmu and the establishment of Historical Hall	21,160
XXIX	Extraordinary increase of allowances of students abroad	61,661
XXX	Repairs of damages	33,273
	Sum total	17,274,011

Department of Agriculture and Forestry

I	Subsidies for agricultural and fishery enterprises	44,395,787
II	Promotion of farm-villages	4,384,925
III	Investigations and studies	1,845,994
IV	Buildings and repairs	979,963
V	Prevention of live-stock plagues and noxious insects	1,160,583
VI	Improvement of water-courses in forestry	6,555,483
VII	Public forestry enterprises	2,080,085
VIII	Private forestry enterprises	3,678,137
IX	Superintending of game preserves	22,003
X	Improvement of fishery enterprises	2,270,762
XI	Protection of fur-seals	210,234
XII	Fishery registration	6,847
XIII	Adjustment of coastal fishery grounds	33,696
XIV	Control of fisheries in foreign seas	197,956
XV	Enforcement of the Russo-Japanese Fishery Treaty	46,283
XVI	Inspection of Tsingtao meats	29,561
XVII	Reclamation of farm-land	443,270
XVIII	Survey for water-course control	57,387
XIX	Transfer to several Special Accounts	754,166
XX	Economic recovery of farm-villages	15,155,070
XXI	Subsidies to the land cultivation of landed-farmers	6,878,512
XXII	Subsidies to the rice self-control	569,000

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XXIII	Improvement of mulberry plantations	237,572
XXIV	Irrigation and drainage works	45,500
XXV	Land cultivation in Tohoku districts	298,230
XXVI	Cultivation of Kawaminami Valley	92,000
XXVII	Protection forests	850,000
XXVIII	Disaster rehabilitation works	4,237,958
XXIX	Aid for industrial recovery in disaster stricken districts	3,378
XXX	Prevention of tidal-waves in Sanriku districts	58,338
XXXI	Promotion of Okinawa (Loochoo) Prefecture	1,443,824
XXXII	Promotion of Oshima county, Kagoshima	357,924
XXXIII	Cultivation of land in North-eastern districts	148,190
XXXIV	Grants to Tohoku prefectures where State forests are located	211,903
XXXV	Funding the Central Chest for Cooperative Associations	500,000
XXXVI	Special increase of salaries	16,058
	Sum total	100,256,779

Department of Commerce and Industry

I	Promotion of foreign trade	9,924,924
II	For self-support of liquid fuel	17,517,411
III	Promotion of industrial arts production and improvement of manufactures in smaller factories	451,875
IV	Finance for smaller merchants and industrialists	106,299
V	Promotion of smaller commerce	522,861
VI	Promotion of smaller industries	560,400
VII	Promotion of industries	1,893,156
VIII	Promotion of mining	1,254,647
IX	Promotion of iron industry	2,727,311
X	Promotion of enterprises in connection with industries	4,560,022
XI	Investigations and studies	548,271
XII	Buildings and repairs	2,812,750
XIII	Extraordinary readjustment works	39,184
XIV	Enforcement of the new weights and measures law	8,895
XV	Examinations and dispositions at the Patent Bureau	442,382
XVI	Extraordinary examination	31,642
XVII	Promotion of Okinawa prefecture	18,480
XVIII	Promotion of Oshima county, Kagoshima	25,262
XIX	Committee meeting for the valuation of iron foundries	6,300
XX	Supervision of the International Exhibition at the 2,600th anniversary proposed to be held at Tokyo in 1940	31,182
XXI	Extraordinary subsidies	11,600,000
XXII	Subsidy to the Imperial Fuel Manufacturing Company for the payment of dividend	1,657,186
XXIII	Distribution of imported and exported goods	123,457
XXIV	Disposition of funds	85,811
XXV	Control of gold	83,352
XXVI	Registration of mining companies	151,512
XXVII	For taking part in the Golden Gate and New York International Expositions	975,461
XXVIII	Promotion of Industries for Substitutes and Collection of Materials	1,464,471
XXIX	Control of the relation between demand and supply	496,773
XXX	Aid to the Miner Business Men who were called out to servises	741,450
XXXI	Subsidies for the Promotion of manufacture of artificial arms and legs	20,000
XXXII	Temporary control of the distribution of commodities	638,017
XXXIII	Aids for changing profession	6,353,798
XXXIV	Re-redemption of the Loss to the Loans for the Minor Businss-men in the affected areas	13,823
XXXV	Guidance of combustion facilities	50,000
XXXVI	Temporary expenses abroad	15,618
XXXVII	Temporary expenses for economic control	190,000
	Sum total	68,143,983

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Department of Communications

I	Subsidies and encouragements for shipping and air transportation	18,108,188
II	Improvement in the use of electric power in farm-villages	128,798
III	Investigation on water-course control	210,349
IV	Secretarial expenses in the Investment for Electric Establishments	31,909
V	Subsidies for the Promotion of Gold Mine and Electric Enterprises	1,695,282
VI	Special studies at the Electro-technical Laboratory	274,339
VII	Investigation on steel for shipbuilding	19,389
VIII	Improvement of ships	39,524
IX	Subsidies for shipbuilding	8,471,311
X	Temporary Control of ships	75,294
XI	Registration of Mariners	30,190
XII	Compensation of damages inflicted by the China Affair on the Capital of Companies	124,934
XIII	Establishment and repair of Lighthouses	300,000
XIV	Meteorological facilities at Lighthouses	313,779
XV	Extraordinary training of aviators	2,616,000
XVI	Establishment and repair of Airports	2,450,315
XVII	Training of aviators	11,183,278
XVIII	Examination of aeroplanes	1,179,324
XIX	Establishment of the central air-transport research institution	3,290,000
XX	Preparation or the Opening of International Airways	13,238
XXI	Buildings and repairs	81,946
XXII	Machines	351,500
XXIII	Travelling Expenses of Japanese Delegates to International Councils	7,035
	Sum total	50,995,922

Department of Overseas Affairs

I	Training of emigrants	105,667
II	Subsidies for emigrants and overseas enterprises	2,384,463
III	Emigrants to Manchoukuo	23,220,780
IV	Committees	15,000
V	Enterprises on cotton and wool	219,152
VI	Control of the relation between demand and supply	41,452
VII	Aid to the Colonial Exhibition Hall	20,000
VIII	Aid to Chosen Government-General	12,904,313
IX	Special increase of salaries	8,474
X	General national mental mobilization	12,918
XI	Funding the Manchuria Development Company	5,010,000
	Sum total	43,942,219

Department of Welfare

I	Subsidies	2,898,860
II	Buildings and repairs	557,568
III	Investigation on medical system	256,881
IV	National physical strength standardization facilities	1,026,513
V	National parks	63,102
VI	Medical relief	780,000
VII	Improvement of the physical conditions of infants	450,000
VIII	Sanitary enterprises	1,888,621
IX	Prevention of epidemics	1,427,351
X	Special diseases prevention measures	230,000
XI	Medical Relief	600,000
XII	Help for Koreans	80,000
XIII	Local improvements	1,405,639

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XIV	Prevention of factory calamities and promotion of sanitary equipment in factories and mines	42,729
XV	Harmonization of race	150,000
XVI	Labour Exchanges	3,072,137
XVII	Temporary Measures for the Relief of Unemployment	3,397,352
XVIII	Temporary Military Relief	19,097,601
XIX	Protection of Wounded Soldiers	15,646,083
XX	Promotion of Okinawa Prefecture	150,000
XXI	National Athletic Meetings in honour of the Meiji Shrine	250,000
	Sum total	53,470,437
	Total of Extraordinary Expenditure	1,731,689,478
	Grand total of Expenditure	3,694,666,976

SPECIAL ACCOUNTS

(In yen)

Ministry	Special Accounts	Revenue	Expenditure
Foreign Affairs	Cultural Work for China	7,203,242	1,406,332
Finance	Mint Bureau	23,305,677	7,512,675
,,	Mint Bureau, Fund Section	24,085,727	74,520,951
,,	Printing Bureau	27,528,662	23,220,661
,,	Monopoly Bureau	549,360,081	325,460,524
,,	Deposits Bureau	235,903,245	170,193,078
,,	Educational Fund	21,739	—
,,	National Debt Readjustment Fund	4,135,422,339	4,135,422,339
,,	National Loans	1,082,863,981	1,082,863,981
,,	State Property Readjustment Fund	3,586,505	1,180,321
,,	Educational Improvement and Farmvillages Economic Development Fund	6,698,948	6,926,813
,,	Gold fund	45,871,698	16,490,417
,,	Kwantung Bureau	33,277,220	33,277,220
War	Arsenal	232,874,220	232,874,220
,,	Senju Woollen Factory	4,857,887	4,852,061
Marine	Capital of Naval Dockyards	109,301,056	108,109,830
,,	Naval Explosives Factory	11,475,276	11,225,276
,,	Naval Fuel Depot	43,820,693	43,561,914
Education	Six Imperial Universities	35,045,966	35,045,966
,,	Imperial Universities Endowment Funds	12,804,495	5,298,094
,,	Government colleges	12,633,033	12,633,033
,,	Government Colleges Endowment Funds	466,695	818,150
,,	Schools and libraries	20,110,206	20,110,206
,,	Schools and Libraries Endowment Funds	155,153	2,126,147
Agriculture and Forestry	Rice Trade Control	224,251,604	224,251,604
,,	Silk Price Control	7,671,753	7,671,753
,,	Forestry Re-insurance	781,265	781,265
,,	Forests Fire Insurance	331,550	331,550
,,	Fishing Boats Re-insurance	454,991	454,991
,,	Live Stock Re-insurance	704,371	704,371
Communications	Communications business, funds	67,952,180	78,517,604
,,	Communications business, necessaries	58,928,342	58,928,342
,,	Communications business operation	439,946,310	405,258,098
Railways	State Railways, capital account	296,606,988	308,506,988
,,	State Railways, necessaries account	391,467,000	391,467,000
,,	State Railways, earnings account	1,279,314,463	1,071,207,475
Overseas Affairs	Chosen Government-General	643,244,202	643,244,202
,,	Chosen Railways, necessaries fund	100,200,477	100,200,477
,,	Chosen P. O. Life Insurance	21,057,447	11,402,664
,,	Taiwan Government-General	203,222,613	203,222,613
,,	Control of Exportation to Japan proper of the Formosa rice	66,061,360	64,120,967

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Ministry	Special Accounts	Revenue	Expenditure
Overseas Affairs (continued)	Taiwan Government Railways necessaries fund	8,000,000	8,000,000
„	Karafuto Government	46,747,712	46,747,712
„	South Seas Government	10,493,152	10,493,152
Welfare	Health Insurance	43,059,100	43,059,100
„	Labour Accident Legal Insurance	5,684,874	5,684,874
„	P.O. Life Insurance	389,164,202	199,933,883
„	P.O. Annuity	25,362,469	9,023,055

I. SUPPLEMENTARY BUDGET FOR 1939-40

(In yen)

General Account

Revenue	
Ordinary revenue, miscellaneous	4,854,111
Extraordinary revenue, miscellaneous	905,689,826
Total revenue	910,543,937
Ordinary expenditure	
Ministry of Finance	55,640,382
Ministry of War	31,694,117
Ministry of Marine	5,510,670
Total of ordinary expenditure	92,845,169
Extraordinary expenditure	
Ministry of Finance	187,403,112
Ministry of War	462,996,656
Ministry of Marine	167,299,000
Total of extraordinary expenditure	817,698,768
Total of expenditure	910,543,937

Special Accounts

Ministry	Special Account	Revenue	Expenditure
Finance	Monopoly Bureau	978,886	913,664
„	National Loan Adjustment Fund	54,379,862	54,379,862
„	Loan Money	4,652,115,326	4,652,115,326
„	National Property Adjustment Fund	4,372,978	4,372,978
„	Kwantung Bureau	1,063,437	879,166
War	Arsenal	1,278,029,922	1,278,029,922
„	Senju Woollen Factory	6,805,197	6,805,197
Marine	Capital of Naval Dockyards	97,243,988	97,243,988
„	Naval Explosives Factory	30,984,224	30,984,224
„	Naval Fuel Depot	11,731,272	11,731,272
Communications	Communication business, operation	2,534,400	2,534,400
Overseas Affairs	Chosen Government-General	10,951,423	8,873,928
„	Taiwan Government-General	1,844,386	1,551,463
„	Karafuto Government	324,022	267,915

II. SUPPLEMENTARY BUDGET FOR 1939-40

(In yen)

General Account

Revenue	
Ordinary revenue, miscellaneous	343,301
Extraordinary revenue, miscellaneous	198,989,313
Total revenue	199,332,614
Ordinary expenditure	
Ministry of	
Foreign Affairs	402,709
Home Affairs	516,226
Finance	1,823,192
Justice	202,421
Education	4,760,605
Agriculture and Forestry	54,775
Commerce and Industry	122,572
Communications	14,355,907
Welfare	89,946
Total	22,328,353
Extraordinary expenditure	
Ministry of	
Foreign Affairs	2,050,902
Home Affairs	39,185,615
Finance	48,235,509
War	10,000,000
Justice	153,645
Education	4,514,540
Agriculture and Forestry	28,973,470
Commerce and Industry	22,181,705
Communications	517,997,477
Overseas Affairs	767,124
Health and Social Affairs	2,944,274
Total	177,004,261
Grand total of expenditure	199,332,614

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III. SUPPLEMENTARY BUDGET FOR 1939-40

(In yen)

Special Accounts

Ministry	Special Accounts	Revenue	Expenditure
Foreign Affairs	Cultural Work for China	—	250,000
Finance	National Loan Adjustment Fund	1,689,667	1,689,667
,,	Loan money	190,492,335	190,492,335
,,	National Property Adjustment Fund	—	92,817
,,	Gold Fund	2,049,000	6,172,468
,,	Kwantung Bureau	—	34,881
Education	Six Imperial Universities	721,019	721,019
,,	Schools and libraries	1,566,093	1,566,093
,,	Imperial Universities Endowment Funds	5,600,000	2,450,000
Agriculture and Forestry	Control of demand and supply of cereals	3,750,000	3,750,000
Overseas Affairs	Chosen Government-General	1,904,303	3,981,798
,,	Taiwan Government-General	3,535,001	3,827,924
,,	Karafuto Government	1,662,031	1,718,138
,,	South Seas Government	448,105	346,083

SPECIAL MILITARY EXPENSES

Revenue	4,605,000,000
Expenditure	4,605,000,000

Actual Amount of the 1939-40 Budget

According to the statement made by the Finance Ministry on May 25, 1939, the estimated revenue for the 1939-40 fiscal year is ¥8,380,738,000 and the estimated expenditure ¥8,123,621,000. These figures are obtained by deducting overlapping funds in the general account and in the special accounts (which there are 40 different kinds). When it is compared with the 1938-39 Budget the increase of revenue is ¥2,052,493,000 and that of expenditure ¥2,031,145,000. If the ¥4,605,000,000 for the special account for extraordinary military expenses and the special account for extraordinary military material purchasing funds, which was approved by the Diet, this year, without fixing the year of disbursement, is added to the above, as it may be expended in the current fiscal year, the total amount will reach ¥12,985,738,000 for revenue and ¥12,728,621,000 for expenditure, increasing ¥1,770,902,000 and ¥1,786,145,000 respectively over the similar figures for the 1938-39 Budget.

The process by which these figures are computed is outlined as follows in terms of ¥1,000:

	Revenue	Expenditure
General Account	4,804,543	4,804,543
Special Accounts	17,356,159	16,616,120
Total	22,160,702	21,420,664
Overlap deductions	5,097,026	4,614,105
Remainder	17,063,675	16,806,558
Further deductions;		
1. Transfer deductions (to special arms accounts)	4,586,690	4,586,690
2. Transfer deductions (payment to the extraordinary military account for materials, by other military special accounts)	1,051,549	1,051,549
3. Deduction of the Rice note redemption	2,997,669	2,997,669
4. Deduction of the Silk note redemption	47,027	47,027
Total deduction	8,682,937	8,682,937
Net total after all deductions	8,380,738	8,123,621

National Debts

Internal Loans Five per cent loan. This loan was issued mainly for the construction and improvement of the Imperial Railways, the compensation for and purchase of private railways, the colonization of Chösen, Taiwan, Karafuto and Kwantung Province, the relief of Japanese subjects suffering war

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losses, rewards for distinguished services during the war in 1914–15, retiring allowances in connection with both the administrative readjustment and the reduction of armaments, compensation payments resulting from the reduction of the Army and Navy, the reconstruction works in Tokyo and Yokohama necessitated by the Earthquake disaster, compensation for loss sustained by the Bank of Japan in discounting Earthquake Bills, compensation for losses sustained in the accommodation extended to banking institutions in Taiwan and other undertakings and various grants. The total issue amounted to ¥2,239,377,375 of which ¥387,855,925 has already been redeemed, and ¥1,851,521,450 was still unredeemed at the end of March, 1938.

Five per cent loan ("Kō"). This loan was issued during 1908–09 for the purpose of meeting the purchase price of railways owned by seventeen private companies. The total issue amounted to ¥476,318,800, of which part has been redeemed, and ¥396,695,400 left unredeemed. The principal private railways in our country were purchased outright through the proceeds of this loan and were then unified into one State system.

Five per cent loan ("Onshi"). This loan, amounting to ¥30,000,000, was created at the time of the annexation of Chōsen by Imperial Ordinance No.327 of 1910, and the bonds were specially granted to the Korean peers and to public corporations of the Peninsula to provide funds for promoting industries and education and for famine relief.

Four per cent loan (1st and 2nd Series). In order to consolidate the national debt, the Government planned the conversion into low-interest loans of the outstanding five per cent domestic loans issued before 1905, and with this end in view issued in the home market with better results than had been anticipated two series of four per cent loans amounting to ¥100,000,000 each. As all the five per cent loan bonds previously issued were accepted in place of cash in subscriptions for the four per cent loans, such receipts amounted to ¥64,467,500 in the first issue of the four per cent loans and to ¥86,612,920 in the second. In addition to the total issue of ¥200,000,000 mentioned above, there was a loan of the first issue amounting to ¥76,220,500 which was delivered in place of cash to the bondholders of various five per cent loans.

Four per cent loan. In accordance with the provisions of Law No. 16 of 1933, the Government issued in December, 1933, a 4 per cent loan with a total face-value of ¥8,145,550. The object of the loan was to deliver to the Industrial Bank of Japan those loan bonds to be appropriated for the increase, arising out of the decline in the yen exchange, in the principal and interest charges of the Industrial Bank of Japan 5 per cent Sterling Debentures which were issued in 1908 for the purpose of making advances to the Korean Government for the development of enterprises in that country. Further issues were made to the amount of ¥65,180,675 in 1934, ¥9,368,875 in 1935 and ¥13,175 in 1936 for such purposes as the purchase of raw silk given as security in the case of accommodation of funds made by banks, the purchase of private railways, compensation payments to private railways and tramways, the purchase of private camphor manufacturing factories in Taiwan, and rewards for distinguished services in the Manchurian incident. The total issues from 1933 to 1936 thus amounted to ¥82,708,275 of which ¥3,325 was redeemed, and ¥82,704,900 remained outstanding at the end of the fiscal year 1937-38.

Three and a half per cent loan.

This loan was issued to the amount of ¥35,356,300 in 1936 and ¥21,584,550 in 1937 for such purposes as the purchase of raw silk given as security in the case of accommodation of funds made by banks, the development of public undertakings in Chosen, the purchase of private railways, and compensation payments to private railways and tramways, and rewards for distinguished services in the Manchurian incident. Of the total issues from 1936 to 1937 amounting to ¥56,940,850, ¥2,000 was redeemed and ¥56,938,850 remained outstanding at the end of the fiscal year 1937-38.

Four and a half per cent Exchequer Bonds. These bonds were issued in order to enable the Government to meet expenditures in connection with the Manchurian incident, the extension of the telegraph and telephone system, improvement of roads, reconstruction works necessitated by the Earthquake of 1923, construction and improvement of railways, various public undertakings in Chōsen, Taiwan, Kwantung Province and Karafuto, and the covering of revenue deficits in the General Account. The total issues from 1932 to March 1933 reached ¥715,000,000.

Four per cent Exchecquer Bonds. These bonds were issued for the first

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time in 1933 for the same purpose as that of the four and a half per cent Exchequer Bonds mentioned above. The total amount of issue reached ¥3,070,-424,000 during the fiscal years 1933–34 to 1935–36.

Three and a half per cent Exchequer Bonds.

These bonds were issued to convert the 5 per cent. Exchequer Bonds, to defray the expenditure in connection with the Manchurian incident, to cover revenue deficits, to finance reconstruction works necessitated by the earthquake of 1923, to improve roads, to develop public undertakings in Chōsen, to construct and improve Government railways, to expand the postal, telegraph and telephone services, and to defray the expenditure for the China incident. The issues amounted to ¥2,-837,590,000 in the fiscal year 1936-37, and to ¥2,230,000,000 in the fiscal year 1937-38, giving a total of ¥5,067,590,000. Of this, ¥3,850 was redeemed and ¥5,067,-586,150 remained outstanding at the end of the fiscal year 1937-38.

External Loans Four per cent Sterling Loan of 1899 (1st Series). For the purpose of meeting the expenditures required for the construction of railways, improvement of the existing Government railways, construction of railways in the Hokkaido, steel manufacture, and extension of the telephone system, and in accordance with the provisions of the Railway Construction Law (Law No. 4, 1892), the Public Undertakings Loan Regulations (Law No. 59, 1896), the Hokkaido Railway Construction Law (Law No. 93, 1896), and Law No. 101, 1899, the Government issued in London in June, 1899, a loan of £10,000,000 at an issue-price of £90 per £100 face-value, the principal of which is, after being left unpaid for ten years from January, 1899, to be redeemed at the option of the Government by means of drawings in forty-five years.

Five per cent Sterling Loan of 1907. For the purpose of consolidating and redeeming the six per cent Sterling Loan of £22,000,000 issued in 1904, the Government raised in March, 1907, a five per cent Loan of £23,000,000 in London and Paris in accordance with the provisions of Law No. 1 of 1904, Law No. 12 of 1905, and Imperial Ordinance No. 23 of 1907. Its issue-price was £99 10s. per £100 face-value, and the principal is to be left unpaid until March 11, 1922 and thereafter to be redeemed at the option of the Government by means of drawings by March 12, 1937. The proceeds of this loan were applied to the redemption of the six per cent Sterling Loan of £22,000,-000.

Four per cent Franc Loan of 1910. The four per cent Franc Loan was issued in Paris in 1910 with the same object as the four per cent Loan issued at home; a portion of its proceeds was appropriated for use as fund for the redemption of domestic loan bonds which were exported abroad, and another portion for use as fund for the redemption of the five per cent loan bonds in circulation at home. The amount of issue was 450,000,000 francs, the rate of interest four per cent, payable on the 15th of May and November every year; the issue-price was 95 francs 50 centimes, and the loan to remain unredeemed for ten years, after which it is to be redeemed within fifty years.

Four per cent Sterling Loan of 1910 (3rd Series). The four per cent Sterling Loan of 1910 was raised for the same purpose as the four per cent loan raised at home and the four per cent Franc Loan of 1910 raised in France, and was employed as fund for the redemption of the indorsed War and five per cent Loans in circulation in London. The amount of issue was £11,000,000, the rate of interest four per cent, payable on the 1st of June and December, the issue-price was £95, and the loan to remain unredeemed for ten years, after which it is to be redeemed within fifty years; and as the object of the loan was the redemption of the indorsed loans above referred to, the latter loan bonds were accepted in place of cash when the former loan was subscribed for.

South Manchuria Railway Sterling Debentures. The South Manchuria Railway Sterling Debentures of 1911 with a total face-value of £6,000,000, the liability for the service of which had been assumed by the Government, fell due on January 1, 1936, and consequently, the greater part of the Debentures was redeemed in cash, while a part was repaid by conversion into domestic loan. The Government has been further authorised by Law No. 34 of 1933 to subscribe to the shares of the Company, and instead of paying cash for the shares, to assume liability for the service of the Sterling Debentures with a total face-value of £4,000,000 issued in 1933 by the Company. Thus, the amount outstanding at the end of March, 1938 was £4,000,000.

Six and a half per cent Gold Bonds of 1924. Partly, for the purpose of redeeming the outstanding Imperial Japanese Government 4½% Sterling Loan of the first and second series, which fell

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due January 15, 1925, and July 10, 1925, respectively and, partly for the purpose of purchasing materials and supplies for reconstruction necessitated by the earthquake and fire of September, 1923, loans with a total face value of 150,000,000 dollars were issued in New York in February, 1924, in accordance with Art. 1 of Law No. 56, 1923 and Art. V of Law No. 6, 1906. The issue-price was 92½ dollars per 100 dollars face-value and the loan is to remain unredeemed for fifteen years, after which it is to be redeemed within fifteen years, namely, by February 1, 1954.

Six per cent Sterling Loan of 1924. Loans with a total face-value of £25,000,000 were issued in London in February, 1924, in accordance with Art. 1 of Law No. 56 promulgated in 1923 and Art. V Law No. 6, in 1906, for the same purpose as the 6½% Loan of 1924 issued in the United States of America. The issue-price was £87½ per £100 face-value and the loan is to remain unredeemed for fifteen years, after which it is to be redeemed within twenty years, namely, by July 10, 1959.

Five and a half per cent Sterling Loan of 1930. For the conversion of the 4% Sterling Loan of 1905, the Government issued a 5½ per cent Sterling Loan of £12,500,000 in London in May, 1930 in accordance with the provisions of Law No. 6 of 1906. The issue-price was £90 per £100 face-value. The principal is to be left unpaid for ten years, after which it is to be redeemed by May 1, 1965.

Five and a half per cent Gold Bonds of 1930. For the conversion of the 4% Sterling Loan of 1905, loans with a total face-value of $71,000,000, were issued in New York in May, 1930 in accordance with Law No. 6 of 1906. The issue-price was $90 per $100 face-value. The loan is to remain unredeemed for ten years, after which it is to be redeemd by May 1, 1965.

AMOUNTS OF THE NATIONAL DEBT RAISED, REDEEMED AND OUTSTANDING

Financial Year	Internal Loans			External Loans		
	Amount issued	Amount redeemed	Amount outstanding at the End of the Financial Year	Amount issued	Amount redeemed	Amount outstanding at te End of the Financial Year
	(In yen)					
1928-29	689,146,350	253,649,800	4,379,965,700	—	2,097,749	1,451,295,357
1929-30	558,942,975	426,300,400	4,512,608,275	—	4,446,545	1,446,848,812
1930-31	265,608,800	301,424,775	4,476,792,300	264,463,500	232,287,852	1,479,024,460
1931-32	457,583,700	219,297,800	4,715,078,200	—	6,445,186	1,472,579,274
1932-33	1,096,744,000	148,068,225	5,663,753,975	—	82,137,698	1,390,444,577
1933-34	1,066,062,000	5,375,850	6,724,440,125	39,052,000	14,895,310	1,414,598,267
1934-35	1,063,126,950	100,056,325	7,687,510,750	—	11,654,994	1,402,943,272
1935-36	1,051,213,500	216,284,500	8,522,439,750	—	71,082,383	1,331,860,889
1936-37	2,871,234,275	2,136,123,075	9,257,550,950	—	14,905,642	1,316,955,247
1937-38	2,259,517,950	12,750	11,516,973,550	—	16,671,659	1,300,283,588

Financial Year	Grand Total					
	Amount issued	Amount redeemed	Amount outstanding at the End of the Financial Year	Amount outstanding compared with the Preceding Year	Debt per Head	Population
			(In yen)			
1928-29	689,146,350	255,747,549	5,831,261,057	(+) 433,394,476	64.735	90,078,333
1929-30	558,942,975	430,746,945	5,959,457,087	(+) 128,196,030	65.263	91,313,232
1930-31	530,072,300	533,712,627	5,955,816,760	(−) 3,640,327	63.716	93,473,579
1931-32	457,583,700	225,742,986	6,187,657,474	(+) 231,840,714	65.450	94,540,100
1932-33	1,096,744,000	230,205,923	7,054,195,552	(+) 866,538,078	74.409	96,093,509
1933-34	1,105,114,000	20,261,160	8,139,038,392	(+)1,084,842,840	83.457	97,523,524
1934-35	1,063,126,950	111,711,319	9,090,454,022	(+) 951,415,630	91.818	99,004,572
1935-36	1,051,213,500	287,366,883	9,854,300,639	(+) 763,846,617	97.416	101,156,118
1936-37	2,871,234,275	2,151,028,717	10,574,506,197	(+) 720,205,557	103.809	102,187,750
1937-38	2,259,517,950	16,684,409	12,817,257,138	(+)2,242,833,541	126.402	101,400,689

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AMOUNT OF NATIONAL DEBTS REDEEMED OUT OF THE NATIONAL DEBT CONSOLIDATION FUND AND BY CONVERSION

Financial Year	Amount redeemed by Consolidation Fund: Internal Loans	External Loans	Total	Amount redeemed by Conversion: Internal Loans	External Loans	Total	Grand Total
				(In yen)			
1928-29	29,247,236	2,097,749	31,344,985	224,401,914	—	224,401,914	255,746,899
1929-30	97,417,113	4,446,545	101,863,658	229,883,287	—	328,883,287	430,746,945
1930-31	151,431,835	5,415,234	156,847,069	149,989,840	226,872,619	376,862,458	533,709,527
1931-32	49,952,097	6,445,185	56,397,283	269,345,403	—	169,345,403	225,742,686
1932-33	8,956,241	23,559,697	32,515,938	139,111,909	58,578,000	197,689,909	230,205,847
1933-34	5,375,850	14,895,310	20,271,160	—	—	—	20,271,160
1934-35	10,068,941	11,654,994	21,723,935	89,987,384	—	89,987,384	111,711,319
1935-36	1,069,291	49,188,823	51,258,114	215,215,209	21,893,559	237,108,768	287,366,882
1936-37	33,177,928	14,905,642	48,083,570	2,102,945,147	—	2,102,945,147	2,151,028,717
1937-38	12,270	16,671,659	16,684,409	—	—	—	16,684,409

AMOUNT OF NATIONAL DEBTS CHARGEABLE TO THE VARIOUS ACCOUNTS

(March 31)

Accounts	1934	1935	1936	1937	1938
		(In yen)			
General Account	5,592,975,453	6,178,511,615	6,894,857,908	7,538,337,617	9,690,894,960
Internal loans	4,284,541,022	4,895,772,852	5,682,935,456	6,341,042,863	8,509,973,948
External loans	1,308,434,431	1,282,738,763	1,211,922,044	1,197,294,754	1,180,921,012
Special Accounts for Government of Chōsen	462,495,657	489,480,524	509,038,362	546,191,185	592,286,214
Internal loans	462,495,657	489,480,524	509,038,362	546,191,185	592,286,214
External loans	—	—	—	—	—
Special Account for Government of Taiwan	126,530,894	129,525,450	128,202,287	127,868,217	126,380,958
Internal loans	109,078,850	112,073,406	110,750,243	110,416,173	108,928,914
External loans	17,452,044	17,452,044	17,452,044	17,452,044	17,452,044
Special Account for Kwantung Government	13,311,706	13,263,537	13,226,379	11,798,817	11,645,391
Internal loans	13,311,706	13,263,537	13,226,379	11,798,817	11,645,391
External loans	—	—	—	—	—
Special Account of Government of Karafuto	37,736,621	37,612,369	37,572,325	37,512,144	37,076,305
Internal loans	37,736,621	37,612,369	37,572,325	37,512,144	37,076,305
External loans	—	—	—	—	—
Special Account for Government of Nanyō	74,554	74,264	73,975	73,113	72,254
Internal loans	74,554	74,264	73,975	73,113	72,254
External loans	—	—	—	—	—
Imperial Railways Special Account	1,879,614,750	1,921,314,177	1,942,297,215	1,971,178,916	1,993,792,018
Internal loans	1,795,511,321	1,837,210,748	1,585,193,786	1,887,075,487	1,909,688,589
External loans	84,103,429	84,103,429	84,103,429	84,103,429	84,103,429
Special Account for Imperial Iron Works	26,298,757	—	—	—	—
Internal loans	21,690,394	—	—	—	—
External loans	4,608,363	—	—	—	—
Special Account for Postal, Telegraph, and Telephone Services	—	320,672,086	329,032,188	341,546,188	365,109,038
Internal loans	—	302,023,050	310,649,221	323,441,168	347,301,935
External loans	—	18,649,036	18,382,967	18,105,020	17,807,103
Grand Total	8,139,038,392	9,090,454,022	9,854,300,639	10,574,506,197	12,817,257,138
Total internal loans	6,724,440,125	7,687,510,750	8,522,439,750	9,257,550,950	11,516,978,550
Total external loans	1,414,598,267	1,402,943,272	1,331,860,889	1,316,955,247	1,300,283,588

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OUTSTANDING NATIONAL DEBTS CLASSIFIED ACCORDING TO THE OBJECTS FOR WHICH THEY WERE RAISED

(March 31)

Items	1936	1937	1938
		(In yen)	
Reorganization of public institutions:			
Feudal pensions capitalized	92,664,804	92,674,768	92,678,409
Economic undertakings:			
Railway construction	1,999,978,684	2,033,118,442	2,078,259,880
Harbour, drainage, road, steel-works, mining, telephone, etc.	313,795,889	327,229,198	364,855,541
Total	2,313,774,573	2,360,347,640	2,443,115,421
Financial adjustment:			
Administrative readjustment and limitation of armament	117,026,967	117,026,867	117,040,067
Redemption of paper money	10,008,205	10,008,052	10,008,018
Increase from conversion	395,623,866	442,631,636	439,658,985
Tobacco and salt monopoly	19,941,175	19,940,960	19,940,951
Total	542,600,213	589,607,515	586,648,021
Reconstruction work in districts damaged by the earthquake	686,948,346	691,146,169	694,931,812
Covering of revenue deficits	1,943,163,100	2,366,237,400	2,721,701,950
Financial accommodation:			
Export bill financing, etc.	387,638,637	367,463,268	367,462,518
Liquidation of the liabilities of three banks with respect to the loan to China	126,649,661	126,649,661	126,649,660
Compensation for loss sustained by the Bank of Japan in discounting earthquake bills and remedial measures, etc.	421,991,694	430,500,335	434,735,785
Total	936,279,992	924,613,264	928,847,963
Military Affairs:			
Completion of armaments	78,825,450	78,824,808	78,824,677
Wars and incidents	2,597,756,246	2,771,135,532	4,518,591,079
Total	2,676,581,696	2,849,960,340	4,597,415,756
Development of new territories:			
Taiwan	126,891,206	126,890,820	126,890,675
Chōsen	494,249,568	531,881,140	583,879,990
Karafuto	25,738,231	35,738,231	35,738,231
Kwantung Leased Territory	5,408,910	5,408,910	5,408,910
Total	662,287,915	699,919,101	751,917,806
Grand Total	9,854,300,639	10,574,506,197	12,817,257,138

State Property

(1) The Legal Definition and Categories of State Property.

State Property mentioned above is defined under Article 1 of the State Property Law, promulgated by Law No. 43 in April, 1921 as follows:

"The State Property under this Law includes all the State-owned real estate and such movable estate and rights belonging to the State as provided in the Imperial Ordinance."

Article 1 of the Imperial Ordinance No. 15 concerning the State Property Law defines, however, State movable estate and rights that are State Property in the following manner:

"The following State-owned movable estate and rights are to be State Property as provided in Article 1 of the State Property Law:

(a) Ships, floats, floating piers and floating docks.

(b) Appendages of real estate or movable estate given in (a).

(c) Machine and important equipment in Government factories such as iron works, shipbuilding yards, arsenals, the mint, tobacco mills and railways.

(d) Surface rights, servitudes, mining rights, alluvial mineral rights and other rights similar to these rights.

(e) Rights relating to stocks and investments.

The scope of the term "factory" under (c) above is to be determined by the respective Ministers after consultation with the Minister of Finance."

State-owned movable estate and rights, such as, cash, deposits, loans, common fixtures and books, for instance, not

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mentioned in the above provisions are therefore State Property in substance, but do not come under the provisions of this Law.

Article 2 of the State Property Law divides State Property into four classes, namely, Public Property, Official Property, Property used for Forestry Management and Miscellaneous Property. Public Property is that directly used or to be used for public service by the State; Official Property is that used or to be used, by the State, for Shinto Shrines, or for State service and enterprises or for residences of officials and other personnel; Property used for Forestry Management is that used or to be used, by the State, for the management of forests, while Miscellaneous Property is that not belonging to these three categories.

(2) The Legal Limitation of the Content of the "State Property Account" and its Categories.

Article 26 of the State Property Law requires the Government to make a yearly statement of the increase or decrease in the State Property, and, every fifth year, to issue a comprehensive report covering the entire property for the period; and both these statements are to undergo examination by the Auditing Board and then to be presented to the Imperial Diet.

The following are, however, excluded from the statements :—

(a) Movable estate and rights owned by the State; but not subject to the provisions of the Imperial Ordinance, that is, State Property in reality if not in law (Art. 1, State Property Law; Art. 1, Imperial Ordinance concerning the State Property Law).

(b) Public Property (Art. 28, State Property Law).

(c) The value of lands used for religious purposes by Buddhist temples, the public land of public corporations and of sites of Shinto shrines (Art. 2 and 5, Ordinance No. 14, Department of Finance).

The figures given in the following table are based on these official statements of State Property, and accordingly, the total value of the property owned by the Imperial Japanese Government including State Property mentioned in (a)—(c) above will be much higher than the figures given in this table. It should be noted that the Government, recognizing that it was expedient to apply the State Property Law to Chosen, Taiwan, Karafuto, Kwantung Province, and Nanyo (Mandated Territory in the North Pacific), put this Law into effect as from April 1, 1937, and the property in these regions was included in the Statements of the financial year 1937. Further, as there prevails an opinion that the value and volume of property mentioned in (b) and (c) should be given in the statements, they will be included therein in the near future.

(3) Administration of State Property.

The administrative service over State Property includes both direct management and general administration, the former under the direction of the respective Departments, the latter under the Minister of Finance. Each Minister administers the State Property of his Department; but the Minister of Finance also undertakes, as the competent Minister, the general management of all the Property and, thus, unifies the direct management by each Minister, keeping one in touch with the other, so as to secure the full use of the Property.

(4) Increase or Decrease in State Property.

The increase in the total value of State Property is attributed to such factors as the purchase, expropriation and contribution of property, construction of buildings and ships, and the acquisition of rights (acquisition of real estate without owner, acquisition of stocks and of rights due to investment, establishment of surface rights, etc.), while the decrease in property is due to the sale, conveyance without compensation, exchange and collapse of property, and extinction of rights (extinctive prescription, reduction of capital, etc.). Moreover, the re-valuation of property made every fifth year causes an increase or decrease in the total value of State Property.

(5) The Funds from the Adjustment of State Property.

With the exception of receipts coming under other special accounts and those from the disposition of State forests and plains or of uncultivated places in the Hokkaidō, the receipts from the adjustment and disposition of State Property and other miscellaneous receipts constitute the Funds from the Adjustment of State Property and the revenue and expenditure are segregated in a Special Account.

These funds are transferred to the General Account and then, in addition to being used for building and repair and other expenditure necessary for the adjustment of State Property, are, in case of necessity, used for purposes other than those mentioned above in accordance with the Budget Estimates (Articles 1—4, Special Account Law for Funds from the Adjustment of State

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Property by Law No. 6, 1922; Exceptions in the Special Account Law for Funds from the Adjustment of State Property by Law No. 15, 1927).

The following are the statistics of revenue and expenditure in the Funds from the Adjustment of State Property for the financial years 1928-29 to 1938-39:

Financial Years	Revenue	Expenditure
	(In yen)	
1928-29	11,373,386	15,913,470
1929-30	9,349,573	9,102,751
1930-31	6,439,664	6,237,805
1931-32	4,870,211	5,963,898
1932-33	4,755,566	5,823,635
1933-34	5,973,512	6,198,998
1934-35	7,523,004	6,786,056
1935-36	6,812,346	3,470,679
1936-37	8,459,373	5,269,417
1937-38	7,994,559	4,528,542
1938-39	6,120,854	2,160,934

Note:—The figures for the financial years 1928-29 to 1937-38 represent the settled accounts, but those for 1938-39 and 1937-38 the budget estimates.

STATE PROPERTY

March 31st	General Account: Official Property	General Account: Property used for Forestry Management	General Account: Miscellaneous Property	General Account: Total	Inc. (+) or Dec. (−) as compared with preceding year.	Special Account: Official Property
			(In yen)			
1928	2,617,192,682	1,795,825,964	385,461,617	4,798,480,264	+ 68,658,051	2,700,178,085
1929	2,737,794,793	1,784,353,468	392,494,216	4,914,642,478	+116,162,214	2,918,388,591
1930	2,840,813,702	1,793,045,341	383,121,552	5,016,980,596	+102,338,117	3,094,085,905
1931	2,916,676,775	1,782,178,124	384,622,880	5,083,477,781	+ 66,497,185	3,227,373,063
1932	2,974,318,652	1,384,436,336	361,723,578	4,720,478,566	−362,999,214	3,279,832,605
1933	3,079,326,852	1,375,325,433	384,653,842	4,839,306,128	+118,827,561	3,352,889,831
1934	3,242,826,050	1,374,297,419	696,066,882	5,313,190,353	+473,884,224	3,279,527,024
1935	2,896,185,956	1,371,906,691	703,450,479	4,971,543,127	−341,647,225	4,007,400,131
1936	3,036,003,966	1,376,098,868	702,982,189	5,115,085,025	+143,541,897	4,147,726,762
1937	3,216,301,730	1,823,450,033	723,746,836	5,763,498,600	+648,413,575	5,273,861,500

March 31st	Special Accounts: Property used for Forestry Management	Special Accounts: Miscellaneous Property	Special Accounts: Total	Special Accounts: Inc. (+) or Dec. (−) as compared with preceding year	Grand Total	Inc. (+) or Dec. (−) as compared with the total of preceding year
			(In yen)			
1928	—	4,753,346	2,704,931,432	+177,504,922	7,503,411,696	+246,162,973
1929	—	3,958,885	2,922,347,476	+217,416,044	7,836,989,955	+333,578,258
1930	—	319,474	3,094,405,380	+172,057,903	8,111,385,976	+274,396,022
1931	—	690,032	3,228,063,095	+133,657,714	8,311,540,876	+200,154,900
1932	—	190,171	3,280,022,777	+ 51,959,681	8,000,501,343	−311,039,533
1933	—	533,856	3,353,423,688	+ 73,400,911	8,192,729,816	+192,228,472
1934	—	330,052	3,279,857,076	− 73,566,611	8,593,047,429	+400,317,613
1935	—	378,898	4,007,779,029	+727,921,952	8,979,322,157	+386,274,727
1936	—	398,929	4,148,125,691	+140,346,661	9,263,210,716	+283,888,559
1937	157,574,531	233,461,281	5,664,897,313	+1,516,771,622	11,428,395,914	+2,165,185,198

Note:—

(1) The figures for 1928 to 1931 were computed by adding the increase in the value of State property in each financial year to the appraised value of 1933.

(2) The following are excluded from this table: (a) State movable estate and rights not provided in the of Shinto shrines, and (d) public land of public corporations.

(3) As from April 1, 1937, the State Property Law was also put into operation in Chosen, Taiwan, Karafuto, Kwantung Province, and the Mandated South Ses Islands.

Appendix—The value of State Property under the jurisdiction of our colonial Governments on March 31, 1936 is as follows:

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Government of Chōsen	¥ 664,179,205
Government of Taiwan	312,433,468
Government of Karafuto	50,726,345
Government of Kwantung	158,010,446
Government of Nanyo (Mandated South Sea Islands)	20,343,824
Total	1,205,693,288

Note:—This table indicates only the value of State-owned real estate and ships and their equipment, but excludes the value of Public Property.

CAPITAL AND EXPENDITURE FOR WAY AND WORKS OF THE IMPERIAL RAILWAYS

Compiled by the Department of Railways

Amount of Capital

Financial Year	Capital originally owned	Borrowed Capital	Total	Cost of Construction
		(In yen)		
1927-28	1,351,010,424	1,555,993,705	2,907,007,129	49,216,913
1928-29	1,481,689,821	1,627,399,566	3,109,089,387	51,824,496
1929-30	1,580,497,834	1,704,668,059	3,285,165,893	68,906,647
1930-31	1,639,593,577	1,743,226,538	3,482,822,115	41,755,774
1931-32	1,672,757,628	1,789,564,996	3,462,322,624	37,706,907
1932-33	1,724,882,067	1,838,540,444	3,563,423,511	47,743,369
1933-34	1,802,811,650	1,879,614,749	3,682,426,399	53,130,133
1934-35	1,891,897,268	1,921,314,177	3,813,211,445	47,794,116
1935-36	1,995,865,521	1,942,297,215	3,938,262,736	43,197,238
1936-37	2,118,446,062	1,971,178,616	4,089,624,978	43,922,922

Expenditure for Way and Works (During the Year)

Financial Year	Maintenance Expenses	Replenishment Expenses	Improvement Expenses	Total
		(In yen)		
1927-28	58,915,387	5,643,676	156,244,969	270,020,945
1928-29	62,804,064	5,357,227	139,634,863	259,620,650
1929-30	62,053,015	4,337,837	125,199,688	260,497,187
1930-31	56,373,653	3,382,422	66,735,913	168,207,762
1931-32	50,359,631	2,433,856	54,714,747	145,215,141
1932-33	50,053,720	2,420,590	51,991,055	152,208,734
1933-34	54,395,922	2,122,589	56,304,722	165,953,366
1934-35	67,632,642	3,936,208	67,662,895	187,025,861
1935-36	70,018,829	3,710,575	83,366,177	200,292,819
1936-37	73,606,269	7,580,496	89,446,250	214,555,937

ANNUAL REVENUE AND EXPENDITURE OF MUNICIPAL CORPORATIONS

Compiled by the Department of Home Affairs

Prefectures (Dō, Fu & Ken)

Financial Year	Rates	Revenue receipts from Other Sources	Total	Expenditure
		(In yen)		
1928-29	262,907,747	303,067,833	565,675,580	491,261,230
1929-30	264,801,968	281,123,097	545,925,065	489,489,861
1930-31	246,946,000	293,250,812	540,196,812	478,238,248
1931-32	221,929,715	317,361,600	539,301,315	502,572,907
1932-33	216,238,846	445,301,501	661,540,347	624,808,519
1933-34	228,474,081	540,273,770	768,747,851	717,465,740
1934-35	240,211,534	519,606,970	759,818,504	659,057,156
1935-36	253,509,526	533,833,390	787,392,916	685,306,100
1936-37	252,748,344	286,804,320	539,552,664	539,552,664
1937-38	264,487,592	319,023,581	583,511,173	583,511,173

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Financial Year	Cities				Towns and Villages				Grand Total	
	Rates	Revenue Receipts from Other Sources	Total	Expenditure	Rates	Revenue Receipts from Other Sources	Total	Expenditure	Revenue	Expenditure
	(In yen)									
1928-29	115,079,602	854,669,992	969,749,594	841,725,457	278,728,831	342,463,671	621,192,502	560,821,930	2,156,917,676	1,893,808,617
1929-30	122,789,419	702,604,925	825,394,344	695,547,423	277,877,112	307,330,994	585,208,106	529,609,528	1,956,527,515	1,714,646,812
1930-31	118,842,669	777,745,926	896,588,595	776,350,757	236,613,665	319,862,726	556,476,391	498,147,570	1,993,261,798	1,752,736,575
1931-32	107,828,291	638,635,669	746,463,960	634,459,007	199,883,543	340,561,887	540,445,430	488,937,099	1,826,210,705	1,625,969,013
1932-33	114,401,486	727,830,121	842,231,607	730,395,466	190,413,816	403,724,407	594,138,223	543,723,528	2,097,910,177	1,898,927,513
1933-34	135,339,784	1,262,161,523	1,397,501,307	1,270,379,090	193,562,097	401,820,386	595,382,483	547,059,752	2,761,631,641	2,534,904,582
1934-35	151,195,294	1,017,644,313	1,168,839,607	1,044,492,791	203,340,727	392,491,049	595,831,776	539,631,076	2,524,489,887	2,243,181,023
1935-36	164,739,750	977,401,582	1,142,141,332	959,693,093	214,631,432	400,875,679	615,507,111	560,377,183	2,545,041,359	2,205,376,376
1936-37	170,966,281	688,879,575	859,845,856	859,218,609	230,118,740	266,149,290	496,268,030	496,119,450	1,895,666,550	1,894,890,723
1937-38	188,402,853	758,534,312	946,937,165	946,204,539	247,584,698	278,691,750	526,276,448	526,116,359	2,056,724,786	2,055,832,071

Note:—The figures for 1636-37 and after represent the budget estimates.

AMOUNT OF LOCAL LOANS

At the End of March:	Loans of Prefectures	Loans of Cities	Loans of Towns and Villages	Loans of Local Associations	Total
			(In yen)		
1928	379,438,509	1,258,941,727	167,541,244	38,512,710	1,844,434,190
1929	425,795,434	1,371,866,970	212,097,249	40,623,343	2,050,382,996
1930	482,412,680	1,461,953,003	235,736,724	41,600,732	2,221,703,339
1931	534,348,984	1,540,896,965	256,305,035	42,864,840	2,374,415,822
1932	580,128,337	1,596,468,423	312,832,386	45,656,761	2,535,085,907
1933	663,839,451	1,733,761,825	279,060,038	51,588,438	2,728,249,752
1934	777,904,944	1,811,629,352	315,988,269	51,949,772	2,957,472,337
1935	887,155,999	1,902,171,086	243,126,568	54,540,503	3,186,994,156
1936	976,482,919	2,004,852,718	391,494,111	55,109,102	3,427,938,850
1937	1,076,498,809	2,147,849,855	413,829,207	55,872,223	3,694,050,094

LOCAL LOANS CLASSIFIED ACCORDING TO THE OBJECTS FOR WHICH THEY WERE RAISED

At the End of March:	Education	Sanitation	Industry	Public Works	Electric and Gas Enterprises	Others	Total
				(In yen)			
1928	169,576,089	214,396,692	45,170,489	466,889,119	549,389,069	399,012,732	1,844,434,190
1929	172,175,166	272,205,502	76,434,895	477,916,392	554,372,027	497,279,014	2,050,382,996
1930	193,103,812	282,336,965	98,511,782	771,016,769	566,021,106	310,712,905	2,221,703,339
1931	190,245,777	303,243,092	150,843,417	608,427,103	573,817,298	547,839,137	2,374,415,824
1932	190,053,844	327,351,349	153,371,058	877,520,496	550,964,975	435,824,185	2,535,085,907
1933	196,998,634	339,401,324	217,526,766	985,904,107	587,528,519	400,890,402	2,728,249,752
1934	184,140,529	308,202,659	224,943,952	1,134,798,040	639,058,204	465,328,953	2,957,472,337
1935	228,588,440	332,840,041	240,469,600	1,013,619,650	671,907,841	699,568,584	3,186,994,156
1936	298,413,499	387,976,167	292,752,395	1,165,164,983	680,775,068	602,856,738	3,427,938,850
1937	322,909,180	469,087,704	326,340,679	1,211,469,291	737,757,215	625,486,045	3,694,050,094

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LOANS OF CITIES ISSUED ABROAD OUTSTANDING MARCH 31, 1936

Cities	Loans	Amount issued	Amount redeemed	Amount outstanding
			(In yen)	
Tōkyō	Loan for consolidation of old debts, improvement of city, etc.	14,580,000	14,580,000	0
„	Loan for electric enterprises	89,344,183	35,512,960	53,831,223
„	Reconstruction works loan	99,982,213	12,478,720	87,503,493
Ōsaka	Harbour-works loan	3,085,000	575,000	2,510,000
„	Loan for Electric Railways and Water-works	30,220,000	12,308,000	17,912,000
Yokohama	Water-works loan (2nd Series)	7,000,000	1,778,284	5,221,716
„	6% Reconstruction Works Loan (Dollar)	39,602,388	6,810,217	32,792,171
Nagoya	Water-works loan	7,816,000	5,862,000	1,954,000
Total		291,629,784	89,905,181	201,724,603

Deposit Funds Management Bureau of the Department of Finance[1]

Organization of the Deposit Funds Management Bureau Although the Deposit Funds have been in existence since 1877, it was only after many changes that the present system was established in 1925. The chief of the Deposit Funds Management Bureau is under the control and supervision of the Minister of Finance and he is responsible for its activities and efficiency. Its finances are segregated in a Special Account and the Bureau is given control over the expenditure of its entire revenue. The chief business of the Bureau is not merely confined to the control of deposits, but also includes the investment and management of other funds. The deosits, which are made according to laws and ordinances, consist, for the most part, of postal savings deposits received by the Government; but the Deposit Funds also include other deposits, reserves in the Special Account of the Deposit Funds and surpluses. It may specially be noted that the total of the Deposit Funds reached 5,492 million yen on March 31, 1938, this representing some ½ of the total deposits in ordinary banks throughout the country. All business connected with receipt and payment of cash is transacted on behalf of the Bureau by the Bank of Japan in accordance with instructions from the Minister of Finance.

Investment of the Deposit Funds It is laid down by law that the Deposit Funds are to be invested solely for the benefit of the State and the public in profitable and safe manner, and that such investments are to be made only after investigation of their purposes and methods in consultation with the Committee on Investments of the Deposit Funds. The following is an explanation of the nature of the Committee and the methods it employs.

Committee on Investments of the Deposit Funds This Committee consists of the following members: The Minister of Finance, as a chairman, the Parliamental Vice-Minister of Finance, high officials of the Government Offices concerned, one of the Chief Auditors of the Auditing Board, the Governor of the Bank of Japan and other learned and experienced persons. The number of full members is not to exceed fifteen; but in order to meet special needs, temporary members may be appointed. The Committee is placed under the supervision of the Minister of Finance, and its function is to answer the question of the Minister, after both investigation and study of matters relating to the investment of the Deposit Funds. At the beginning of every fiscal year, the Minister of Finance is to draw up the necessary plan to govern the investment of the funds to submit it to this Committee, and the same process is to be undertaken should there be any occasion to supplement or to change this plan. In addition to answering the question of the Minister of Finance the Committee may send his proposals concerning the investment of the Deposit Funds. The Minister should present to the Committee, after every fiscal year, a report stating particulars of important matters concerning conditions of investment of the Deposit Funds and changes in the funds invested.

Method of Investment As mentioned above, the Deposit Funds are to be invested for the benefit of the State and the public welfare in a profitable and safe manner. Consequently, in con-

1. Note: This name of the Bureau is newly given to the "Deposits Bureau" formerly mentioned in this Year Book.

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formity with this principle, the investment of funds is to be limited to the following items:

(a) The subscription to, underwriting or purchasing of national loans or making of loans to the General or Special Accounts of the Government.

(b) The subscription to, underwriting or purchasing of local loans, irrigation associations' loans or health insurance associations' loans, or making of loans to local public corporations, irrigation associations or health insurance associations.

(c) The subscription to, underwriting or purchasing of bonds issued by corporations organized under special laws or making of loans redeemable within a period not exceeding three years to these corporations.

(d) Loans to banks organized under special laws but not authorized to issue debentures.

(e) The subscription to and purchasing of foreign Government bonds.

(f) Deposits with the Bank of Japan to be held abroad for designated purposes.

These items only indicate the method of the investment of the funds and the question whether any particular investment is for the promotion of the benefit of the State or public welfare or whether it is profitable and safe is left to the joint consideration and decision of the Minister of Finance and this Committee.

The investment of the Deposit Funds is determined, within the limits mentioned above, at the beginning of every fiscal year. The Deposit Funds Management Bureau gives, at the end of March, 1938, the following figures of investment, classified according to purposes:

Items	(In thousands of yen)	%
National loans	2,796,045	50.91
Loans to the General and Special Accounts	81,409	1.48
Local funds invested	2,050,396	37.33
Loans to the special banks and companies	144,214	2.63
Special advances	192,099	3.50
Foreign Government bonds	75,439	1.37
Funds held abroad	1,016	0.02
Cash	123,406	2.25
Others	28,264	0.51
Total	5,492,288	100.00

Local funds representing the funds to be invested for the benefit of local districts to local public corporations, various associations and individuals are advanced from the Deposit Funds Management Bureau to the borrowers either directly or through special banks and similar institutions. These funds are alloted for the following purposes:—

1. Advances to be generally made every year for:

(a) Public utility undertakings of public corporations such as water supply works, prevention of disasters, sanitary arrangements, improvement of roads, rivers and harbours, road making and construction of bridges, reclamation works, construction of schoolhouses and teachers' dwelling-houses, electric and gas enterprises, and tramway, local railway and car enterprises.

(b) Social works such as housing reform and the establishment of public markets, public pawnshops, day nurseries and intelligence offices and others.

(c) Enterprises by various associations such as land adjustment associations, industrial associations, forestry associations, fishery associations, live-stock breeding associations, manufacturers' associations and commercial associations and those by federations of these associations.

2. Advances to be made for urgent needs:

Repair works of disasters, reconstruction works necessitated by the earthquake, accommodation to the silk-raising industry, the relief of the unemployed, and accommodation to middle and lower class merchants, manufacturers and farmers.

3. Advances to be made for:

Such institutions as public corporations and various associations in our colonies.

With regard to the rate of interest paid on the deposit it is to be noted that the rate was reduced as from April 1, 1937 to 2.76 per cent per annum for the greater part of postal savings. The postal savings amount to some 71 per cent of the total amount of the Doposit Funds, and details are given in the Statement of the Deposit Funds (Table No. 91). Other deposits are divided into two classes, namely, fixed deposits and ordinary deposits. The rate of interest on fixed deposits is in principle 2.5 per cent per annum, but the rate on deposits of such character that the depositing of cash is confined by laws and ordinances to the Deposit Funds Management Bureau is 3 per cent. The rate on ordinary deposits is in principle 0.75 per cent per annum, while that on deposits of such character that the depositing of cash is confined by laws and ordinances to the Deposit Funds Management Bureau is 1 per cent. The rates on fixed deposits have been effec-

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tive since July 1, 1936 and those on ordinary deposits since April 1 of the same year. Turning to the rates for the advances made by the Deposit Fund Management Bureau, it will be found that those for the advances to prefectures, large cities, and local corporations remain, for the most part, at 3.2 per cent per annum. As to the advances made through banks and similar institutions, the intermediate institutions gain 0.7 per cent and actual borrowers must pay at the rate of 3.9 per cent.

3. Plans approved in 1937.

Plans for the investment of funds to the amount of ¥851,533,000 were made in the fiscal year 1937. Of these, items involving more than 5 million yen each are as follows:—

	(In yen)
(a) Funds for taking up national loans to be issued in 1937, and for purchases of loan bonds	500,000,000
(b) Loans to public corporations for their adjustment of arable land and to various associations for their undertakings	74,700,000
(c) Emergency loans for the relief of unemployment	10,000,000
(d) Loans for city planning	5,000,000
(e) Loans for repair works following disasters of 1934 and 1935	15,000,000
(f) Loans for the economic development of agricultural villages in depressed conditions	6,750,000
(g) Loans to the medium and smaller merchants and manufacturers	10,000,000
(h) Loans for drainage works in Chōsen	5,000,000
(i) Funds for taking up the national bonds of Manchoukuo	20,000,000
(j) Loans to public corporations and corporations or associations on a non-commercial basis within the limits of the deposits with the Deposit Funds as received from the Post Office Life Insurance of Chōsen	17,100,000
(k) Loans for the adjustment of debts in agricultual villages	20,000,000
(l) Loans for the creation and maintenance of independent farmers	10,000,000
(m) Loans for repair works following disasters of 1937	12,000,000
(n) Loans for the re-inauguration of businesses by Japanese residents in China	20,000,000
(o) Emergency loans for the silk-raising industry, the storage of rice, the purchase of fertilizers, and the storage of unhulled rice	80,000,000

It should specially be noted that in addition to the above-mentioned items of accommodation considerable short-term loans have recently been made for the expansion of productive capacity and the easing of the monetary position. Such amounts have sometimes reached 260 million yen.

BALANCE SHEET OF THE DEPOSIT FUNDS MANAGEMENT BUREAU, THE DEPARTMENT OF FINANCE

(At the end of March)

LIABILITIES	1937	1938	1939
		(In yen)	
Deposits:			
Postal Savings and Postal Transfer System	3,502,696,831	3,918,578,672	4,782,050,970
†Proceeds of Reconstruction Savings Certificates	74,602,265	93,724,330	172,671,275
Surplus fund of Certain Special Accounts of the Government	437,321,525	657,132,529	637,294,245
Others	100,248,944	91,274,373	
Reserves	548,354,149	623,094,585	693,748,771
Miscellaneous Receipts	246,067,641	242,695,813	265,054,756
Checks payable	728,907	382,205	—
Total	4,910,020,262	5,626,882,509	6,550,820,017

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ASSETS	1937	1938	1939
		(In yen)	
Government Securities	2,133,881,314	2,796,045,060	3,686,492,796
Government Liability to Pay for the Principal and Interest of the 4% Chinese Government Bonds	12,541,263	10,860,064	9,178,864
Foreign Government Bonds	50,596,455	75,438,955	85,243,955
Local Government and Municipal Securities	1,053,059,404	1,068,282,439	1,074,349,051
Debentures of the Hypothec Bank of Japan	280,852,148	268,061,08331	236,768,438
Debentures of the Industrial Bank of Japan	48,747,703	51,947,304	88,535,050
Other Securities	451,474,811	404,118,786	445,840,714
Miscellaneous Advances	646,610,238	669,470,504	655,249,264
Deposits with the Bank of Japan to be held at Home for Designated Purposes	11,000,000	11,000,000	110,051,796
Deposits with the Bank of Japan to be held Abroad for Designated Purposes	211,235	1,016,246	160,673
*Cash	100,727,603	123,406,398	—
Expenditures	120,318,088	134,594,669	139,810,113
Sinking Fund	—	—	19,139,303
Total	4,910,020,262	5,626,882,509	6,550,820,017

† Including savings certificates in 1937 and after.

* Current deposits with the Bank of Japan, and for 1939 it is included in the Deposits with the Bank of Japan to be held at home for Designated Purposes.

PROFIT AND LOSS ACCOUNT OF THE DEPOSIT FUNDS THE DEPARTMENT OF FINANCE

RECEIPTS	1935-36	1936-37	1937-38
		(In yen)	
Interest on Securities	162,289,541	161,088,426	172,844,865
Interest on Advances	15,477,755	16,268,151	22,687,425
Interest on Deposits	469,460	463,184	463,701
Transferred from General Account	1,981,379	1,070,000	1,122,000
Profits from the Disposal of the Specie held Abroad	7,101,125	7,953,658	6,968,283
Profits from the Sale and Redemption of Securities and other Profits	16,425,379	9,004,611	3,208,401
Total	203,744,639	195,848,030	207,294,675
PAYMENTS			
Interest on Deposits and Commissions	105,558,941	109,877,193	116,389,118
Amount transferred to Other Government Accounts	10,030,000	10,440,000	18,730,000
Administrative Expenses and Others	11,226,737	786,737	1,018,294
Depreciation	1,384	3,664	503,077
Transfers to Reserves	87,477,065	74,740,436	70,654,186
Total	203,744,639	195,848,030	207,294,675

Japan's National Wealth

The national wealth of Japan proper for 1930, the most recent date for this kind of investigation, was estimated at ¥110,188,000,000, according to the Cabinet Statistics Bureau. This included the following :

	(Estimates in thousands of yen)
Land	41,091,348
Mines	6,499,651
Ports, harbours and canals	343,143
Bridges	483,000
Trees	6,706,815
Live-stock and poultry	346,356
Buildings	22,843,300
Industrial machines and apparatus	1,809,381
Railways and tramways (street cars)	3,598,138
Vehicles and aeroplanes	660,294
Shipping	2,060,236
Electric and gas supply equipment	1,905,044

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		(Estimates in thousands of yen)
Telegraph and telephone equipment		196,102
Waterworks equipment		352,779
Property in store:		18,847,310
Household property	12,473,201	
Manufactures	5,457,466	
Coins and gold and silver bullion	916,643	
Miscellaneous		2,250,515
Balance of Japan's foreign credit and debt		191,592
Total		110,188,004

The total is classified into Government property 12 per cent, public property 4 per cent and private property 84 per cent. Land, buildings, trees and mines combined make a total of 81 per cent in all. Manufactured goods, railways and tramways, shipping, electric and gas equipment and industrial machines and tools combined make a total of 13 per cent. The remainder is 6 per cent. The national wealth for 1930 per household was ¥8,672 and per capita was ¥1,710. The change of national wealth, investigated by Mr. Hideomi Takahashi, a statistical authority in Japan, follows :

Time of	Year	National wealth (in millions of yen)
Arrival of "Black Ships"	1851	5,085
Sakuradamon Murder Incident	1860	5,769
Meiji Restoration	1868	6,818
Abolition of feudal clans and establishment of prefectural government	1873	7,317
Satsuma Rebellion	1877	8,571
Promulgation of Imperial Constitution	1889	13,043
Sino-Japanese War	1894	16,667
Russo-Japanese War	1904	22,742
First Year of Taisho Era	1912	37,524
	1921	93,026
June,	1924	101,978
March,	1925	105,742

Public Finance in 1937-38

As has been stated in the Japan Year Book, 1938-39, the Budget for the fiscal year 1937-38, with the Supplementary Budget No. 1, passed the Diet in the 70th Session (December 1936 to March 1937). In view, however, of the outbreak of the China incident and subsequent developments of the situation, the Government submitted the Supplementary Budgets Nos. 1, 2, 3 and 4 to the Diet in the 71st Session (July to August 1937), specially convoked for the purpose, and secured its approval. In September, 1937, the Diet was again specially convoked, and not only was the Supplementary Budget No. 1 approved in this 72nd Session, but also the Special Account for Emergency Military Expenditure was created. When including the Supplementary Budgets Nos. 1 and 2 that passed the Diet in the 73rd Session (December 1937 to March 1938), the total figures for the Budget for the General Account for the fiscal year 1937-38 were as follows:—

(In this Budget, however, there is not included an amount of ¥507,208,270 which has been transferred to the Special Account for Emergency Military Expenditure).

Revenue	(In yen)
Ordinary	1,833,085,852
Extraordinary	1,081,841,527
Normal Revenue	233,797,096
Receipts from the Issue of Public Loans	827,395,329
Transfer of Surplus from the Preceding Year	20,649,102
Total	2,914,927,379
Expenditure	
Ordinary	1,528,781,338
Extraordinary	1,452,909,850
Total	2,981,691,188

When classifying the above Budget figures into the original Budget and the Supplementary Budgets, the following figures will be given:—

Revenue	(In yen)
Original Budget approved in the 70th Session	2,813,937,971
Supplementary Bndgets	100,989,408
Approved in the 70th Session No. 1	58,197,902
Approved in the 71st Session No. 1	1,625,136
No. 2	13,389,749
No. 3	7,317,570
No. 4	7,611,290
Approved in the 72nd Session: No. 1	6,651,919
Approved in the 73rd Session: No. 1	0
No. 2	6,195,842
Total	2,914,927,379
Expenditure	
Original Budget approved in the 70th Session	2,813,937,971
Supplementary Budgets	167,753,217
Approved in the 70th Session: No. 1	58,197,902

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	1937	1938	1939
ASSETS		(In yen)	
Government Securities	2,133,881,314	2,796,045,060	3,686,492,796
Government Liability to Pay for the Principal and Interest of the 4% Chinese Government Bonds	12,541,263	10,860,064	9,178,864
Foreign Government Bonds	50,596,455	75,438,955	85,243,955
Local Government and Municipal Securities	1,053,059,404	1,068,282,439	1,074,349,051
Debentures of the Hypothec Bank of Japan	280,852,148	268,061,08331	236,768,438
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Other Securities	451,474,811	404,118,786	445,840,714
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*Cash	100,727,603	123,406,398	—
Expenditures	120,318,088	134,594,669	139,810,113
Sinking Fund	—	—	19,139,303
Total	4,910,020,262	5,626,882,509	6,550,820,017

† Including savings certificates in 1937 and after.

* Current deposits with the Bank of Japan, and for 1939 it is included in the Deposits with the Bank of Japan to be held at home for Designated Purposes.

PROFIT AND LOSS ACCOUNT OF THE DEPOSIT FUNDS THE DEPARTMENT OF FINANCE

	1935-36	1936-37	1937-38
RECEIPTS		(In yen)	
Interest on Securities	162,289,541	161,088,426	172,844,865
Interest on Advances	15,477,755	16,268,151	22,687,425
Interest on Deposits	469,460	463,184	463,701
Transferred from General Account	1,981,379	1,070,000	1,122,000
Profits from the Disposal of the Specie held Abroad	7,101,125	7,953,658	6,968,283
Profits from the Sale and Redemption of Securities and other Profits	16,425,379	9,004,611	3,208,401
Total	203,744,639	195,848,030	207,294,675
PAYMENTS			
Interest on Deposits and Commissions	105,558,941	109,877,193	116,389,118
Amount transferred to Other Government Accounts	10,030,000	10,440,000	18,730,000
Administrative Expenses and Others	11,226,737	786,737	1,018,294
Depreciation	1,384	3,664	503,077
Transfers to Reserves	87,477,065	74,740,436	70,654,186
Total	203,744,639	195,848,030	207,294,675

Japan's National Wealth

The national wealth of Japan proper for 1930, the most recent date for this kind of investigation, was estimated at ¥110,188,000,000, according to the Cabinet Statistics Bureau. This included the following :

	(Estimates in thousands of yen)
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Mines	6,499,651
Ports, harbours and canals	343,143
Bridges	483,000
Trees	6,706,815
Live-stock and poultry	346,356
Buildings	22,843,300
Industrial machines and apparatus	1,809,381
Railways and tramways (street cars)	3,598,138
Vehicles and aeroplanes	660,294
Shipping	2,060,236
Electric and gas supply equipment	1,905,044

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	(Estimates in thousands of yen)	
Telegraph and telephone equipment		196,102
Waterworks equipment		352,779
Property in store:		18,847,310
Household property	12,473,201	
Manufactures	5,457,466	
Coins and gold and silver bullion	916,643	
Miscellaneous		2,250,515
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Total		110,188,004

The total is classified into Government property 12 per cent, public property 4 per cent and private property 84 per cent. Land, buildings, trees and mines combined make a total of 81 per cent in all. Manufactured goods, railways and tramways, shipping, electric and gas equipment and industrial machines and tools combined make a total of 13 per cent. The remainder is 6 per cent. The national wealth for 1930 per household was ¥8,672 and per capita was ¥1,710. The change of national wealth, investigated by Mr. Hideomi Takahashi, a statistical authority in Japan, follows:

Time of	Year	National wealth (in millions of yen)
Arrival of "Black Ships"	1851	5,085
Sakuradamon Murder Incident	1860	5,769
Meiji Restoration	1868	6,818
Abolition of feudal clans and establishment of prefectural government	1873	7,317
Satsuma Rebellion	1877	8,571
Promulgation of Imperial Constitution	1889	13,043
Sino-Japanese War	1894	16,667
Russo-Japanese War	1904	22,742
First Year of Taisho Era	1912	37,524
	1921	93,026
June,	1924	101,978
March,	1925	105,742

Public Finance in 1937-38

As has been stated in the Japan Year Book, 1938-39, the Budget for the fiscal year 1937-38, with the Supplementary Budget No. 1, passed the Diet in the 70th Session (December 1936 to March 1937). In view, however, of the outbreak of the China incident and subsequent developments of the situation, the Government submitted the Supplementary Budgets Nos. 1, 2, 3 and 4 to the Diet in the 71st Session (July to August 1937), specially convoked for the purpose, and secured its approval. In September, 1937, the Diet was again specially convoked, and not only was the Supplementary Budget No. 1 approved in this 72nd Session, but also the Special Account for Emergency Military Expenditure was created. When including the Supplementary Budgets Nos. 1 and 2 that passed the Diet in the 73rd Session (December 1937 to March 1938), the total figures for the Budget for the General Account for the fiscal year 1937-38 were as follows:—

(In this Budget, however, there is not included an amount of ¥507,208,270 which has been transferred to the Special Account for Emergency Military Expenditure).

Revenue	(In yen)
Ordinary	1,833,085,852
Extraordinary	1,081,841,527
Normal Revenue	233,797,096
Receipts from the Issue of Public Loans	827,395,329
Transfer of Surplus from the Preceding Year	20,649,102
Total	2,914,927,379
Expenditure	
Ordinary	1,528,781,338
Extraordinary	1,452,909,850
Total	2,981,691,188

When classifying the above Budget figures into the original Budget and the Supplementary Budgets, the following figures will be given:—

Revenue	(In yen)
Original Budget approved in the 70th Session	2,813,937,971
Supplementary Bndgets	100,989,408
Approved in the 70th Session	
No. 1	58,197,902
Approved in the 71st Session	
No. 1	1,625,136
No. 2	13,389,749
No. 3	7,317,570
No. 4	7,611,290
Approved in the 72nd Session:	
No. 1	6,651,919
Approved in the 73rd Session:	
No. 1	0
No. 2	6,195,842
Total	2,914,927,379
Expenditure	
Original Budget approved in the 70th Session	2,813,937,971
Supplementary Budgets	167,753,217
Approved in the 70th Session:	
No. 1	58,197,902

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a corporation which, though not having a head office or principal business office within the territory where this Law is in force, has capital within the territory where this Law is in force is made in the same manner as mentioned above.

The tax rate is 0.1%. When, however, the tax calculated is less than ₹10, it is levied at the rate of ₹10 a year. Corporations without any income are exempted from the imposition of the tax. (For the temporary increase in the tax rate, see the Law relating to Emergency Taxes for the China Incident).

4. Corporations exempted from the Tax.

Corporations on the non-commercial basis, which are exempted from the imposition of the income tax in accordance with the Income Tax Law and other laws, are exempted from the Tax on the Capital of Corporations.

Special Tax on Foreign Currency Securities

The Law relating to this tax was promulgated by Law No. 5 of 1937, and put into effect as from April 1 of the same year. The important points of the Law are summarized as follows:

1. Tax Payers.

Holders of foreign currency securities, who have domicile or a temporary residence for one year or more within the territory where this Law is in force, are liable for payment of this tax. "Foreign currency securities" here means Japanese national bonds, Japanese municipal bonds, and debentures issued by Japanese corporations, all expressed in foreign currencies.

2. Basis of Assessment.

The tax is levied on interest on foreign currency securities. Interest received between January 1 and June 30, and that received between July 1 and December 31, are taken as the assessable amount.

3. Tax Rates.

(a) In the case of interest on national bonds in foreign currencies:

7/10 of the amount remaining after deduction of the amount equivalent to 5% (a year) of the face-value.

(b) In the case of interest on foreign currency securities other than national bonds in foreign currencies:

7/10 of the amount remaining after deduction of the amount equivalent to 5.5% (a year) of the face-value.

4. Tax Exemption.

The following interest is exempted from the imposition of the tax:—

(a) Interest on foreign currency securities as received by holders who are exempted from the Class II income tax under the Income Tax Law and other laws.

(b) Interest on foreign currency securities held outside the Japanese Empire including Kwantung Province and Nanyo (Mandated territory in the Pacific).

(c) Interest on national bonds in foreign currencies with interest rates not exceeding 5% a year.

(d) Interest on foreign currency securities (other than national bonds in foreign currencies) with interest rates not exceeding 5.5% a year.

(e) Interest on foreign currency securities issued under the contract that the issuer of the securities will pay the tax; provided, however, that such contract must be that concluded before January 1, 1937.

Gasoline Tax

The Law relating to this tax was promulgated by Law No. 6 of 1937, and put into operation as from April 1 of the same year. The important points of the Law are summarised as follows:

1. Taxable Article.

The tax is levied on gasoline (mineral oil, the specific gravity of which is not exceeding 0.8017 at 15° C.), except in the case of gasoline manufactured from coal, lignite, oil shale, or natural gas.

2. Tax Rate.

₹13.2 per kilolitre.

3. Collection of Tax.

The gasoline tax is collected, at the time gasoline is delivered from the factories or bonded areas, from persons who take delivery of the gasoline; provided, however, that in the event of the security equivalent to the tax being offered in accordance with the provisions of Ordinance, the collection of such tax may be postponed for a period not exceeding two months.

Tax on the Transfer of Securities

The Law relating to this tax was promulgated by Law No. 7 of 1937, and put into effect as from April 1 of the same year. The important points of the Law are summarised as follows:—

1. Scope of Taxation.

The tax is imposed in respect of the transfer of securities made in the form of purchase and sale, exchange, presentation, legacy, and other acts. "Securities" here means national bonds, local government bonds, company debentures, debentures of the Central Chest for Industrial Associations, debentures of the Central Chest for Commercial and Industrial Associations and shares, and the securities of similar nature issued by

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foreign governments or foreign corporations.

2. Tax Payers.

The tax is imposed on persons who have acquired the securities.

3. Tax Rate.

The tax is levied at the rate of 1/10,000 to 8/10,000 of the value of acquisition. In the case of the transfer of securities by purchase and sale, the value of acquisition represents the price of purchases and sales, and in the case of the transfer by other acts, it represents the price at the time when such transfer has been made.

4. Persons exempted from the Tax.

Corporations on the non-commercial basis, which are exempted from the income tax in accordance with the Income Tax Law and other laws, are exempted from the imposition of the tax.

5. Securities exempted from the Tax.

(a) Government securities redeemable within a period not exceeding one year.

(b) Local bonds, hypothec debentures, and debentures with a face-value of not more than ¥20 as specified by Ordinance.

6. Cases where, though Transfers are made, the Tax is exempted.

No tax is levied in such cases as the transfer of securities arising from inheritance, the merger of corporations, or from the transfer of all insurance contracts concluded under the provisions of Article 13, (5) of the Insurance Business Law, the transfer of national bonds in cases in which one of the parties to purchases and sales is the Bank of Japan, and transfers by other acts.

Law Relating to Emergency Taxes for the China Incident

It was immediately after the outbreak of the North China incident that the Law relating to Emergency Taxes for the North China Incident, effective for a period of one year, was promulgated for the purpose of increasing tax receipts by some 100 million yen. Subsequent developments of the incident, however, necessitated a further increase in taxation, and the Law relating to Emergency Taxes for the North China Incident was replaced by the Law relating to Emergency Taxes for the China Incident, newly enacted for the purpose by Law No. 51 of 1938. This, together with the increase of the Special Profits Tax, aims at a growth of some 300 million yen in tax receipts. By this Law not only were the rates increased in the Income Tax, the Tax on the Capital of Corporations, the Sugar Excise, and the Tax on Bourses, but also the Tax on Dividends, the Tax on Interest on National Bonds and Company Debentures, the Travelling Tax, the Admission Tax, the Special Admission Tax, and the Tax on Commodities were newly created. It should, however, be noted that the above mentioned Tax on Dividends, Tax on Interest on National Bonds and Company Debentures, and Tax on Commodities are the continuation of those created by the Law relating to Emergency Taxes for the North China Incident. It may further be noted that this Law is to be abrogated on December 31 of the year following the year in which the China incident comes to an end. The important points of the Law are summarised as follows:

1. Increase in the Income Tax.

(A) Income coming under Class I.

(a) Ordinary income of corporations and net assets of corporations at liquidation or amalgamation.

In the case of the ordinary income of corporations, the tax rates of 5% as provided for in the Income Tax Law is raised to 12.25%, and in the case of the net assets of corporations at liquidation or amalgamation, the rate of 10% is raised to 22.5%. As, however, these two rates had already been increased to 11% and 22% respectively by the Temporary Tax Increase Law and the Law relating to Emergency Taxes for the North China Incident, the actual increase in the tax rates under the present Law is 1.25% and 0.5% respectively.

(b) Excess profits of corporations.

The tax rate on the excess profits of corporations is increased by 10% of the tax as assessed under the Income Tax Law. It should, however, be noted that this increased rate is the same as provided for in the Law relating to Emergency Taxes for the North China Incident and not that newly realized by the present Law.

(c) Restrictive provisions.

It is regulated by the Law that the total of the increased taxes on the ordinary income of corporations and on the excess profits of corporations and the special profits tax should not exceed 50% of the ordinary income of corporations.

(d) Undivided profits of family corporations.

The tax rate is increased by 83.75% of the tax as assessed under the Income Tax Law. As, however, the rate nad already been increased by 50% by the Temporary Tax Increase Law and by 15% by the Law relating to Emergency Taxes for the North China Incident, the actual increase under the

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a corporation which, though not having a head office or principal business office within the territory where this Law is in force, has capital within the territory where this Law is in force is made in the same manner as mentioned above.

The tax rate is 0.1%. When, however, the tax calculated is less than ¥10, it is levied at the rate of ¥10 a year. Corporations without any income are exempted from the imposition of the tax. (For the temporary increase in the tax rate, see the Law relating to Emergency Taxes for the China Incident).

4. Corporations exempted from the Tax.

Corporations on the non-commercial basis, which are exempted from the imposition of the income tax in accordance with the Income Tax Law and other laws, are exempted from the Tax on the Capital of Corporations.

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The Law relating to this tax was promulgated by Law No. 5 of 1937, and put into effect as from April 1 of the same year. The important points of the Law are summarized as follows:

1. Tax Payers.

Holders of foreign currency securities, who have domicile or a temporary residence for one year or more within the territory where this Law is in force, are liable for payment of this tax. "Foreign currency securities" here means Japanese national bonds, Japanese municipal bonds, and debentures issued by Japanese corporations, all expressed in foreign currencies.

2. Basis of Assessment.

The tax is levied on interest on foreign currency securities. Interest received between January 1 and June 30, and that received between July 1 and December 31, are taken as the assessable amount.

3. Tax Rates.

(a) In the case of interest on national bonds in foreign currencies:

7/10 of the amount remaining after deduction of the amount equivalent to 5% (a year) of the face-value.

(b) In the case of interest on foreign currency securities other than national bonds in foreign currencies:

7/10 of the amount remaining after deduction of the amount equivalent to 5.5% (a year) of the face-value.

4. Tax Exemption.

The following interest is exempted from the imposition of the tax:—

(a) Interest on foreign currency securities as received by holders who are exempted from the Class II income tax under the Income Tax Law and other laws.

(b) Interest on foreign currency securities held outside the Japanese Empire including Kwantung Province and Nanyo (Mandated territory in the Pacific).

(c) Interest on national bonds in foreign currencies with interest rates not exceeding 5% a year.

(d) Interest on foreign currency securities (other than national bonds in foreign currencies) with interest rates not exceeding 5.5% a year.

(e) Interest on foreign currency securities issued under the contract that the issuer of the securities will pay the tax; provided, however, that such contract must be that concluded before January 1, 1937.

Gasoline Tax

The Law relating to this tax was promulgated by Law No. 6 of 1937, and put into operation as from April 1 of the same year. The important points of the Law are summarised as follows:

1. Taxable Article.

The tax is levied on gasoline (mineral oil, the specific gravity of which is not exceeding 0.8017 at 15° C.), except in the case of gasoline manufactured from coal, lignite, oil shale, or natural gas.

2. Tax Rate.

¥13.2 per kilolitre.

3. Collection of Tax.

The gasoline tax is collected, at the time gasoline is delivered from the factories or bonded areas, from persons who take delivery of the gasoline; provided, however, that in the event of the security equivalent to the tax being offered in accordance with the provisions of Ordinance, the collection of such tax may be postponed for a period not exceeding two months.

Tax on the Transfer of Securities

The Law relating to this tax was promulgated by Law No. 7 of 1937, and put into effect as from April 1 of the same year. The important points of the Law are summarised as follows:—

1. Scope of Taxation.

The tax is imposed in respect of the transfer of securities made in the form of purchase and sale, exchange, presentation, legacy, and other acts. "Securities" here means national bonds, local government bonds, company debentures, debentures of the Central Chest for Industrial Associations, debentures of the Central Chest for Commercial and Industrial Associations and shares, and the securities of similar nature issued by

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foreign governments or foreign corporations.

2. Tax Payers.

The tax is imposed on persons who have acquired the securities.

3. Tax Rate.

The tax is levied at the rate of 1/10,000 to 8/10,000 of the value of acquisition. In the case of the transfer of securities by purchase and sale, the value of acquisition represents the price of purchases and sales, and in the case of the transfer by other acts, it represents the price at the time when such transfer has been made.

4. Persons exempted from the Tax.

Corporations on the non-commercial basis, which are exempted from the income tax in accordance with the Income Tax Law and other laws, are exempted from the imposition of the tax.

5. Securities exempted from the Tax.

(a) Government securities redeemable within a period not exceeding one year.

(b) Local bonds, hypothec debentures, and debentures with a face-value of not more than ¥20 as specified by Ordinance.

6. Cases where, though Transfers are made, the Tax is exempted.

No tax is levied in such cases as the transfer of securities arising from inheritance, the merger of corporations, or from the transfer of all insurance contracts concluded under the provisions of Article 13, (5) of the Insurance Business Law, the transfer of national bonds in cases in which one of the parties to purchases and sales is the Bank of Japan, and transfers by other acts.

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It was immediately after the outbreak of the North China incident that the Law relating to Emergency Taxes for the North China Incident, effective for a period of one year, was promulgated for the purpose of increasing tax receipts by some 100 million yen. Subsequent developments of the incident, however, necessitated a further increase in taxation, and the Law relating to Emergency Taxes for the North China Incident was replaced by the Law relating to Emergency Taxes for the China Incident, newly enacted for the purpose by Law No. 51 of 1938. This, together with the increase of the Special Profits Tax, aims at a growth of some 300 million yen in tax receipts. By this Law not only were the rates increased in the Income Tax, the Tax on the Capital of Corporations, the Sugar Excise, and the Tax on Bourses, but also the Tax on Dividends, the Tax on Interest on National Bonds and Company Debentures, the Travelling Tax, the Admission Tax, the Special Admission Tax, and the Tax on Commodities were newly created. It should, however, be noted that the above mentioned Tax on Dividends, Tax on Interest on National Bonds and Company Debentures, and Tax on Commodities are the continuation of those created by the Law relating to Emergency Taxes for the North China Incident. It may further be noted that this Law is to be abrogated on December 31 of the year following the year in which the China incident comes to an end. The important points of the Law are summarised as follows:

1. Increase in the Income Tax.

(A) Income coming under Class I

(a) Ordinary income of corporations and net assets of corporations at liquidation or amalgamation.

In the case of the ordinary income of corporations, the tax rates of 5% as provided for in the Income Tax Law is raised to 12.25%, and in the case of the net assets of corporations at liquidation or amalgamation, the rate of 10% is raised to 22.5%. As, however, these two rates had already been increased to 11% and 22% respectively by the Temporary Tax Increase Law and the Law relating to Emergency Taxes for the North China Incident, the actual increase in the tax rates under the present Law is 1.25% and 0.5% respectively.

(b) Excess profits of corporations.

The tax rate on the excess profits of corporations is increased by 10% of the tax as assessed under the Income Tax Law. It should, however, be noted that this increased rate is the same as provided for in the Law relating to Emergency Taxes for the North China Incident and not that newly realized by the present Law.

(c) Restrictive provisions.

It is regulated by the Law that the total of the increased taxes on the ordinary income of corporations and on the excess profits of corporations and the special profits tax should not exceed 50% of the ordinary income of corporations.

(d) Undivided profits of family corporations.

The tax rate is increased by 83.75% of the tax as assessed under the Income Tax Law. As, however, the rate nad already been increased by 50% by the Temporary Tax Increase Law and by 15% by the Law relating to Emergency Taxes for the North China Incident, the actual increase under the

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under Class I, the prices of which are below the fixed level. The details of assessable commodities are mentioned in the table annexed to Imperial Ordinance No. 200 of 1938.

Class I.

A. (1) Precious stones or semi-precious stones, or commodities combined with precious or semi-precious stones.
(2) Pearls or commodities combined with pearls.
(3) Manufactures of precious metals or commodities combined with gold or platinum.
(4) Manufactures of tortoise shell.
(5) Manufactures of corals.

B.

(6) Clocks and watches.
(7) Fountain pens, gold pens and sharp pencils.
(8) Jewelry and other articles for personal adornment.
(9) Toilet instruments.
(10) Smoking instruments.
(11) Hats, caps, bonnets, sticks, whips, umbrellas, and parasols.
(12) Bags and trunks made of leather or metal.
(13) Boots, shoes, slippers, sandals, clogs, and the like.
(14) Pictures and writings and curios.
(15) Articles for interior ornamentation.
(16) Illuminators.
(17) Articles for go and chess playing.
(18) Furnitures.
(19) Lacquer-ware, pottery and glass manufactures, not otherwise provided for.
(20) Manufactures coated or covered with precious metals, not otherwise provided for.
(21) Furs or fur manufactures.
(22) Manufactures of feathers or those combined with feathers.
(23) Manufactures of leather, not otherwise provided for.
(24) Knitted tissues, lace tissues, felt, and manufactures thereof.

Class II.

A. (1) Photographic instruments, photographic enlargers, cinematograph projectors, and parts and accessories thereof.
(2) Dry plates, films and sensitized paper for photograph.
(3) Phonographs and parts thereof.
(4) Records for phonographs.
(5) Musical instruments and parts and accessories thereof.
(6) Binoculars and monocles.
(7) Rifles and parts thereof.
(8) Cartridges and bullets.
(9) Golf instruments and parts and accessories thereof.
(10) Motor boats, skirrs, and yachts for recreation.
(11) Billiard instruments.
(12) Neon tubes and transformers thereof.
(13) Lighters for smoking.

B.

(14) Radio receiving sets and parts thereof.
(15) Vacuum-tubes for radio receiving and microphones.
(16) Electric fans and parts thereof.
(17) Electric, gas and mineral oil stoves for heating.
(18) Refrigerators and parts thereof.
(19) Safes and steel furnitures.
(20) Automobiles.
(21) Toilet articles.

Class III.

(1) Matches.
(2) Saké and other alcoholic liquors, excluding Dakushu (unrefined or muddy saké) and that made from fruits.

(B) Tax Payers.

In the case of the commodities under Class I, retailers are liable for payment of this tax, and in the case of the commodities under Class II and III manufactures are under obligation to pay the tax; provided, however, that as regards the commodities taken delivery of from the bonded areas, persons who take delivery of such commodities are liable for payment of the tax.

(C) Basis of Assessment and Tax Rates.

In the case of the commodities under Class I, assessment is made on the basis of the selling price of retailers; in the case of the commodities under Class II, on the basis of the price at a time when such commodities are taken out of the factories; and in the case of the commodities under Class III, on the basis of quantity (matches: match-sticks and saké and other alcoholic liquors: koku).

The following rates are applicable:

Class I.
- A 15% of the price.
- B 10% of the price.

Class II.
- A 15% of the price.
- B 10% of the price.

Class III.
- (1) 5 sen per 1,000 match-sticks.
- (2) Saké and other alcoholic liquors:
  - (a) Seishu (refined saké), shirozaké (white saké), mirin (sweet saké) shochu (distilled saké), and beer 5 yen per koku.
  - (b) Wine 10 yen per koku.
  - (c) Others (only those subject to the Law relating to the Tax on Alcohol and Alcoholic Liquors) 7 yen per koku.

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(D) Tax Exemption.

The following commodities are exempted from the tax:

(a) Commodities used for the manufacture of those coming under Class II.

(b) Wine used for the brewing of saké and other alcoholic liquors.

(c) Commodities of export.

(d) Commodities used for scientific research.

(e) Commodities used for medical treatment, for manufacturing of machinery or manufacturing industry, for a ceremony or a divine service in Shinto shrines and Buddhist temples, for education, for military purposes, and for communication.

It should, however, be noted that the Hokkaido, prefectures, cities, towns, and villages are prohibited in principle to impose a surtax in respect of the taxes newly created or increased under the present law and to impose local taxes on the basis of admission fees on which the Admission Tax and the Special Admission Tax are levied.

Law Relating to Emergency Measures Regarding Taxes

This Law provides en bloc emergency measures to be taken regarding taxes to cope with the changes in economic conditions that may arise from the developments of the China incident. By this Law not only are reductions made in the rates of the Land Tax on Rice and Other Fields, the Business Profits Tax, the Tax on Mining Products, the Special Tax on Mining Products, and the Textiles Consumption Tax, but also the Special Placer Tax is created.

1. Reductions in the Land Tax on Rice and Other Fields and the Business Profits Tax

(1) When the incomes of independent farmers show a decline of more than 25% as against the average profits of the years 1934, 1935 and 1936, reductions of 20 to 50% of the land tax on rice and other fields are made.

(2) When the net profits from businesses show a decline of more than 25% as against the average net profits of the years 1934, 1935 and 1936, reductions of 20 to 50% of the business profits tax are made, provided, however, that this does not apply to cases where the net profits are in excess of ¥6,000. It should, however, be noted that in cases where the capital of a corporation is in excess of ¥200,000, no reduction is made notwithstanding that net profits are less than ¥6,000.

2. Emergency Measures regarding Mining Products

(1) In order to encourage the production of the important mining products, such as gold, copper, tin, zinc, iron sulphide, manganese, and nickel ores, the mining sets created as from January 1, 1938 are exempted from the imposition of the Tax on Mining Products or the Special Tax on Mining Products. When output of each year exceeds the total products of 1937, that portion of excess is exempted from the imposition of the Tax on Mining Products or the Special Tax on Mining Products.

(2) With a view to encouraging the working of dormant mining sets, the Special Placer Tax is imposed on the holders of alluvial mining rights whose object is the extraction of alluvial ores other than alluvial gold, and the tax rate is 30 sen per cho or 1,000 tsubo of placer areas.

3. Partial Exemption from the Textiles Consumption Tax

For the purpose of effecting ecoromy in the consumption of raw cotton, the tissues manufactured with cotton yarns mixed with more than the fixed quantity of staple fibres or hemp, and the tissues manufactured with these mixed yarns and rayon yarns are exempted from the imposition of the Textiles Consumption Tax.

Partial Revision While general reform in central and local taxation systems has been postponed on account of changes in the basis factors underlying taxation owing to the outbreak of the China incident, the following partial revisions have been made with a view to adjusting as far as possible the burden imposed on the people by the current system.

1. The Temporary Tax Increase Law. Under this law, income taxes and succession taxes on individuals had been increased somewhat roughly with extra rates imposed on upper brackets. Under the current revision, moderate progressive rates have been adopted.

2. The Income Tax Law. An income tax will be imposed on retirement allowances or other allowances of like nature in excess of ¥5,000, and also on postal annuities after deducting the amounts of premiums paid. The income tax has also been imposed on the inhabitants of the Ogasawara Islands and the seven islands of Izu.

3. The Succession Tax Law. This law has been so revised that the tax shall be levied in principle on all inherited property on a composite basis, irrespective of location. Another change made is that when a successor receives life insurance money or other special al-

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lowances in excess of ¥5,000 due to death of the succeeded, the excess portion is to be included in the property to be assessed.

4. The Registration Tax Law. Alleviation is made in the rates of this tax against the acquirement of ownership of real estate through transaction or donation, with a view to lessening the tax burden on holders of immovable property.

5. The Brewery Tax Law. A licence system has been adopted with regard to sale of liquors, beer, other alcoholic beverages and alcohol in order to insure perfect application of the brewery tax. The Laws Concerning the Saké Tax, the Alcohol and Alcoholic Beverage Tax and Beer Tax have been revised accordingly.

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CHAPTER IX

BANKING AND THE MONEY MARKET

Banking in 1937 and 1938

Returns of the Bank of Japan Private deposits with the Bank of Japan in 1937 remained in monthly average between 102 million and 71 million yen, showing a slight increase over the preceding year. The maximum figure of the year was 183 million and the minimum 55 million. The volume of deposits on December 31 totalled 140 million, an increase of 7 million over the corresponding figure a year ago.

The volume of advances ranged in monthly average from 526 million to 753 million yen. In the first six months of the year, it showed a decline below the corresponding period of the preceding year due largely to a construction of the advances for foreign exchange contracts, while in the second six months, large requirements of credits for foreign exchange contracts and for industrial purpose caused an increase. The highest figure of the year was 821 million and the lowest 503 million. On December 31, the volume totalled 628 million, a decline of 117 million as compared with the corresponding figure a year ago.

Government current deposits with the Bank remained in monthly average between 298 million and 146 million yen, and the average for the year showed a slight decline as against the preceding year. The maximum of the year was 412 million and the minimum 70 million. The volume on December 31, at 188 million, represented an increase of 83 million over the corresponding figure a year ago.

The issue of Bank notes continued to expand during 1937, the average for the year, at 1,535 million yen, representing a growth of 195 million yen over that of the preceding year. This growth was due to the increased demand for currency arising from the expansion of commercial transactions, to an increase in notes applicable to the reserves against the issue of the notes of the Bank of Chosen and the Bank of Taiwan, and to other factors. The highest figure of the year was 2,399 million and the lowest 1,319 million. The issue on December 31, at 2,305 million, represented an increase of 440 million over the corresponding figure a year ago.

Movement of Funds The rate of increase in deposits in banks throughout the country, excluding the Bank of Japan, somewhat slowed down in 1937 as compared with the preceding year, but taking the year as a whole, the volume of deposits, influenced by activity in financial circles, was still on the increase. The volume that stood at 13,816 million yen on January 31, increased to 14,305 million on March 31, and to 14,893 million on June 30. In July when the China incident broke out, however, the movement of deposits resulting from the development of the situation carried the volume down to 14,646 million, this being 247 million less than a month earlier. From August onward, it tended upward, and after rising in November to the 15,000 million level, it touched on December 31 at 15,747 million, representing a rapid increase of 1,778 million over the corresponding figure a year ago.

Under the influence of the strong demand for industrial funds resulting from the expansion of productive capacity, the growth of credits caused by the recession of activity in the issue market, accommodation of funds available for calls in respect of shares, and the increase in credit requirements for commercial transactions, the volume of advances continued to expand from the commencement of 1937. After the outbreak of the China incident, moreover, steady progress in the expansion of productive capacity, especially in the munitions industry, combined with the development of the situation in China, provoked a greater demand for funds than before, resulting in a sharp increase in advances. The volume of advances that stood at 9,995 million yen on January 31, rose to 10,558 million on June 30. It exceeded the level of 11,000 million on October 31 and touched on December 31 at 11,653 million, representing an increase of 1,637 million as against the corresponding figure a year ago.

Cash deposits in trust companies throughout the country indicated a rising tendency from the beginning of 1937. The volume, remaining at 1,840

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lowances in excess of ¥5,000 due to death of the succeeded, the excess portion is to be included in the property to be assessed.

4. The Registration Tax Law. Alleviation is made in the rates of this tax against the acquirement of ownership of real estate through transaction or donation, with a view to lessening the tax burden on holders of immovable property.

5. The Brewery Tax Law. A licence system has been adopted with regard to sale of liquors, beer, other alcoholic beverages and alcohol in order to insure perfect application of the brewery tax. The Laws Concerning the Saké Tax, the Alcohol and Alcoholic Beverage Tax and Beer Tax have been revised accordingly.

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CHAPTER IX

BANKING AND THE MONEY MARKET

Banking in 1937 and 1938

Returns of the Bank of Japan Private deposits with the Bank of Japan in 1937 remained in monthly average between 102 million and 71 million yen, showing a slight increase over the preceding year. The maximum figure of the year was 183 million and the minimum 55 million. The volume of deposits on December 31 totalled 140 million, an increase of 7 million over the corresponding figure a year ago.

The volume of advances ranged in monthly average from 526 million to 753 million yen. In the first six months of the year, it showed a decline below the corresponding period of the preceding year due largely to a construction of the advances for foreign exchange contracts, while in the second six months, large requirements of credits for foreign exchange contracts and for industrial purpose caused an increase. The highest figure of the year was 821 million and the lowest 503 million. On December 31, the volume totalled 628 million, a decline of 117 million as compared with the corresponding figure a year ago.

Government current deposits with the Bank remained in monthly average between 298 million and 146 million yen, and the average for the year showed a slight decline as against the preceding year. The maximum of the year was 412 million and the minimum 70 million. The volume on December 31, at 188 million, represented an increase of 83 million over the corresponding figure a year ago.

The issue of Bank notes continued to expand during 1937, the average for the year, at 1,535 million yen, representing a growth of 195 million yen over that of the preceding year. This growth was due to the increased demand for currency arising from the expansion of commercial transactions, to an increase in notes applicable to the reserves against the issue of the notes of the Bank of Chosen and the Bank of Taiwan, and to other factors. The highest figure of the year was 2,399 million and the lowest 1,319 million. The issue on December 31, at 2,305 million, represented an increase of 440 million over the corresponding figure a year ago.

Movement of Funds The rate of increase in deposits in banks throughout the country, excluding the Bank of Japan, somewhat slowed down in 1937 as compared with the preceding year, but taking the year as a whole, the volume of deposits, influenced by activity in financial circles, was still on the increase. The volume that stood at 13,816 million yen on January 31, increased to 14,305 million on March 31, and to 14,893 million on June 30. In July when the China incident broke out, however, the movement of deposits resulting from the development of the situation carried the volume down to 14,646 million, this being 247 million less than a month earlier. From August onward, it tended upward, and after rising in November to the 15,000 million level, it touched on December 31 at 15,747 million, representing a rapid increase of 1,778 million over the corresponding figure a year ago.

Under the influence of the strong demand for industrial funds resulting from the expansion of productive capacity, the growth of credits caused by the recession of activity in the issue market, accommodation of funds available for calls in respect of shares, and the increase in credit requirements for commercial transactions, the volume of advances continued to expand from the commencement of 1937. After the outbreak of the China incident, moreover, steady progress in the expansion of productive capacity, especially in the munitions industry, combined with the development of the situation in China, provoked a greater demand for funds than before, resulting in a sharp increase in advances. The volume of advances that stood at 9,995 million yen on January 31, rose to 10,558 million on June 30. It exceeded the level of 11,000 million on October 31 and touched on December 31 at 11,653 million, representing an increase of 1,637 million as against the corresponding figure a year ago.

Cash deposits in trust companies throughout the country indicated a rising tendency from the beginning of 1937. The volume, remaining at 1,840

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4. Call Loans

(In ¥1,000)

	Dec. 31, 1938	Compared with Nov. 30, 1938	Compared with Dec. 31, 1937
The First	14,900	- 1,400	-29,800
Mitsubishi	43,150	-16,750	5,500
Mitsui	40,300	-10,950	4,350
Yasuda	22,470	7,230	-18,070
One Hundredth	23,000	- 3,270	1,050

5. Cash in Hand

(In ¥1,000)

	Dec. 31, 1938	Compared with Nov. 30, 1938	Compared with Dec. 31, 1937
The First	52,596	50	-6,272
Mitsubishi	54,180	12,774	12,336
Mitsui	44,178	8,537	-16,366
Yasuda	53,671	14,412	12,882
One Hundredth	35,664	-3,135	-3,734

Important Laws Issued The law amending the law concerning the Central Chest for Cooperative Societies was promulgated on March 18, 1938. In view of the existing methods of financing the fishing industry, the present amendment provides for participation on the part of the Federation of Fishery Associations and the Union of Fishing Industries in the Central Chest for Cooperative Societies. In keeping with this arrangement the capital of the said Chest will be increased by ¥5,000,000, one-half of which amount will be contributed by the Government. The number of councillors of the Chest will also be increased. The new Law provides that should dividends awarded to contributors other than the Government fall below the stated rate, a limit shall be imposed on the dividend to be paid on the Government contribution. The effective date of this Law is to be fixed by Imperial Ordinance with each provision considered separately.

On March 31, 1938, the Law Concerning Security Underwriting was promulgated. The purpose of this Law is to ensure more adequate control over the underwriters of securities, who play an important part in the money market and in financing growing industrial activities. It places the business of security underwriting on a licence basis and defines clearly the scope of the business. The Law prohibits any company with a capital of less than ¥2,000,000 from conducting this business and authorizes the competent Cabinet Minister to suspend the operations of an existing business when deemed necessary, as well as other measures. Any violation of the Law or of ministerial orders shall be punished by suspension of business, re-election of the officers of companies or cancellation of licences. This Law shall not apply to banks, trust companies and persons legally incorporated under special laws who handle the underwriting of securities.

On April 1, 1938, the Law concerning Temporary Extension of the Maximum Limit for Issuing Convertible Notes against Securities by the Bank of Japan was promulgated. In view of the fact that the note issue of the Bank of Japan is tending to increase in connection with the China Affair, the present Law provides for the raising of the maximum limit of note issue against security reserves by 700,000,000, from the former ¥1,000,000,000 to ¥1,700,000,000. This Law is to be annulled within one year after the termination of the Affair.

Imperial Ordinance Concerning Organization of Commission to Promote Savings was promulgated on June 6, 1938. This Commission has been created to conduct investigations and studies concerning the promotion of savings on the part of the people. It functions under the supervision of the Minister of Finance. The Commission is empowered to make recommendations to the Ministers concerned. The Minister of Finance is ex officio chairman of the Commission, which consists of members chosen from among senior officials in Government service, members of the House of Peers and the House of Representatives and private persons with knowledge and experience in pertinent matters.

The Imperial Ordinance for Amendment to the Ordinance Concerning the Temporary Capital Adjustment Law was issued on August 15, 1938. With regard to the condition of demand for capital and commodities and with a view to adjusting the demand more drastically, the minimum amounts subject to licence or approval under the above-named law have been lowered as regards capital investment and loans. In consequence, the limits were lowered from ¥500,000 to ¥200,000 in the case of corporation capital, and from ¥150,000 to ¥100,000 in the following cases: loans, subscription acceptance, transactions in subscriptions of securities and establishment of new equipment, extension or improvement with one's own capital.

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ACCOUNTS OF BANKS IN THE EMPIRE

(In million of yen)

	1928	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936	1937
Number of Banks	1,178	1,023	913	811	663	637	597	578	546	488
Paid-up Capital	1,825	1,829	1,777	1,738	1,713	1,688	1,662	1,637	1,593	1,521
Reserves	956	992	1,010	981	998	1,002	1,051	1,099	1,134	1,149
Deposits	12,153	12,445	12,153	11,617	11,977	12,582	13,303	14,286	15,360	17,148
Securities	4,980	5,107	5,002	4,983	5,559	6,310	6,906	7,632	8,289	8,963
Bank notes	1,940	1,816	1,570	1,487	1,610	1,745	1,887	2,061	2,157	2,697
Debentures	1,660	1,716	2,083	2,154	2,291	2,128	1,975	1,919	1,840	2,305
Debt	1,523	1,743	1,653	1,820	1,666	1,731	1,734	1,627	1,639	1,537
Bullion and Foreign Money	1,240	847	638	261	239	246	299	306	354	814
Net Profit	153	200	201	229	233	254	297	306	308	170
Dividend	135	136	126	112	110	104	104	103	103	100

BANKS IN JAPAN PROPER

At the end of each year
(Compiled by the Ministry of Finance)

(In ¥1,000)

Year			1933	1934	1935	1936	1937
Number			621	581	563	515	456
Authorized Capital			2,359,724	2,312,842	2,264,813	2,189,966	2,084,425
Paid-up Capital			1,599,376	1,574,217	1,546,960	1,503,011	1,426,825
Reserve Fund			978,391	1,024,723	1,069,242	1,100,097	1,111,042
Deposits	Total Amount		198,091,503	215,123,841	217,789,339	249,660,973	293,635,082
	Balance		11,946,907	12,585,684	13,417,691	14,339,374	16,192,373
Advances	Loans	Total Amount	91,407,221	100,143,740	93,762,741	112,130,841	111,589,286
		Balance	8,719,677	8,355,463	8,476,161	8,844,702	9,607,583
	Bills discounted	Total Amount	13,809,547	15,371,732	15,388,305	17,113,419	21,100,454
		Balance	1,723,212	1,790,436	1,866,111	2,008,836	2,535,737
	Total	Total Amount	105,216,768	115,515,472	109,151,046	129,244,260	132,689,680
		Balance	10,442,889	10,145,899	10,342,272	10,853,538	12,143,320
Profit and Loss Account	Earnings		1,475,827	1,518,030	1,486,329	1,503,300	2,184,024
	Expenses		1,232,629	1,232,786	1,193,503	1,210,664	1,874,767
	Net Profit		319,074	360,178	363,877	364,210	361,088
	Dividend		101,796	101,299	100,176	99,076	95,886
	Rate of Dividend		6.4	6.4	6.5	6.6	6.7

Note:—
(1) The amount carried forward from the preceding year is not included in the total amount of deposits and advances.
(2) The documentary bills are included in the figures for bills discounted.
(3) Exclusive of the number of banks in Chōsen and Taiwan.

DEPOSITS AND LOANS OF THE BANKS THROUGHOUT THE COUNTRY

Published by the Department of Finance
(At the end of 1938. In ¥1,000)

Kinds	Special Banks	Ordinary Banks	Savings Banks	Total
Deposits				
Public money	29,816	—	—	29,816
Current deposits	122,408	2,126,151	—	2,248,559
Special current deposits	195,004	3,050,706	—	3,245,710
Deposits at notice	148,878	988,328	—	1,137,206
Fixed deposits	786,019	8,554,497	16,428	9,357,016

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Kinds	Special Banks	Ordinary Banks	Savings Banks	Total
Other deposits	184,776	185,351	273	370,400
Ordinary and special	—	26,532	1,623,032	1,849,564
Reserves	—	99,769	832,866	932,635
Total	1,466,973	15,031,334	2,672,599	19,170,906
Increase over the previous year	263,369	2,657,467	498,476	3,419,312
Loans				
Loans on bills	126,327	5,670,231	—	5,796,558
Loans on bonds	1,972,739	764,962	245,813	2,983,514
Overdrafts	42,728	1,054,615	—	1,097,343
Discounts	1,090,421	1,298,097	—	2,388,518
Total	3,232,215	8,787,905	245,813	12,265,933
Increase over the previous year	154,131	1,125,178	(—) 651	1,278,658
Call loans	78,737	371,046	—	449,783
Total	3,310,952	9,158,951	245,813	12,715,716
Increase over the previous year	189,623	1,044,580	(—) 651	1,233,552
Negotiable papers owned				
National bonds	820,395	3,835,894	1,508,826	6,165,115
Prefectural and municipal bonds	18,979	338,812	111,836	469,627
Foreign bills	230,084	160,219	27,960	418,263
Debenture bonds	100,366	1,487,276	499,928	2,087,570
Stocks	43,623	617,624	190,329	851,576
Total	1,213,447	6,439,825	2,338,879	9,992,151
Increase over the previous year	492,339	1,526,714	493,225	2,512,278
Cash and deposits on the day				
Cash on hand on the day	27,004	793,718	26,542	847,264
Deposits on hand	81,194	373,369	157,560	612,123
Total	108,198	1,167,087	184,102	1,459,387
Increase over the previous year	14,349	117,692	8,321	140,362

Remarks: The figures do not include accounts of the banks located outside of Japan proper, Taiwan and Karafuto.

Various loans made by savings banks are collectively included in the item of loans on bonds.

The Bank of Japan

(Nippon Ginko)

The Bank of Japan, established in 1882, is the central bank of the Empire on the strength of its privilege of issuing convertible bank notes and its management of Treasury receipts and disbursements as well as the important part it plays in adjusting the money market through the execution of its money rate policies and its conduct of open market operations (See pp. 325-327, Japan Year Book, 1936).

In August, 1937, there were promulgated the Gold Reserve Valuation Law and other laws regarding the gold reserve of the Bank of Japan. In respect of the gold coins and bullion held by the Bank as the reserves for exchange against convertible bank notes, valuation has hitherto been made at the rate of ¥1 per 750 milligrammes of fine gold in accordance with the provisions of the Coinage Law. As, however, owing to a substantial advance in the price of gold in recent years, the valuation made at such rate could not indicate the actual position of the gold reserve of the Bank of Japan, a decision was taken to increase the value of gold applied to the reserves to the approximate level of the current international value. It was, however, recognized that in the world situation when the currencies of various countries are still unstabilized, the time is not yet opportune for changing the value of Japanese currency by

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Yokohama Specie Bank

(Yokohama Shokin Ginko)

The Yokohama Specie Bank is an organ charged with the special task of affording financial facilities for foreign trade through its conduct of the foreign exchange business (See pp. 328, 329, Japan Year Book, 1936). The importance of its functions cannot be over-emphasized in view of the fact that Japan, being rather poor in natural resources, has to import from foreign countries such materials for her major industries as raw cotton, wool, crude oil and iron on the one hand and on the other, export her manufactures such as piece-goods, rayon textiles and raw silk in order to support her rapidly growing population.

The clash over the issue of banknotes between it and the Bank of Chosen, which had been issuing gold notes in Manchuria, was settled on October 1, 1936, through the withdrawal of the Chao-piao in Manchoukuo including the Kwantung Leased Territory.

THE YOKOHAMA SPECIE BANK

At the end of each year

(In ¥1,000)

Year	Authorized Capital	Paid-up Capital	Reserve Fund	Deposits	Advances	Net Profit	Dividend	Rate of Dividend
1928	100,000	100,000	106,767	492,761	291,162	33,628	10,000	10.0%
1929	100,000	100,000	112,046	646,609	344,700	36,153	10,000	10.0
1930	100,000	100,000	117,293	654,146	367,527	26,290	13,000	13.0
1931	100,000	100,000	119,940	547,761	363,185	22,815	10,000	10.0
1932	100,000	100,000	122,260	644,054	391,925	23,387	10,000	10.0
1933	100,000	100,000	124,852	558,689	368,864	27,517	10,000	10.0
1934	100,000	100,000	127,890	551,385	369,274	30,248	10,000	10.0
1935	100,000	100,000	131,174	621,594	346,157	32,914	10,000	10.0
1936	100,000	100,000	134,554	553,372	381,249	34,656	10,000	10.0
1937	100,000	100,000	137,993	588,207	383,133	34,480	10,000	10.0

ASSETS AND LIABILITIES OF THE YOKOHAMA SPECIE BANK

Balance Sheet

(In Yen)

Liabilities	1938 First half	1938 Second half
Capital subscribed	100,000,000	100,000,000
Reserve funds	135,900,000	137,150,000
Redemption fund for loans	3,548,690	3,545,423
Bank debentures	434,972	312,693
Deposits, etc.	805,229,413	1 328,168,502
Bills rediscounted, sold; Suspense receipts, Due to other Banks, etc.	481,217,910	561,101,653
Dividend unpaid	5,505	2,760
Balance from last account	10,484,425	10,422,027
Profit for the half year	6,187,602	6,261,765
Total	1,543,008,518	2,146,964,826
Assets		
Cash account	84,852,751	155,230,658
Cash on hand	23,849,629	41,684,669
Deposits in other banks	61,003,122	113,545,988
Bonds and shares	443,210,537	750,896,984

Assets	1938 First half	1938 Second half
Advances and Bills discounted	363,840,199	399,879,568
Bills purchased and Due from other banks	630,541,612	651,498,427
Bullion and foreign money	902,368	170,176,601
Land and buildings	19,661,050	19,282,585
Total	1,543,008,518	2,146,964,826
Appropriation of profit		
Profit for the half year	6,187,602	6,261,765
Balance brought forward from last account	10,484,425	10,422,027
Total	16,672,027	16,683,793
Reserved	1,250,000	1,250,000
Dividend (10% p. a.)	5,000,000	5,000,000
Balance carried forward to next account	10,422,027	10,433,793

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Other deposits	184,776	185,351	273	370,400
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amendment of the Coinage Law, and consequently, a step has provisionally been taken to alter the value of gold applied to the reserves, notwithstanding the provisions of the Coinage Law, by making valuation at the rate of ¥1 per 290 milligrammes of fine gold. At the same time, both the Bank of Japan's obligation (as provided for in the Convertible Bank Note Regulations) to convert the bank notes into gold coins and the Government obligation (as provided for in the Coinage Law) to comply with the requirements of persons who bring gold bullion for the minting of gold coins have been suspended for the time being. It should further be noted that not only has revaluation been made in the same manner of the gold coins and bullion held by the Bank of Chosen and the Bank of Taiwan as the reserves for exchange against convertible bank notes, but the Government has also authorized these two Banks to transfer such gold in whole or in part to the Bank of Japan for the purpose of securing the centralization of gold holdings into the Bank of Japan. The profits obtained by the Bank of Japan from such revaluation have been paid to the Government, and with the amount so paid the Government has created a Gold Fund Special Account. Certain portion of this fund is applied to expenses necessary for the increase of gold production, while certain portion is used for the purchase of gold bullion or investment in national bonds. It was in September, 1937, that investments in industrial debentures were allowed to be made from this Account. Another law, namely, the Gold Production Law was enacted to secure the centralization of gold holdings and the increase of gold production, whereby the Government is authorized to purchase new gold with the funds of the Gold Fund Special Account, with the result that the Law concerning the Purchase of Gold by the Bank of Japan has been abrogated.

In consequence of the aforesaid revaluation and other factors, the gold reserve of the Bank of Japan expanded to some 800 million yen. In view, however, of the Government policy of increasing the exports from the country by facilitating the importation of certain materials used for merchandise of export, and also of the existing position of exchange funds, the Bank of Japan created on July 23, 1938 the Special Fund for Foreign Exchange with 300 million yen released from its holding of gold bullion, and deposited the fund with the Yokohama Specie Bank. This fund is, as mentioned above, made available for financing imports when necessary, and is replenished with the proceeds of export bills. When it becomes unnecessary to maintain this fund, it will at any time be restored to the gold reserve of the Bank of Japan.

THE BANK OF JAPAN

At the end of each year

(In ¥1,000)

Year	Authorized Capital	Paid-up Capital	Reserve Fund	Deposits	Advances	Net Profit	Dividend	Rate of Dividend
1928	60,000	37,500	86,610	470,442	870,817	10,366	3,750	10.0%
1929	60,000	37,500	92,380	532,756	701,688	19,815	3,750	10.0
1930	60,000	37,500	98,150	456,763	779,138	19,865	3,750	10.0
1931	60,000	45,000	103,920	374,038	989,403	19,761	3,999	10.0
1932	60,000	45,500	108,390	385,143	819,179	33,256	5,850	13.0
1933	60,000	45,000	110,140	370,049	880,833	50,379	4,500	10.0
1934	60,000	45,000	112,740	335,891	946,285	62,811	4,500	10.0
1935	60,000	45,000	114,090	393,248	960,642	50,649	4,500	10.0
1936	60,000	45,000	115,390	345,546	931,195	47,646	4,500	10.0
1937	60,000	45,000	116,040	423,977	630,636	41,077	4,500	10.0

REPORT OF THE BANK OF JAPAN

Balance Sheet

(In yen)

	1938 First Half	1938 Second Half
LIABILITIES		
Notes issued	2,074,125,533.000	2,754,923,377.000

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		1938 First half		1938 Second half	
Government deposits					
Current account	147,347,164.886	—		30,567,595.699	—
Fractional Government Note account	10,917,445.300	—		88,838,506.050	—
Other	121,713,458.051	279,978,068.237		166,298,026.578	285,704,128.327
Current accounts		116,842,711.100			131,046,885.830
Remittances		5,915,642.220			4,261,406.870
Due to other banks	—	168,275.140		—	117,348.420
Suspense receipts	—	130,445,072.300		—	79,589,203.250
Taxes unpaid	—	221,716.730		—	45,504.350
Reserve for sundry expenditures	—	16,052,000.000		—	16,052,000.000
Reserve for settlement of account re Bills discounted, Law No. 55 of 1927	—	4,859,000.000		—	5,154,000.000
Capital subscribed	—	60,000,000.000		—	60,000,000.000
Reserve fund	—	116,380,000.000		—	116,780,000.000
Dividends unpaid	—	2,251.480		—	2,021.480
Profit brought forward from last half-year	—	12,452,031.451		—	12,603,978.916
Net profit for the current half-year	—	9,124,503.425		—	10,964,673.110
Total	—	2,826,566,805.083		—	3,477,244,527.553
ASSETS					
Advances to Government	—	2,924,756.250		—	2,924,756.250
Advances on foreign bills	—	21,581,444.100		—	50,807,492.030
Advances on current accounts	—	657,667.660		—	535 445.820
Bills discounted	—	70,433,528.890		—	85,444,307.510
Bills discounted, Law No. 55 of 1927	—	388,036,114.560		—	371,929,204.930
Deposits	—	30,398,672.600		—	30,258,672.600
Government bonds	—	1,298,444,758.000		—	1,841,407,861.390
Bullion					
Gold coin and bullion	801,286,640.540	—		501,287,020.680	—
Silver bullion	14,544.300	801,301,184.840		14,544.300	501,301,564.980
Foreign Exchange Fund	—	—		—	300,000,000.000
Agencies accounts	—	58,676,188.903		—	85,574,812.026
Agencies accounts, specified	—	11,103,703.960		—	24,898,480.710
Foreign agencies accounts	—	39,704,630.191		—	54,589,326.438
Suspense payments	—	7,262,283.935		—	14,971,684.005
Bank premises	—	17,237,334.694		—	17,210,283.244
Capital unpaid	—	15,000,000.000		—	15,000,000.000
Cash items on Government account	—	16,535,783.055		—	34,094,892.810
Cash on hand	—	47,268,752.945		—	46,295,742.810
Total	—	2,826,566,805.083		—	3,477,244,527.553
PROFIT AND LOSS ACCOUNT					
To Expenses, taxes, interest, etc.	—	31,835,397.199		—	31,754,952.792
To Balance appropriated:—					
Dividend at the rate of 10 per cent. per annum	2,250,000.000	—		2,250,000.000	—
Reserve fund	400,000.000	—		550,000.000	—
Payments to the Government	5,787,555.960	—		7,317,197.020	—
Bonus and allowances	240,000.000	—		240,000.000	—
Reserve for settlement of account re Bills discounted, Law No. 55 of 1927	295,000.000	—		251,000.000	—
Balance carried forward	12,603,978.916	21,576,534.876		12,960,455.006	23,568,652.026
Total	—	53,411,932.075		—	55,323,604.818
By Gross profits for the half-year	—	40,959,900.624		—	42,719,625.902
By Balance brought forward from last half-year	—	12,452,031.451		—	12,603,978.916
Total	—	53,411,932.075		—	55,323,604.818

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Yokohama Specie Bank

(Yokohama Shokin Ginko)

The Yokohama Specie Bank is an organ charged with the special task of affording financial facilities for foreign trade through its conduct of the foreign exchange business (See pp. 328, 329, Japan Year Book, 1936). The importance of its functions cannot be over-emphasized in view of the fact that Japan, being rather poor in natural resources, has to import from foreign countries such materials for her major industries as raw cotton, wool, crude oil and iron on the one hand and on the other, export her manufactures such as piece-goods, rayon textiles and raw silk in order to support her rapidly growing population.

The clash over the issue of bank-notes between it and the Bank of Chosen, which had been issuing gold notes in Manchuria, was settled on October 1, 1936, through the withdrawal of the Chao-piao in Manchoukuo including the Kwantung Leased Territory.

THE YOKOHAMA SPECIE BANK

At the end of each year

(In ¥1,000)

Year	Authorized Capital	Paid-up Capital	Reserve Fund	Deposits	Advances	Net Profit	Dividend	Rate of Dividend
1928	100,000	100,000	106,767	492,761	291,162	33,628	10,000	10.0%
1929	100,000	100,000	112,046	646,609	344,700	36,153	10,000	10.0
1930	100,000	100,000	117,293	654,146	367,527	26,290	13,000	13.0
1931	100,000	100,000	119,940	547,761	363,185	22,815	10,000	10.0
1932	100,000	100,000	122,260	644,054	391,925	23,387	10,000	10.0
1933	100,000	100,000	124,852	558,689	368,864	27,517	10,000	10.0
1934	100,000	100,000	127,890	551,385	369,274	30,248	10,000	10.0
1935	100,000	100,000	131,174	621,594	346,157	32,914	10,000	10.0
1936	100,000	100,000	134,554	553,372	381,249	34,656	10,000	10.0
1937	100,000	100,000	137,993	588,207	383,133	34,480	10,000	10.0

ASSETS AND LIABILITIES OF THE YOKOHAMA SPECIE BANK

Balance Sheet

(In Yen)

Liabilities	1938 First half	1938 Second half
Capital subscribed	100,000,000	100,000,000
Reserve funds	135,900,000	137,150,000
Redemption fund for loans	3,548,690	3,545,423
Bank debentures	434,972	312,693
Deposits, etc.	805,229,413	1,328,168,502
Bills rediscounted, sold; Suspense receipts, Due to other Banks, etc.	481,217,910	561,101,653
Dividend unpaid	5,505	2,760
Balance from last account	10,484,425	10,422,027
Profit for the half year	6,187,602	6,261,765
Total	1,543,008,518	2,146,964,826
Assets		
Cash account	84,852,751	155,230,658
Cash on hand	23,849,629	41,684,669
Deposits in other banks	61,003,122	113,545,988
Bonds and shares	443,210,537	750,896,984

Assets	1938 First half	1938 Second half
Advances and Bills discounted	363,840,199	399,879,568
Bills purchased and Due from other banks	630,541,612	651,498,427
Bullion and foreign money	902,368	170,176,601
Land and buildings	19,661,050	19,282,585
Total	1,543,008,518	2,146,964,826
Appropriation of profit		
Profit for the half year	6,187,602	6,261,765
Balance brought forward from last account	10,484,425	10,422,027
Total	16,672,027	16,683,793
Reserved	1,250,000	1,250,000
Dividend (10% p.a.)	5,000,000	5,000,000
Balance carried forward to next account	10,422,027	10,433,793

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The Hypothec Bank of Japan (Nippon Kwangyo Ginko)

With an authorized capital standing at upwards of ¥110,000,000 and advances reaching the neighbourhood of ¥1,000,000,000, the Hypothec Bank of Japan is now, in fact as well as in name, the central organ of the nation in making loans on mortgage of immovable property. Since 1921, when a law governing the amalgamations was promulgated, it has annexed the greater part of the Agricultural and Industrial Banks (Noko Ginko), which were established as prefectural financial institutions for accommodating provincials with loans on security of immovable property.

The tendency toward such mergers was further promoted following the formation of the Hirota Cabinet, the Agricultural and Industrial Bank of Tokyo Prefecture being annexed to the Hypothec Bank. There are at present only 16 Agricultural and Industrial Banks as compared with 46 in 1900. By thus increasing its capital and enlarging its structure, the Hypothec Bank is becoming more and more positive in improving the financial conditions of cities and agricultural districts (See pp. 330-332, Japan Year Book, 1936)

THE HYPOTHEC BANK OF JAPAN

At the end of each year

(In ¥1,000)

Year	Authorized Capital	Deposits	Advances	Net Profit	Dividend	Rate of Dividend	Mortgage Debentures
1928	99,000	89,143	879,808	18,000	7,488	10.0%	732,009
1929	100,000	92,314	935,896	19,028	7,588	10.0	752,105
1930	108,750	130,961	1,086,958	20,146	8,100	10.0	853,692
1931	108,750	123,393	1,109,187	20,721	8,463	10.0	896,715
1932	108,750	149,516	1,167,763	20,327	8,463	10.0	915,683
1933	108,750	145,888	1,094,070	19,961	8,463	10.0	852,806
1934	111,755	136,091	1,046,809	20,345	8,614	10.0	797,481
1935	111,775	141,959	969,081	20,514	8,765	10.0	729,394
1936	115,275	148,517	1,020,218	20,839	8,940	10.0	715,390
1937	140,920	257,361	1,312,839	24,916	11,680	10.0	959,447

Agricultural and Industrial Banks (Noko Ginko)

The Agricultural and Industrial Banks are prefectural financial institutions for accommodating provincials with long-term loans at a low rate of interest on security of immovable property and, being established in every prefecture, are most useful through their connection with their central institution, the Hypothec Bank of Japan. But with a view to affording further financial facilities to local districts, the law concerning the amalgamation of the Hypothec Bank and the Agricultural and Industrial Banks was enacted in 1921. By virtue of this law the former was allowed to take over the business of the latter on condition that it establish its branches in places where head offices and branches of the latter were in existence. The Agricultural and Industrial Banks are joint-stock companies, each having a capital of not less than ¥200,000. Each of these banks has, as a general rule, for its exclusive business district a prefecture. The business of the Agricultural and Industrial Banks is principally the same as that of the Hypothec Bank of Japan. These banks may become agents for the Hypothec Bank or other Agricultural and Industrial Banks. When acting as agents for loans made by the Hypothec Bank, Agricultural and Industrial Banks may guarantee to the bank the solvency of the debtors. They may take charge of the receipt and disbursement of the funds of prefectures or cities. They are authorized, when at least one-fourth of the nominal capital has been paid up, to issue agricultural and industrial debentures to an amount not exceeding fifteen times the paid-up capital. Such debentures, however, must not exceed the amount remaining after the deduction of the amount of pledges given for money borrowed from the Hypothec Bank from the total amount of outstanding loans redeemable by annual instalments and at a fixed time. The face-value of agricultural and industrial debentures which was originally not less than twenty yen has been reduced to ten yen and upward; and when debentures of not

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more than twenty yen face value are to be issued, such issue may be effected by sale. For this purpose a term must be fixed for the sale, and the amount sold within that term is taken as the amount of issue. These agricultural and industrial debentures must be redeemed by means of drawings at least twice a year in amounts proportionate to the amount to be redeemed in the same year of the loans redeemable by annual instalments except that part thereof given as security to the Hypothec Bank as mentioned above. There were 6 of these banks in existence throughout the country at the end of 1937.

AGRICULTURAL AND INDUSTRIAL BANKS

At the end of each year

(In ¥1,000)

Year	No. of Banks	Authorized Capital	Deposits	Advances	Net Profit	Dividend	Rate of Dividend	Debentures
1928	25	104,400	176,926	686,953	21,043	8,488	9.5%	468,890
1929	19	104,400	165,899	705,997	21,551	8,799	9.4	506,409
1930	19	88,900	148,654	651,752	19,337	8,125	9.4	469,797
1931	19	88,900	146,030	669,906	17,386	7,523	9.4	483,554
1932	19	88,900	154,383	699,170	16,773	7,432	9.2	506,129
1933	19	88,900	162,775	672,893	17,659	7,449	9.2	496,673
1934	17	84,500	166,996	622,049	18,586	7,306	9.2	449,395
1935	17	84,500	167,834	602,155	19,196	7,162	9.2	429,543
1936	16	77,500	170,051	520,489	19,713	6,760	9.1	356,356
1937	6	22,000	65,593	183,671	5,854	1,631	8.0	135,236

The Industrial Bank of Japan
(Nippon Kogyo Ginko)

The primary function of the Industrial Bank of Japan is to underwrite national and prefectural bonds and company debentures and make loans on security of foundations created as prescribed by law. Its leadership among the underwriters is attracting a great deal of public attention, particularly because of its efforts to purify the underwriting world and rationalize the terms for underwriting. In addition to its endeavours for promoting financial facilities for medium-sized and small-scale industry, this bank is now being called upon to become more active in the furtherance of the shipbuilding industry along the lines of the national policy on shipping (See pp. 333, 334, Japan Year Book, 1936).

THE INDUSTRIAL BANK OF JAPAN

At the end of each year

(In ¥1,000)

Year	Authorized Capital	Deposits	Advances	Capital Fund in Trust	Net Profit	Dividend	Rate of Dividend	Debentures
1928	50,000	49,957	325,085	167,014	6,709	3,000	6.0%	273,003
1929	50,000	44,988	380,630	163,492	6,765	3,000	6.0	278,575
1930	50,000	46,858	455,336	165,011	6,491	3,000	6.0	333,303
1931	50,000	52,978	486,003	176,992	6,547	3,000	6.0	343,330
1932	50,000	56,047	476,090	199,982	6,638	3,000	6.0	404,041
1933	50,000	59,236	408,177	354,645	7,800	3,000	6.0	323,840
1934	50,000	59,736	369,429	860,085	7,810	3,000	6.0	290,393
1935	50,000	99,614	393,353	940,085	6,863	3,000	6.0	279,659
1936	50,000	269,456	506,504	1,200,635	6,878	3,000	6.0	244,477
1937	50,000	279,646	932,243	1,408,835	6,909	3,000	6.0	640,868

The Hokkaido Colonial Bank
(Hokkaido Takushoku Ginko)

The Hokkaido Colonial Bank was established with the object of supplying capital for enterprises for colonizing and developing Hokkaido and Karafuto (the Japanese half of Saghalien), and especially for the purpose of facilitating the supply of capital by making loans on

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security of agricultural products and company shares and debentures as well as making long-term loans at low interest rate on immovable property. The bank had at first a capital of ¥3,000,000 but on April 23, 1922 it was increased to ¥20,000,000, of which ¥12,500,000 has been paid up. The business scope is very much similar to that of the Hypothec Bank of Japan and the Agricultural and Industrial Banks. The bank is authorized to issue debentures of not less than ten yen face value to an amount not exceeding 15 times its paid-up capital. Such debentures, however, must not exceed the total outstanding amount of loans which are redeemable by annual instalments or at a fixed date, and when debentures of not more than twenty yen face value are to be issued by the bank such issue may be effected by sale. These debentures must be redeemed by means of drawings at least twice a year in amounts proportionate to the amount of the said loans to be redeemed in the same year.

THE HOKKAIDO COLONIAL BANK

At the end of each year

(In ¥1,000)

Year	Authorized Capital	Deposits	Advances	Net Profit	Dividend	Rate of Dividend	Debentures
1928	20,000	66,106	178,071	3,318	1,125	9.0%	103,238
1929	20,000	73,571	178,779	3,360	1,125	9.0	96,938
1930	20,000	75,056	188,282	3,391	1,125	9.0	102,753
1931	20,000	69,759	187,341	2,932	1,000	8.0	102,716
1932	20,000	79,468	215,705	2,687	938	7.5	124,252
1933	20,000	89,089	217,620	2,411	875	7.0	122,909
1934	20,000	102,828	212,216	2,443	875	7.0	114,491
1935	20,000	100,486	225,021	2,496	875	7.0	124,662
1936	20,000	102,563	215,924	2,382	875	7.0	121,367
1937	20,000	121,203	235,403	2,258	875	7.0	119,102

The Bank of Taiwan (Taiwan Ginko)

The Bank of Taiwan was founded in September, 1889, four years after Japan's occupation of Formosa, as the result of the Sino-Japanese War.

It is a joint-stock company with an authorized capital of ¥15,000,000, of which ¥13,125,000 has been paid up.

The Bank is privileged to issue banknotes of denomination of one yen and upward, which are at any time convertible into gold yen. It is required to hold as conversion reserve gold and silver coins and bullion of the same amount as the notes issued; the amount of notes not covered by this specie reserve is limited to ¥20,000,000; they may be issued on security of Government paper money and securities, notes of the Bank of Japan, and other bonds and commercial bills of a reliable nature. Notes issued beyond this limit are subject to a tax of not less than three per cent, per annum.

THE BANK OF TAIWAN

At the end of each year

(In ¥1,000)

Year	Authorized Capital	Deposits	Advances	Net Profit	Dividend	Rate of Dividend
1928	15,000	76,090	285,911	—	—	—
1929	15,000	71,678	282,215	—	—	—
1930	15,000	73,661	273,243	859	—	—
1931	15,000	78,920	261,642	858	—	—
1932	15,000	95,070	245,538	1,065	395	3.0%
1933	15,000	101,457	227,944	1,296	395	3.0%
1934	15,000	112,610	214,891	1,443	395	3.0
1935	15,000	120,745	214,006	1,776	395	3.0
1936	15,000	130,017	221,918	2,174	395	3.0
1937	15,000	148,814	244,828	2,644	459	3.5

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The Bank of Chosen
(Chosen Ginko)

The Bank of Korea was established in October, 1909, its name being changed to the Bank of Chosen in 1911 by virtue of the Bank of Chosen Act issued by the Government following Korea's annexation to Japan in April, 1910. The bank took over the assets and liabilities of the Bank of Korea, following the transfer of the assets and liabilities of the Dai-Ichi (First) Bank, which had been established in Korea since 1879, and which had received its right of issuing notes in that country in 1901, and which had acted as the central Japanese banking institution since the close of the Russo-Japanese War. The bank is authorized to issue bank notes. In 1917 the bank's notes were given sole right of legal tender in the Kwantung Leased Territory and along the South Manchuria Railway, and the limit of its guaranteed note issue was increased to ¥50,000,000. The bank greatly increased its activities during the World War extending to Japan proper, where it commenced foreign exchange transactions. The financial reaction following the World War caused it to narrow its business activities. It wrote off frozen assets to the amount of ¥36,000,000 for the first half of 1925 and halved its capital to ¥40,000,000. The bank borrowed a large amount of money from the Bank of Japan after 1920 on 10 years' repayment. Through revision of the Bank of Chosen Act in 1924 the right of control of the bank was transferred from the Governor-General of Korea to the Minister of Finance. After the foundation of Manchoukuo, however, steps were taken by the Manchou Government to stabilize the value of the yuan and to adjust the complicated currency system of that country, and in conformity with this policy, the Bank of Chosen reduced the issue of its notes in Manchoukuo (excluding Kwantung Province) from December 23, 1935 onward. Simultaneously with the establishment of the Industrial Bank of Manchou at Hsingking, the branches of the Bank of Chosen in Manchoukuo (excluding Kwantung Province) were all turned over to the Industrial Bank of Manchou in December, 1936, with the result that the issue of the Bank of Chosen notes in Manchoukuo was entirely discontinued. It may further be noted that with the abolition of extra-territoriality in Manchoukuo and the transfer of the administrative power in the South Manchuria Railway Company Zone to Manchoukuo on December 1, 1937, the provisions respecting the legal tender of the Bank of Chosen notes in the Zone were also abrogated.

THE BANK OF CHOSEN

At the end of each year

(In ¥1,000)

Year	Authorized Capital	Deposits	Advances	Net Profit	Dividend	Rate of Dividend
1928	40,000	149,919	319,408	1,585	940	4.0%
1929	40,000	151,150	314,723	1,865	940	4.0
1930	40,000	98,785	266,554	1,828	940	4.0
1931	40,400	111,462	297,400	1,835	940	4.0
1932	40,000	193,932	337,468	1,849	940	4.0
1933	40,000	215,105	354,508	1,853	940	4.0
1934	40,000	228,193	420,533	1,847	940	4.0
1935	40,000	292,122	422,814	1,859	940	4.0
1936	40,000	411,142	484,349	1,872	940	4.0
1937	40,000	293,943	453,669	1,866	940	4.0

Trust Business

Wartime Effect on Trust Companies The accounts of trust companies in this country had been steadily increasing during the past 10 years at the rate of an annual average of ¥160,000,000. When the taxation reform plan worked out under the quasi-wartime system was announced during the latter part of 1936, however, the increasing rate of monetary trusts which form the major part of the accounts of trust companies slackened on account of the fear of a heavy tax. In February, 1937, the taxation reform plan was replaced by a temporary taxation increase plan which brought about an atmosphere of assurance in financial circles. The monetary trusts then showed a sign of a renewed tendency toward increase but the expectations of a definite increase were bound to remain unfulfilled as funds poured into the stock

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market manifesting a remarkable activity during April.

Further, the strained relations with China and the Soviet Union caused a tremendous amount of funds to be assigned to the purchase of raw materials from foreign sources and the expansion of the productive facilities of the domestic industry. Under the circumstances, withdrawals of monetary trusts which fell due were far in excess of new trusts. Thus, the accounts of trust companies which recorded an increase of only ¥72,000,000 between the end of 1936 and May, 1937, began to show a decrease in June, which was the first phenomenon of its kind since December, 1932. The decreasing tendency of monetary trusts was still in evidence in August although the total amount of the accounts of trust companies showed a slight increase because of increased securities trusts.

In order to cope with the situation, the Mitsui Trust Company modified its time-honoured policy and alleviated the restrictions on the acceptance of big lots of monetary trusts in the form of fixed deposits. This action on the part of the Mitsui Trust attracted a great deal of attention in the banking circles. During the past several years of depression when a low-interest tendency prevailed, local banks, insurance companies and leading industrial companies were inclined to put their spare funds in trust for a higher interest. Considering such trusts as unsteady and tending to lower unduly the yields of trusts in general, the Mitsui Trust Company adopted a policy of avoiding acceptance of them as much as possible. The situation, however, changed in 1937 in such a manner that even big lots of trusts were not considered as unsteady and there was no uncertainty as to the manner of investment as there was an active demand for industrial funds.

Change in Substance of Assets As already stated, monetary trusts fell into an unusual depression at the beginning of 1937 and thus exercised a negative influence on the whole assets of trust companies for a time, which is an unusual phenomenon in recent years. Still more abnormal was the rapid increase of leading securities put in trust. Accounts indicated that monetary trusts had recorded an increase of ¥32,000,000 at the end of December, 1937, over the figures for the end of December, 1936, but, as a matter of fact, the monetary trusts were at a standstill because the system of accounting of trust companies reckons the monthly profits amounting to several millions of yen as a natural increase in trusts under ordinary circumstances. Securities trusts, on the other hand, increased by as much as ¥100,000,000 during the same period. This was the first time that securities trusts increased in a larger measure than monetary trusts.

During 1933, monetary trusts accounted for 96 per cent of the increased trusts. This percentage then declined to 91 per cent and later to 78 per cent and finally fell to 20 per cent in December, 1937. On the contrary, securities trusts exhibited an increasing tendency and far surpassed monetary trusts in 1937.

A review of the operating conditions of assets of trust companies during 1937 reveals that the amount of securities in hand, which had recorded an unusual increase at the end of 1936, appeared to have slowed down while advances increased markedly. The slackened rate of increase in the securities in hand was due to a decrease in foreign bonds as well as in local bonds and debentures which in turn was attributable to the depression in underwriting circles. On the other hand, the marked increase in advances was illustrative of the active demand for industrial funds.

Increased Influence of Trust Companies The total assets of trust companies throughout the country now reach upwards of ¥2,700,000,000. As a result of the increased financial influence of the trust companies, the question of co-operation between the trust companies and underwriting circles is assuming an increasing importance as also the question of defining the spheres of influence of the trust companies and banks.

Although there exists a general contention that the spheres of activities of trust companies and banks are not clearly defined, it is an admitted fact that the trust companies are increasingly becoming a machinery for long-term financial contracts. Monetary trusts under contracts lasting for five years or more accounted for only 6 per cent of the total amount of trusts at the end of 1926 but the figure increased to approximately 30 per cent at the end of 1935 while the percentage of those under contracts lasting for less than five years decreased from over 87 per cent to nearly 66 per cent. This fact indicates that the spheres of influence of the trust companies and banks are being gradually and definite-

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ly established. It is particularly so since the big twelve of the 31 trust companies throughout the country have adopted a policy of according better treatment to trusts of longer terms.

TRUST COMPANIES

At the End of Nov.	No. of Head Offices	No. of Branch Offices	Authorized Capital	Paid-up Capital	Reserve Funds	Net Profit	Dividend
					(In yen)		
1930	37	14	293,500,000	82,700,000	19,654,873	14,700,688	3,295,581
1931	37	14	288,500,000	81,450,000	23,202,866	14,856,542	3,387,781
1932	37	14	288,500,000	81,450,000	25,849,983	15,464,612	3,428,578
1933	36	16	287,000,000	82,076,075	29,536,346	18,019,865	3,689,200
1934	33	16	282,000,000	78,336,575	34,180,490	20,984,787	3,674,498
1935	32	17	272,000,000	76,308,575	39,421,837	22,135,929	3,638,498
1936	31	17	259,000,000	74,670,478	43,469,351	23,393,825	3,584,747
1937	29	18	259,000,000	73,932,475	48,676,307	24,961,897	3,865,998

Assets

(In ¥1,000)

Companies' Own Account

At the end of each year	Unpaid Capital	Advances	Deposits	Securities	Premises	Guarantees	Miscellaneous Assets	Losses	Total
1930	210,800	29,307	8,164	61,917	13,098	10,262	3,572	434	342,742
1931	207,050	30,660	8,519	60,584	13,190	7,767	1,780	745	337,417
1932	207,050	33,658	8,902	59,315	13,757	8,403	3,294	867	342,303
1933	204,924	31,206	9,101	67,935	13,292	8,616	3,471	1,239	346,786
1934	203,663	35,695	8,887	71,988	12,618	7,597	1,871	289	348,849
1935	195,691	32,936	9,302	77,567	11,872	7,046	2,533	290	343,813
1936	184,330	33,483	8,081	81,369	12,631	6,393	1,882	314	335,865
1937	183,068	35,285	8,518	84,286	12,160	4,988	2,010	3	334,808

Trust Account

	Securities	Advances	Deposits	Movable and Real Estate	Miscellaneous Assets	Cash in Hand	Total
1930	460,232	886,431	43,192	30,307	5,640	3,355	1,577,649
1931	478,479	877,754	50,986	32,469	30,394	4,740	1,642,312
1932	486,303	876,081	50,278	36,226	7,946	3,997	1,628,413
1933	568,901	923,807	47,529	40,565	30,758	4,188	1,765,289
1934	799,418	896,288	54,960	40,648	31,443	3,813	2,058,923
1935	940,644	949,137	50,129	42,669	42,858	3,719	2,310,253
1936	1,133,153	983,811	41,606	43,884	36,459	3,669	2,551,779
1937	1,158,156	1,088,999	43,869	44,199	57,835	3,504	2,705,002
1938	1,314,804	1,257,471	48,097	51,540	71,528	2,585	2,746,025
1939 (June)	1,459,455	1,329,824	50,762	57,063	71,767	2,708	2,971,579

Liabilities

Companies' Own Account

	Authorized Capital	Reserve Funds	Guarantees	Miscellaneous Liabilities	Net Profit	Branches Accounts	Total
1930	293,500	19,655	10,262	8,238	7,272	—	342,742
1931	288,500	23,203	7,767	7,145	6,930	—	337,417
1932	288,500	25,850	8,403	5,879	8,180	5,491	342,303
1933	287,000	29,536	8,616	7,076	9,538	5,020	346,786
1934	282,000	34,180	7,597	9,612	10,557	4,903	348,849
1935	272,000	39,422	7,046	8,465	11,312	5,568	343,813
1936	259,000	43,470	6,393	8,784	12,042	6,176	335,865
1937	259,000	48,676	4,988	8,308	12,457	3,379	334,808

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Trust Account

	Money in Trust	Trust Fund other than Money in Trust	Securities in Trust	Claims in Trust	Real Estates in Trust	Superficies in Trust	Branchs Accounts	Total
1930	1,178,749	7,051	198,870	16,589	27,896	2	—	1,577,649
1931	1,231,851	7,816	189,800	16,087	29,266	2	—	1,642,312
1932	1,226,005	9,858	183,009	11,794	30,143	2	167,602	1,628,413
1933	1,378,375	11,641	183,867	9,314	32,536	15	149,541	1,765,289
1934	1,570,191	8,962	205,824	9,013	32,566	14	232,353	2,058,923
1935	1,729,993	10,169	250,205	6,052	32,723	14	281,097	2,310,253
1936	1,854,153	8,002	340,954	4,490	34,972	16	309,192	2,551,779
1937	1,886,416	8,731	457,661	8,026	35,713	16	308,439	2,705,002
1938	2,044,920	8,936	635,773	13,156	43,097	15	—	2,745,900
1939 (June)	2,177,638	9,945	720,880	15,035	48,048	15	—	2,971,564

Mutual Loan Companies (Mujin Kaisha)

In addition to the banking institutions there are mutual loan companies (Mujin Kaisha), which are credit establishments peculiar to Japan and are based on mutual credit among the middle and lower classes of people. Mutual credit societies have existed in Japan since olden times. The Mutual Loan Society Law was promulgated in June, 1915, whereby the mutual loan societies acquired a legal standing. But in order to enable these societies to perform the function of financial institutions for lower classes and to extend their business operations, fundamental amendments were made in the law in 1931. According to the provisions of the Mutual Loan Company Law, put into effect on and after July 1, 1931, the business of the companies is to make the subscribers pay money in instalments during a fixed period and then to distribute it, in lots, among the subscribers, by drawings, biddings or some similar means, the number of such lots and the sum of money to be thus distributed being previously fixed. Each company must have a nominal capital of more than ¥30,000 and a paid-up capital of more than ¥15,000. No company is allowed to carry on this kind of business without permission of the Minister of Finance. Those so engaged are prohibited from carrying on any other business at the same time and are under obligation to present business reports to the Government. Restrictions also are put on the use of business funds.

The total amount handled by these mutual credit societies throughout the country is given as between ¥3,000,000,000 and ¥4,000,000,000 and members of the societies are said to number some 4,000,000 persons. Many prefectural governments have issued decrees controlling the societies with a view to preventing evil practices.

MUTUAL LOAN COMPANIES

ASSETS

(In ¥1,000)

Year	No. of Companies	Money yet to be paid in instalments	Convertible Notes	Loans	Deposits	Total, including others
1930	264	56,512	1,717	36,769	17,169	129,495
1931	267	60,912	2,086	42,284	16,446	143,425
1932	274	71,933	2,621	41,728	19,472	157,347
1933	276	67,616	4,447	44,271	26,340	166,723
1934	273	63,002	7,643	51,473	32,084	179,865
1935	262	56,041	9,625	61,723	33,293	187,881
1936	253	51,848	13,152	73,365	38,594	204,422
1937	246	50,727	18,358	96,568	45,252	238,749

Note: Unpaid capital and loss are discounted.

LIABILITIES

(In ¥1,000)

Year	Paid-up capital	Reserves	Net profit	Total, including others
1930	17,540	7,868	1,107	129,495
1931	17,790	8,827	721	143,425
1932	18,272	9,557	752	157,347

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Year	Paid-up capital	Reserves	Net profit	Total, including others
1933	18,581	9,554	447	166,723
1934	19,330	9,927	(-) 134	179,865
1935	19,067	10,708	710	187,881
1936	18,933	10,923	1,512	204,422
1937	18,886	12,071	1,666	238,749

Co-operative Credit Associations

Credit Associations acquired a legal standing under a new system as defined by the so-called Co-operative Association Law, promulgated in March, 1900. The business of these associations is to lend money to their members in order to better their economic conditions and to employ their savings. By virtue of the revision of the law in July, 1917, the business of the Credit Associations has been expanded and they may use the savings of the families of their members, public corporations or legal persons who do not aim at profit. Especially, the Credit Associations in cities or city areas designated by the competent Minister of State may, besides the business above described, discount bills for their members and handle savings of persons who are not their members but reside inside the same boundary. Therefore, they may be called the People's Banks in city areas, and are placed under the control of the Minister of Finance and the Minister of Agriculture and Forestry. The actual number of these associations was 274 at the end of December, 1937.

Year	Money paid	Loans	Savings	Total B/S
		(In yen)		
1930	63,361,120	136,199,660	163,279,668	269,463,423
1931	61,496,440	143,046,052	165,351,942	272,554,757
1932	58,739,865	138,832,405	160,233,203	271,284,152
1933	56,493,820	158,026,038	177,376,486	292,271,078
1934	58,516,000	160,450,000	189,760,000	309,983,000
1935	59,028,000	164,584,000	218,676,000	326,973,000
1936	58,394,000	175,197,000	241,664,000	350,034,000
1937	59,930,000	190,619,000	277,453,000	390,805,000

Central Chest for Co-operative Associations

(Sangyo Kumiai Chuo Kinko)

As an institution for regulating the movement of funds of the Federations of Co-operative Associations and of individual Co-operative Associations and for bringing them into close touch with the central money market, the Central Chest for Co-operative Associations was established by law on April 5, 1923. Its capital at present amounts to ¥30,700,000, of which ¥15,000,000 is invested by the Government and the remainder, ¥15,700,000, by the Co-operative Associations throughout the country. The Associations that participate in the investment amount to more than 80 per cent of the total number existing. The principal business of the Central Chest for Co-operative Associations is as follows:

(1) To make without security loans redeemable at a fixed time within a period of not more than five years to Federations of Co-operative Associations or Co-operative Associations;

(2) To make loans without security redeemable by annual instalments within a period not exceeding thirty years to the Federations of Co-operative Associations or Co-operative Associations, provided that the total amount of such loans does not exceed one-half of the paid-up capital and debentures issued;

(3) To discount bills for, or allow overdrafts to, Federations of Co-operative Associations or Co-operative Associations;

(4) To undertake exchange business for Federations of Co-operative Associations or Co-operative Associations;

(5) To receive money as deposits from Federations of Co-operative Associations, public corporations, or legal persons not engaged in business aiming at profit;

(6) To take securities for safe custody for Federations of Co-operative Associations or Co-operative Associations; and

(7) To buy and sell on a consignment basis securities for Federations of Co-operative Associations or Co-operative Associations.

The Central Chest is authorized to issue debentures and is subject to control both of the Minister of Agriculture and Forestry and the Minister of Finance. The assets and liabilities of these associations follow:

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ASSETS

(In ¥1,000)

March of	Unpaid Investment	Loans made	Deposits in Banks	Securities	Total, including Others
1931	2,614	78,774	23,149	13,183	120,880
1932	1,159	93,298	16,908	11,823	127,891
1933	381	127,332	40,145	18,493	192,073
1934	14	150,970	30,532	57,216	245,786
1935	—	141,314	28,247	73,897	248,584
1936	—	147,419	23,499	79,177	256,572
1937	—	155,565	18,327	61,673	242,471
1938	—	162,884	26,312	76,027	272,208

LIABILITIES

(In ¥1,000)

March of	Investment by Government	Investment by Others	Co-operative Debentures	Fixed Deposits	Total, including Others
1931	15,000	15,700	41,240	35,661	120,880
1932	15,000	15,700	41,419	32,447	127,891
1933	15,000	15,700	59,503	59,624	192,073
1934	15,000	15,700	64,411	84,454	245,785
1935	15,000	15,700	84,291	86,149	248,584
1936	15,000	15,700	86,575	99,383	256,572
1937	15,000	15,700	82,939	80,776	242,471
1938	15,000	15,700	82,312	103,613	272,208

The Big Seven

In the commercial banking world, of non-governmental banks there are seven which stand out from all the others in importance, these are the Mitsui, Mitsubishi, Dai-Ichi, Sumitomo, Yasuda, Daihyaku (the One Hundredth Bank) and Sanwa, the last named was created by the amalgamation of three banks, i.e. Kōnoiké, Yamaguchi and the 34th in December, 1933 :

BUSINESS CONDITIONS OF THE BIG SEVEN

(Figures in ¥1,000)

1. Dai-Ichi Bank

Kinds	1938 First half	1938 Second half
Paid-up capital	57,500	57,500
Total deposits	1,272,161	1,383,141
Foreign bills	760	1,913
Total liabilities	1,463,450	1,584,984
Fixed assets	24,790	24,588
Total assets	1,463,450	1,584,984
Total profits	15,432	17,051
Rate of dividend	8.0	8.0

2. Mitsubishi Bank

Kinds	1938 First half	1938 Second half
Paid-up capital	62,500	62,500
Total deposits	1,078,288	1,149,416
Foreign bills	1,274	1,072
Total liabilities	1,272,332	1,345,870
Fixed assets	20,299	20,293
Total assets	1,272,332	1,345,870
Total profits	13,808	13,993
Rate of dividend	8.0	8.0

3. Yasuda Bank

Kinds	1938 First half	1938 Second half
Paid-up capital	92,750	92,750
Total deposits	1,212,315	1,348,135
Foreign bills	281	995
Total liabilities	1,491,835	1,636,226
Fixed assets	11,571	14,456
Total assets	1,491,835	1,636,226
Total profits	9,806	9,879
Rate of dividend	7.0	7.0

4. Mitsui Bank

Kinds	1938 First half	1938 Second half
Paid-up capital	60,000	60,000
Total deposits	1,103,532	1,126,580
Foreign bills	15,371	17,034
Total liabilities	1,321,099	1,351,109
Fixed assets	16,399	17,864
Total assets	1,321,099	1,351,109
Total profits	16,235	17,086
Rate of dividend	8.0	8.0

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5. Sumitomo Bank

Kinds	1938 First half	1938 Second half
Paid-up capital	50,000	50,000
Total deposits	1,307,319	1,458,522
Foreign bills	9,020	8,253
Total liabilities	1,470,923	1,625,971
Fixed assets	17,631	17,968
Total assets	1,470,923	1,625,971
Total profits	8,262	8,641
Rate of dividend	8.0	8.0

6. Sanwa Bank

Kinds	1938 First half	1938 Second half
Paid-up capital	72,200	72,200
Total deposits	1,477,652	1,656,851
Foreign bills	2,395	2,717
Total liabilities	1,677,959	1,868,300
Fixed assets	26,161	28,357
Total assets	1,677,959	1,868,300
Total profits	5,827	3,925
Rate of dividend	7.0	7.0

7. Dai-Hyaku Bank (The One Hundredth Bank)

Kinds	1938 First half	1938 Second half
Paid-up capital	28,072	28,072
Total deposits	863,652	967,176
Foreign bills	928	2,230
Total liabilities	954,466	1,060,475
Fixed assets	15,355	17,421
Total assets	954,466	1,060,475
Total profits	2,461	2,613
Rate of dividend	6.0	6.0

FOREIGN BANKS WITH BRANCHES IN JAPAN

Name	Nationality	No. of Branches in Japan	Places of Branches in Japan
Hongkong & Shanghai Banking Corporation	Great Britain	3	Kobé, Yokohama, Tokyo
Chartered Bank of India, Australia & China	„	2	Yokohama, Kobé
National City Bank of New York	U. S. A.	4	Kobé, Yokohama, Tokyo, Osaka
Banque Franco-Japonaise	France	2	Tokyo, Kobé
Nederlandsche Handel-Maatschappij	Holland	1	Kobé
Nederlandsch-Indische Handelsbank	„	2	Kobé, Tokyo
Bank of China	China	1	Osaka
Central Brank of Manchu	Manchoukuo	1	Tokyo

Clearing Houses

The establishment of the first clearing house in Japan took place in Osaka in 1879, preceding by eight years that in Tokyo, where one was established in 1887. Cash transactions marked the commercial society of this country early in the Meiji era and no transactions in bills or cheques were then conducted. Viscount Shibusawa and other business leaders encouraged paper transactions among businessmen at large and the time soon came when it was necessary for Tokyo to establish a clearing house, one being eventually brought into existence by the Bankers' Association in 1887. The first president of the institution was the late Viscount Shibusawa and the present holder of that office is Mr. Hirozo Mori, Vice-president of Yasuda Bank. At the end of 1938, there were 47 clearing houses in Japan. The total of bills cleared at the clearing-houses throughout the Empire in the year 1938 reached 47,126,000 bills and ¥86,095,000,000. As compared with the preceding year the number of bills increased by 838,000, while the amount gained was ¥573,000,000. The amount of clearings in Tokyo and Osaka and Japan proper were as follows:

BILLS CLEARED AT THE CLEARING-HOUSES IN JAPAN PROPER

(000's omitted)

Year	Tokyo No. of Bills	Tokyo Amount	Osaka No. of Bills	Osaka Amount	(All Japan) No. of Bills	(All Japan) Amount
1928	13,117	31,126,238	10,009	21,684,365	36,944	68,592,995
1929	13,525	25,070,553	10,390	22,374,043	38,338	63,343,632

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Year	Tokyo		Osaka		(All Japan)	
	No. of Bills	Amount	No. of Bills	Amount	No. of Bills	Amount
1930	12,721	21,366,617	9,725	13,889,655	36,146	51,376,234
1931	12,408	21,593,184	9,280	14,432,147	34,631	46,022,042
1932	12,646	26,562,718	9,471	15,624,537	34,387	52,751,946
1933	13,577	31,549,888	10,412	22,175,225	37,296	66,871,808
1934	14,253	25,338,571	9,547	24,438,933	37,739	64,376,620
1935	15,153	25,512,016	10,472	22,688,248	40,725	63,858,341
1936	15,887	27,400,087	11,090	24,979,292	42,961	69,862,561
1937	17,308	34,125,353	11,983	30,153,543	45,846	85,270,132
1938	—	38,294,317	—	28,539,333	—	86,037,857

Postal Savings Deposits

The postal savings deposits system of Japan was adopted from the Post Office Savings Act of Great Britain. It was established by an Imperial Ordinance of August, 1874, and was enforced in May of the following year at 22 post offices in the country. The history of this service in Japan is one of the oldest in the world, older than that of Germany or France and 36 years older than that of America. At first the annual interest rate was 3 per cent, the highest rate was 7.2 per cent during 1881-1884, but it is 2.76 per cent since April, 1937. The maximum amount one could deposit was at first ¥500. In the first year of enforcement the amount totalled ¥51,224 for 1,843 depositors. In 1882 the Mail Act was passed and the deposit business became jointly controlled by the Minister of Finance and the Minister of Agriculture and Commerce. The service was looked after by 4,000 post offices in the country. In 1890 the Postal Savings Deposit Act was issued. In 1920 the Exchange Deposit Bureau was established and was later replaced by the Deposits Bureau in the Ministry of Finance. (See Chapter VIII.)

The number of depositors and amount of savings since 1925 are as follows:

March 31,	Number	Amount
1925	30,386,806	¥1,131,250,271
1926	31,549,989	1,166,998,703
1927	32,410,752	1,253,539,935
1928	34,425,812	1,636,255,042
1929	36,485,875	1,863,703,742
1930	37,968,850	2,201,245,552
1931	38,257,981	2,497,154,253
1932	39,066,040	2,815,868,019
1933	39,838,438	2,772,004,751
1934	41,625,306	2,919,345,286
1935	43,908,510	3,062,750,943
1936	46,568,533	3,232,947,127
1937	49,564,766	3,485,835,081
1938	54,628,871	3,903,261,783
1939	—	4,782,050,970

Note: Figures include Postal Transfer.

Currency System

Coinage The present coinage system is based on the Coinage Law issued in 1897, which established the gold monometallic system. Its principal points are summarized as follows:

(1) The coinage unit is 2 fun (0.75 grammes) of pure gold, that is, one-half of the former gold unit, and is to be denominated one yen.

(2) The standard gold coins are of three denominations, namely, five yen, ten yen and twenty yen; the former gold coins pass for double their nominal value.

(3) The subsidiary silver coins are of two denominations, namely, twenty sen and fifty sen; the former five-sen, ten-sen, twenty-sen and fifty-sen silver pieces are allowed to circulate.

(4) The other subsidiary coins are the nickel five-sen and ten-sen pieces and the bronze one-sen and five-rin pieces; the former five-sen nickel as well as two-sen, one-sen, five-rin and one-rin copper pieces are allowed to circulate.

(5) The fineness and weights of the coins prescribed in the Coinage Law are as follows:

(a) Fineness

Gold coins pure gold 900 copper 100

Silver coins pure silver 720 copper 280

Nickel coins pure nickel 1000

Bronze coins copper 950 tin 40 zinc 10

(b) Weights

Gold coins:

Denominations	Weights Grammes
20-yen pieces	16.6666
10-yen pieces	8.3333
5-yen pieces	4.1666

Subsidiary coins:

Denominations	Weights Grammes
50-sen silver	4.95
20-sen silver	1.98
10-sen nickel	4.00
5-sen nickel	2.80
1-sen bronze	3.75
5-rin bronze	2.10

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Paper Notes of Small Denominations In order to make good the deficiency of subsidiary silver coins caused by the war, paper notes of small denominations, namely, fifty-sen, twenty-sen and ten-sen, were issued as a substitute in accordance with the Imperial Ordinance No. 202 promulgated on October 29, 1917. The issue of these petty notes went on increasing in volume till at the end of February, 1922, it reached 218 million yen, the largest on record. After that time the volume gradually dwindled in consequence of the minting of new subsidiary coins to displace the notes, the latter coming down, by the end of December, 1937, to ¥10,965,000, consisting of ¥5,345,500 50-sen notes, ¥1,095,900 20-sen notes and ¥4,523,600 10-sen notes.

Emergency Currency Not only to effect economy, for the time being, in the use for monetary purposes of some metals as provided for in the Coinage Law, but to meet the increasing requirements for subsidiary coinage, emergency currency was issued in accordance with the provisions of the Emergency Currency Law promulgated in June, 1938. It consists of subsidiary coins of 10-sen, 5-sen and 1-sen, and of paper notes of small denomination of 50-sen.

The fineness and weight of these subsidiary coins are specified by Imperial Ordinance No. 388 of 1938 as follows.

A. Fineness.

10-sen piece aluminium	50 copper	950
5-sen piece aluminium	50 copper	950
1-sen piece copper	900 zinc	100

B. Weight.

	Grammes.
10-sen piece	4
5-sen piece	2.8
1-sen piece	3.75

Convertible Bank Notes In May, 1884, there was promulgated the Convertible Bank-notes Law providing for the issue by the Bank of Japan of bank-notes which were to be converted into silver, but on the adoption of the gold standard in 1897 these notes became convertible into gold. Certain amendments were made in the law in June, 1932 and 1938. The principal points may be summarized as follows:

The Bank of Japan is required to hold as a conversion reserve against the issue of notes gold and silver coins and bullion to the same amount as that of the notes issued; and the total value of silver coins and bullion must not exceed one-fourth of the entire conversion reserve. The Bank of Japan may, in addition to the notes specified in the preceding paragraph, issue bank-notes to the amount of ¥1,700,000,000 against Government bonds, Treasury notes and other reliable securities or commercial bills. The Bank may also be allowed to issue notes against such securities beyond the maximum mentioned above. In case the issue in excess of this limit lasts more than 15 days the approval of the Minister of Finance is required, and such issues outstanding after a period of 15 days are subject to a tax of at least 3 per cent per annum of the amount so issued. The bank-notes are of 7 denominations, namely, one yen, 5 yen, 10 yen, 20 yen, 50 yen, 100 yen and 200 yen.

Currency System of Formosa and Korea As regards the currency system of Formosa, up to October, 1908, recognition was given to the circulation at the market price in gold of the silver yen, similar to that in circulation in Japan proper until the revision of the Coinage Law in 1897; but the exchange of silver was brought to a conclusion at the end of April, 1909. In April, 1911, the Coinage Law of the Empire was brought into operation in the island, so that the system in Formosa is now absolutely identical with that in force in Japan proper. The Bank of Taiwan issued, at first, bank-notes convertible into silver yen, but these notes were, upon the reform of the currency system, withdrawn from circulation by April, 1909. In June, 1904, the bank was allowed to issue bank-notes convertible into gold coins, holding as conversion reserve gold and silver coins and bullion to the same amount as that of notes issued. It may further issue notes to the amount of ¥50,000,000 on security of reliable securities. Should it be necessary to issue notes over and above the amounts just mentioned, the permission of the Government must be obtained and an issue-tax of at least 3 per cent must be paid in respect of the excess issue.

The currency system of Korea had fallen into such a state of disorder and confusion that confidence in legal tender was entirely gone, and consequently commodity prices perpetually fluctuated. In 1905, at the time of the protectorate régime of Japan, a radical reform of the system was started, the coinage regulations were revised and new coins equal in quality and weight to those of Japan were minted. At the same time, the use of the old nickel coins was prohibited as from December 31, 1909. After the annexation (1910), in order to have a uniform currency throughout the Empire, the minting of

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coins under the Coinage Regulation was suspended and the circulation of Japanese coins was encouraged; the old Korean coins in circulation steadily diminished. The Imperial Coinage Law was put in force in April, 1918 in Korea and the use of the old Korean coins as legal tenders was permitted till the end of 1919 only, the Government undertaking to exchange them during the five subsequent years. The use of "Yo-sen" (bronze pieces), however, was left free for the time being in consideration of economic conditions in Korea. Bank-notes issued by the Bank of Chosen are convertible notes. Besides issuing under the Charter of the Bank of Chosen against the security of gold specie, gold and silver bullion and Bank of Japan's convertible notes, the Bank is authorized to issue notes up to the limit ¥100,000,000 on the security of exchequer bills and other reliable bills or trade bills. The Emergency Currency Law was put into operation in Chosen as from June 1, 1938.

AMOUNT OF BANK-NOTES ISSUED BY THE BANK OF JAPAN

Year	Balance brought over from the preceding year	Notes issued (In yen) Amount newly issued	Total	Amount withdrawn	Balance
1928	1,682,390,441	5,829,380,203	7,511,770,644	5,772,674,342	1,739,096,302
1929	1,739,096,302	5,684,181,253	7,423,277,555	5,781,425,719	1,641,851,836
1930	1,641,851,836	5,459,394,965	7,101,246,801	5,664,951,294	1,436,295,507
1931	1,436,295,507	4,835,679,182	6,271,974,689	4,941,399,373	1,330,575,316
1932	1,330,575,316	5,021,876,744	6,352,452,060	4,926,293,103	1,426,158,957
1933	1,426,158,957	4,526,876,038	5,953,034,995	4,408,237,301	1,544,797,694
1934	1,544,797,694	4,858,410,704	6,403,208,398	4,775,859,229	1,627,349,168
1935	1,627,349,168	5,602,732,128	7,230,081,296	5,463,526,001	1,766,555,295
1936	1,766,555,295	6,237,474,940	8,004,030,235	6,138,326,850	1,865,703,385
1937	1,865,703,385	7,028,397,616	8,894,101,001	6,589,030,281	2,305,070,719

AMOUNT OF BANK-NOTES ISSUED BY THE BANK OF JAPAN

Year	Reserve (In yen) Specie Reserve Gold Coin and Bullion	Security Reserve Public Loan Bonds	Other Securities	Total	Total Reserve	Amount of Reserve for Every 100 yen of Notes issued Specie	Security
1928	1,061,636,385	97,920,000	579,539,917	677,459,917	1,739,096,302	61.05	38.95
1929	1,072,273,100	161,804,691	407,774,045	569,587,736	1,641,851,836	65.31	34.69
1930	825,998,295	136,862,565	473,434,647	610,297,212	1,436,295,507	57.51	42.49
1931	469,549,450	180,831,861	680,194,005	861,025,866	1,330,575,316	35.29	64.71
1932	425,068,190	539,854,243	461,236,524	1,001,090,767	1,426,158,957	29.81	70.19
1933	425,069,230	597,074,267	522,654,197	1,119,728,464	1,544,797,694	27.52	72.48
1934	466,338,325	631,786,391	529,224,451	1,161,010,843	1,627,349,168	28.66	71.34
1935	504,065,115	738,959,289	523,530,900	1,262,490,180	1,766,555,295	28.53	71.47
1936	548,342,455	886,253,738	431,107,192	1,317,360,930	1,865,703,385	29.39	70.61
1937	801,002,607	1,095,458,486	408,609,626	1,504,068,112	2,305,070,719	34.75	65.25

COINS TURNED OUT BY THE MINT

Year	Gold Coins (In yen) 20-yen Pieces	10-yen Pieces	5-sen Pieces	Total	Silver Coins 50-sen Pieces	20-sen Pieces	10-sen Pieces	Total
1928	—	—	—	—	19,296,000	—	—	19,296,000
1929	—	—	—	—	6,284,000	—	—	6,284,000
1930	216,600,660	—	4,000,910	220,601,570	220,000	—	—	220,000
1931	152,063,700	—	362,099	152,425,790	1,000,000	—	—	1,000,000
1932	29,836,580	—	—	29,836,580	1,800,000	—	—	1,800,000
1933	—	—	—	—	21,240,000	—	—	21,240,000
1934	—	—	—	—	11,760,000	—	—	11,760,000
1935	—	—	—	—	15,000,000	—	—	15,000,000
1936	—	—	—	—	13,000,000	—	—	13,000,000
1937	—	—	—	—	34,200,000	—	—	34,200,000

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Nickel Coins (In yen)

Year	10-sen Pieces	5-sen Pieces	Total	Bronze	Grand Total
1928	4,145,000	—	4,145,000	—	23,441,000
1929	1,000,000	—	1,000,000	30,000	7,314,000
1930	—	—	—	50,000	220,871,570
1931	—	—	—	250,000	153,675,790
1932	1,800,000	400,000	2,200,000	340,000	34,176,580
1933	1,457,000	640,000	2,097,000	400,000	23,737,000
1934	3,582,999	1,859,999	5,442,998	1,000,000	18,202,998
1935	3,705,000	684,000	4,389,000	2,000,000	21,389,000
1936	7,755,000	1,816,000	9,571,000	1,076,000	23,647,000
1937	4,000,000	2,220,000	6,220,000	1,344,000	41,764,000

COINS TURNED OUT AND MELTED DOWN BY THE MINT

(In yen)

Year	Turned Out: Turned out in the year	Turned Out: Sum Total since 1871	Melted Down: Melted down in the year	Melted Down: Sum Total since 1878	Balance
1926	22,153,500.000	1,671,665,348.140	11,464,393.210	160,716,463.120	1,510,968,885.020
1927	5,388,388.000	1,677,054,208.140	2,590,391.950	163,306,855.070	1,513,767,353.070
1928	23,441,000.000	1,700,495,208.140	9,826,806.000	173,133,661.070	1,527,361,547.070
1929	7,314,000.000	1,707,809,208.140	2,454,750.000	175,588,411.070	1,532,240,797.070
1930	220,871,570.000	1,928,680,778.140	3,034,250.000	178,622,661.070	1,750,078,117.070
1931	153,675,790.000	2,082,356,568.140	7,748,876.000	186,371,537.070	1,895,005,031,070
1932	34,176,580.000	2,116,533,148.140	5,878,027.840	192,249,564.910	1,924,303,583.230
1933	23,737,001.200	2,140,270,149.340	3,149,725.000	195,399,289.910	1,944,890,859.430
1934	18,202,998.800	2,158,473,184.140	8,225,025.000	203,624,314.910	1,954,868,833.230
1935	21,389,000.000	2,179,862,148.140	7,601,725.000	211,226,824.910	1,968,635,323.230
1936	23,647,000.000	2,203,509,148.140	—	—	—
1937	41,764,000.000	2,245,273,148.140	—	—	—

CIRCULATION OF PAPER NOTES AND BANK NOTES

(In ¥1,000)

End of	Petty Government Notes	Bank of Japan Notes	Bank of Chosen Notes	Bank of Taiwan Notes	Total
1928	12,487	1,665,897	132,444	55,713	1,866,541
1929	12,085	1,591,400	118,702	49,241	1,771,428
1930	11,680	1,413,891	90,615	39,904	1,556,090
1931	11,480	1,312,055	100,910	44,414	1,468,859
1932	11,380	1,373,619	124,622	52,619	1,562,241
1933	11,260	1,470,468	148,176	48,994	1,678,897
1934	11,160	1,538,188	192,457	62,653	1,804,460
1935	11,040	1,607,870	220,777	70,190	1,909,878
1936	10,900	1,756,483	210,654	79,138	2,057,264
1937	10,965	2,080,555	279,502	112,033	2,483,055
1938	88,838	2,474,134	321,977	140,018	3,024,969

MONEY RATES

(Per annum rate)

Month		1934 Mar	1935 Mar	1936 Mar	1937 Mar	1938 Mar	1939 Mar
Bank of Japan	Commercial Bills Rediscount	3.65	3.65	3.65	3.285	3.285	3.285
	Gov't Bonds Collateral Discount Bills	4.015	4.015	4.015	3.650	3.285	3.650
Postal Savings Deposits (Japan Proper)	Ordinary	3.00	3.00	3.00	3.00	2.76	2.76
	Fixed	3.24	3.24	2.24	3.24	3.04	3.04

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Month			1934 Mar	1935 Mar	1936 Mar	1937 Mar	1938 Mar	1939 Mar
Bank Deposits (Agreement Rates)	Class A Bank	Time	3.7	3.7	3.7	3.3	3.3	3.3
		Current	0.73	0.73	0.73	0.37	0.37	0.37
		Savings	2.19	2.19	2.19	1.83	1.83	1.83
		At Notice	2.19	2.19	2.56	2.19	2.19	2.19
	Class B Bank	Time	4.2	4.2	4.0	3.5	3.5	3.5
		Current	1.10	1.10	1.10	0.73	0.73	0.73
		Savings	2.92	2.92	2.56	2.19	2.19	2.19
		At Notice	2.92	2.92	2.92	2.56	2.56	2.56
Bankers' Call Loan (Agreement Rate)			2.56	2.56	2.56	2.56	2.56	2.56

Tokyo Open Market

Month		Overnight Call Loan			Prime Name Spinner Bills		
		High	Low	Average	High	Low	Average
1934	March	2.73	2.48	2.56	4.20	3.29	3.76
1935	"	3.29	2.46	2.70	4.38	3.29	3.83
1936	"	3.83	2.56	2.88	4.38	3.29	3.83
1937	"	3.65	2.46	2.81	4.02	3.29	3.65
1938	"	2.56	2.19	2.48	4.02	3.29	3.65
1939	"	2.56	2.48	2.52	4.02	3.29	3.65

BANK OF JAPAN RATE CHANGES

(Rates per diem and per annum)

Effective on			Effective Period for Each Rate (No. of Days)	Loans and Discounts with Government Bonds Collateral		Loans and Discounts with Nongov't Securities Collateral		Rediscounts of Commercial Bills		Overdrafts on Current Deposits & Correspondence	
				sen	%	sen	%	sen	%	sen	%
1925	Apr.	15	537	2.0	(7.30)	2.2	(8.03)	2.0	(7.30)	2.3	(8.40)
1926	Oct.	4	155	1.8	(6.57)	2.0	(7.30)	1.8	(6.57)	2.1	(7.67)
1927	Mar.	9	215	1.7	(6.21)	1.8	(6.57)	1.6	(5.84)	2.0	(7.30)
	Oct.	10	1,093	1.6	(5.84)	1.7	(6.21)	1.5	(5.48)	1.9	(6.44)
1930	Oct.	7	364	1.5	(5.48)	1.6	(5.84)	1.4	(5.11)	1.8	(6.57)
1931	Oct.	6	30	1.7	(6.21)	1.8	(6.57)	1.6	(5.48)	2.0	(7.30)
	Nov.	5	128	1.9	(6.94)	2.0	(7.30)	1.8	(6.57)	2.2	(8.03)
1932	Mar.	12	128	1.7	(6.21)	1.8	(6.57)	1.6	(5.84)	2.0	(7.30)
	June	8	88	1.5	(5.48)	1.6	(5.84)	1.4	(5.11)	1.8	(6.57)
	Aug.	18	309	1.3	(4.75)	1.4	(5.11)	1.2	(4.38)	1.6	(5.84)
1933	July	3	1,009	1.1	(4.02)	1.2	(4.38)	1.0	(3.65)	1.4	(5.11)
1936	Apr.	7	464	1.0	(3.65)	1.1	(4.02)	0.9	(3.29)	1.3	(4.75)
1937	July	16	68	0.9	(3.29)	1.1	(4.02)	0.9	(3.29)	1.2	(4.38)
	Sept.	21	—	0.9	(3.29)	1.1	(4.02)	0.9	(3.29)	1.1	(4.02)

Foreign Exchange

While every field of financial transaction in this country was affected by the enforcement of the wartime system in 1937, the one which probably reflected the extraordinary situation in the most direct manner was foreign exchange. Compared with the wide fluctuations which occurred between 1930 and 1933 on account of the removal of the gold embargo and the re-imposition of the ban and the prevalence of the panic in the United States, the exchange rates of the yen were outwardly stable during the year. In fact, however, numerous unfavourable factors prejudicial to the exchange rates of the yen had piled up, such as the strengthened exchange control, the shipments of gold and the co-operation of exchange banks in the execution of the national policy under the wartime system.

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Rate at 1s. 2d. In view of the prevailing economic conditions, the Government decided as a national policy to maintain the exchange rate of the yen at the level of 1s. 2d. This decision was based on the following views :

1. A fall in the exchange rate would stimulate a further rise in the prices of commodities, which in turn would tend to lead to inflation and the resultant evils ;

2. As Japan has to look to the various foreign countries for the supply of a large quantity of materials required for the perfection of her national defence and the expansion of her productive capacity, a fall in the exchange rate would reduce the purchasing power of the yen and thus render it difficult to operate the budget ;

3. A fall in the exchange rate would not serve to increase the volume of the export trade of the nation because the relations of international economy are no longer based on the principle of free trade.

The first expression of the policy of maintaining the exchange rate of the yen at the level of 1s. 2d. took the form of the promulgation, on January 8, of the import exchange license system. The licensing system was extended on July 7, when the exemption point for such license was also lowered and the control over exports without bills of exchange was strengthened. Again on August 28, regulations were promulgated for the enforcement of a control over imports without bills of exchange. December 11 witnessed a further lowering of the exemption point of the import exchange license.

Import Exchange License System The enforcement of strengthened control over exchange in the form of the adoption of the licensing system for exchange transactions involving more than ¥30,000 a month was intended principally to prevent speculative imports during the first half of 1937 and not to restrict imports based on normal demand. An explanation to this effect was given by the Government at the time of the enforcement but the continued increase in the demand for commodities connected with the expansion of the productive facilities of the domestic industry and the soaring of commodity prices gave rise to fears that aggravation of the conditions of foreign trade would be inevitable. In order to cope with the situation, the authorities of the Ministry of Finance decided at a conference held toward the end of May to extend the term of the import exchange license system.

Under date of July 7, the Ministry of Finance revised the ordinance in regard to the import exchange license system and the Foreign Exchange Control Law. The former concerned the lowering of the exemption point for import license from ¥30,000 to ¥1,000 a month while the latter made the following compulsory :

1. The approval of the Minister of Finance for the remittance of dividends and profits to rightful persons living abroad ;

2. A license for remittances made in fulfilment of obligations arising from domestic or foreign ordinances ;

3. A license for remittances to be made for the use or acquirement of patent rights or other industrial rights ;

4. A license for sums upward of ¥5,000 a year employed in exchange transactions for the acquirement of foreign currency or credit or used by persons going abroad or sent to travellers or residents in foreign countries ;

5. A report to the customs authorities on exports, whether with or without bills of exchange, and matters relating to them ;

6. A license for exports without bills of exchange which are assigned to the payment of proceeds from the sale of goods imported without bills of exchange ;

7. The certificate of foreign exchange banks to the effect that their clients involved in the transactions mentioned in Ordinance No. 7 of the Ministry of Finance have obtained the necessary license or that their clients in the same transactions need not obtain a license, as the case may be.

While the licensing system for import exchange was extended and the control over general exchange transactions and exports without bills of exchange was strengthened, the authorities of the Ministry of Finance felt the need for control of imports without bills of exchange as well. This view was based on three points. In the first place, there was no means of controlling imports made by the utilization of funds held abroad, in spite of the operation of the import exchange license system. Secondly, the control over exports without bills of exchange could not be enforced satisfactorily because those foreign firms making imports without bills of exchange might make exports in return for the proceeds from the sale of such imports. Thirdly, there was no means of controlling the use of the proceeds from the sale of commodities imported without bills of exchange in covering the expenses for

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building and repair works or the payment of dividend.

Accordingly, the Ministry of Finance revised its Ordinance No. 1 of 1937 and promulgated a licensing system for imports without bills of exchange under date of August 28. Explaining their attitude toward the enforcement of this system, the authorities of the ministry gave an explanation to the following effect :

1. The license for imports without bills of exchange will be issued on the basis of the same principle that the license for import exchange is issued. Accordingly, it will be difficult to import commodities not in urgent demand even if no exchange bills are involved.

2. Special considerations will be given to imports without bills of exchange in regard to munitions and raw materials.

3. Special considerations will also be given to imports without bills of exchange in regard to the staple products and key merchandise of Manchoukuo.

Control of Assets Held in Foreign Countries The Foreign Exchange Control Law was revised in September, 1937, whereby a license was made necessary for the acquirement and disposition of material assets and rights or obligations represented in Japanese currency in foreign countries. Hitherto, it had been possible for the Government to control only the acquirement or disposition of obligations represented in foreign currency by Japanese residents in foreign countries. Under the old rule, it was possible for creditors and debtors to make arrangements for representing their rights and obligations in Japanese currency as a means of avoiding mobilization. It was to prevent such practice that the foreign exchange control was strengthened. The revision also was aimed at the following points :

1. To make it possible to mobilize assets held in foreign countries in foreign currency and property, to hold credits in foreign currency, as well as to deal in foreign currency bonds, foreign exchange and foreign currency.

2. To make it possible to control the acquirement or disposition of property in foreign countries, in addition to the acquirement or disposition of credits represented in foreign currency, foreign currency bonds, foreign exchange and foreign currency.

3. To make it possible to examine or demand a report on matters concerning the aforementioned disposition.

Further Lowering of Exemption Point for Import Exchange License Through the revision effected on July 7, the exemption point for import license was lowered from ¥30,000 to ¥1,000 a month but indications were that the practices for the evasion of the law were being actively followed. This, coupled with the increased need for the restriction of the importation of commodities not in urgent demand from the standpoint of adjusting international accounts under the wartime system, led the Ministry of Finance to revise its ordinance to lower the exemption point to ¥100 a month on December 11.

Shipments of Gold The policy of the Government to maintain the exchange rate of the yen at the level of 1s. 2d. under all circumstances was clarified through the enforcement of the import exchange license system on January 8 and it was stressed as forming one of the three basic principles for the conduct of financial and economic affairs by the Hayashi and Konoé Cabinets. The import of commodities inevitable for the expansion of the productive capacity of the nation under the wartime system, however, steadily aggravated the balance of international accounts in spite of the restrictions put on general imports by the import exchange license system. As a means of coping with the situation, the Government finally decided to make gold shipments to meet the emergency requirements.

The first shipment of gold for the said purpose was made on March 9 and by July, the gold shipments to the United States and England totalled ¥307,000,000. And yet there was no sign of improvement in the balance of international payments. Feeling it dangerous to continue making gold shipments without a more definite basis, the authorities created a special account of gold funds on August 25, besides carrying out a re-assessment of the gold reserves of the Bank of Japan. The creation of the special account chiefly concerns the purchase and shipment of gold, and has in view the following two major points :

1. In order to increase their effect, operations for the maintenance of the exchange rate of the yen shall be conducted secretly without being related to the gold reserves of the Bank of Japan. This measure aims at the elimination of such obstacles to the exchange operations as may be brought about as a result of open shipments of gold and purchases of gold.

2. Gold shipments shall be limited to the original fund (transferred from the proposed account of the Bank of Ja-

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pan) included in the special account of gold funds and the new production of gold. This measure aims at the prevention of negligence in regard to facilities and endeavours such as might arise from continuing gold shipments without a definite basis.

On account of the operation of the new system, gold shipments made since August have been kept entirely from public knowledge.

FOREIGN EXCHANGE RATES

(Yokohama Specie Bank T. T. Selling)

Year & Month	Parity	Paris 12.722 Francs per ¥1.00			Hamburg 2.0925 Marks per ¥1.00		
		High	Low	Average	High	Low	Average
		fr.	fr.	fr.	m.	m.	m.
1934		4.95	4.30	4.489	0.81	0.70 1/2	0.7474
1935		4.41	4.15	4.328	0.72 1/2	0.68	0.7093
1936		6.14	4.32	4.826	0.73 3/4	0.70 1/2	0.7172
1937		8.50	6.11	7.146	0.71 3/4	0.70 1/2	0.7118
1938		10.45	8.45	9.876	0.72 1/2	0.67 3/4	0.7075
1938	Mar.	9.35	8.75	9.029	0.71 3/4	0.71 1/2	0.7165
	Apr.	9.65	9.00	9.280	0.72 1/2	0.71 1/2	0.7202
	May	10.40	9.45	10.250	0.72 1/2	0.71 5/8	0.7205
	June	10.40	10.35	10.376	0.71 7/8	0.71 5/8	0.7175
	July	10.40	10.35	10.363	0.71 3/4	0.71 1/2	0.7138
	Aug.	10.40	10.35	10.380	0.71 1/2	0.70 3/4	0.7093
	Sept.	10.40	10.35	10.390	0.70 5/8	0.69 1/2	0.7002
	Oct.	10.45	10.35	10.400	0.70 1/2	0.68 7/8	0.6937
	Nov.	10.40	10.40	10.400	0.69 3/4	0.67 3/4	0.6852
	Dec.	10.40	10.30	10.330	0.68 1/2	0.67 1/2	0.6782
1939	Jan.	10.33	10.30	10.320	0.68 1/2	0.67 3/4	0.6791
	Feb.	10.33	10.30	10.308	0.68 1/2	0.67 7/8	0.6804
	Mar.	10.30	10.30	10.300	0.68 1/2	0.68	0.6807

Year & Month	Parity	Amsterdam 1.2400 Florins per ¥1.00			Rome 9.470 Lira per ¥1.00		
		High	Low	Average	High	Low	Average
		fl.	fl.	fl.	lr.	lr.	lr.
1934		0.45 3/4	0.40 3/4	0.43 1/16	3.69	3.30	3.437
1935		0.41 1/2	0.38 1/2	0.40	3.58	3.27	3.458
1936		0.51	0.40 3/4	0.43 1/2	5.41	3.57	4.055
1937		0.51	0.50 5/8	0.509	5.47	5.38	5.421
1938		0.52 1/8	0.49 1/2	0.5134	5.54	5.12	5.385
1938	Mar.	0.50 7/8	0.50 7/8	0.50 7/8	5.47	5.40	5.437
	Apr.	0.52 1/8	0.50 7/8	0.51 1/8	5.54	5.40	5.488
	May	0.52 1/8	0.52 1/8	0.52 1/8	5.52	5.46	5.493
	June	0.52 1/8	0.52 1/8	0.52 1/8	5.50	5.46	5.482
	July	0.52 1/8	5.52	0.52 1/16	5.48	5.40	5.445
	Aug.	0.52 1/8	0.51 7/8	0.52 3/16	5.41	5.37	5.389
	Sept.	0.51 7/8	0.51 7/8	0.51 7/8	5.36	5.16	5.311
	Oct.	0.51 7/8	0.50 7/8	0.51 1/8	5.31	5.22	5.265
	Nov.	0.50 7/8	0.49 1/2	0.5060	5.26	5.12	5.206
	Dec.	0.50	0.49 1/2	0.4992	5.19	5.15	5.162
1939	Jan.	0.50 1/8	0.50	0.5022	5.18	5.12	5.165
	Feb.	0.51	0.50 1/2	0.5054	5.19	5.17	5.180
	Mar.	0.51	0.51	0.51	5.19	5.18	5.184

London (Parity 2 s. 0.582 d. per ¥1.00)

Year & Month	Tokyo Open Market			Yokohama Specie Bank		
	High	Low	Average	High	Low	Average
	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.
1934	1/-2 3/8	1/-1 3/4	1/-2.143	1/-2 1/4	1/-2	1/-2.065
1935	1/-2 3/16	1/-1 15/16	1/-2.061	1/-2	1/-2	1/-2

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Year & Month		Tokyo Open Market High s. d.	Low s. d.	Average s. d.	Yokohama Specie Bank High s. d.	Low s. d.	Average s. d.
1936		1/-2 1/16	1/-1 7/8	1/-1.911	1/-2	1/-2	1/-2
1937		1/-2	1/-1 15/16	1/-1.972	1/-2	1/-2	1/-2
1938		1/-2	1/-2	1/-2	1/-2	1/-2	1/-2
1938	Mar.	1/-2	1/-2	1/-2	1/-2	1/-2	1/-2
	Apr.	1/-2	1/-2	1/-2	1/-2	1/-2	1/-2
	May	1/-2	1/-2	1/-2	1/-2	1/-2	1/-2
	June	1/-2	1/-2	1/-2	1/-2	1/-2	1/-2
	July	1/-2	1/-2	1/-2	1/-2	1/-2	1/-2
	Aug.	1/-2	1/-2	1/-2	1/-2	1/-2	1/-2
	Sept.	1/-2	1/-2	1/-2	1/-2	1/-2	1/-2
	Oct.	1/-2	1/-2	1/-2	1/-2	1/-2	1/-2
	Nov.	1/-2	1/-2	1/-2	1/-2	1/-2	1/-2
	Dec.	1/-2	1/-2	1/-2	1/-2	1/-2	1/-2
1939	Jan.	1/-2	1/-2	1/-2	1/-2	1/-2	1/-2
	Feb.	1/-2	1/-2	1/-2	1/-2	1/-2	1/-2
	Mar.	1/-2	1/-2	1/-2	1/-2	1/-2	1/-2

New York (Parity $84.396 per ¥100.00)

Year & Month		Tokyo Open Market High $	Low $	Average $	Yokohama Specie Bank High $	Low $	Average $
1934		30 3/4	28 3/4	29.640	30 3/4	28 1/2	29.511
1935		29 1/2	27 13/16	28.643	29 1/2	27 3/4	28.570
1936		29 7/16	28 1/4	28.961	29 3/8	28 1/4	28.949
1937		29 1/16	28 3/16	28.724	29 1/8	28 1/2	28.617
1938		29 1/16	27	28.443	29 1/4	27 1/16	28.498
1938	Mar.	29	28 3/8	28.810	29 1/4	29 1/4	29.046
	Apr.	29 3/16	28 15/16	29.029	29 1/16	28 7/8	29.029
	May	29 1/8	28 3/4	28.949	29 1/8	28 15/16	28.949
	June	29	28 13/16	28.904	29	28 3/4	28.904
	July	28 7/8	28 5/8	28.740	28 7/8	28 13/16	28.740
	Aug.	28 11/16	28 5/16	28.456	28 11/16	28 5/16	28.456
	Sept.	28 5/16	27 15/16	28.020	28 5/16	28 5/16	28.020
	Oct.	28 1/16	27 5/8	27.818	28 1/16	27 5/16	27.812
	Nov.	27 13/16	27	27.453	27 13/16	27 1/16	27.453
	Dec.	27 3/8	27 1/8	27.225	27 1/16	27 1/16	27.236
1939	Jan.	27 5/16	26 15/16	27.190	27 5/16	27 1/8	27.241
	Feb.	27 3/8	27 1/4	27.302	27 3/8	27 1/4	27.302
	Mar.	27 5/16	27 1/4	27.305	27 5/16	27 1/4	27.305

Foreign Exchange Control Law

It was after the coming into operation on July 1, 1932 of the Capital Flight Prevention Law enacted with the object of controlling movements of capital in and out of the country that the flight of capital through purchases and sales of exchange, remittances to foreign countries, or investments in securities in foreign currencies was prevented almost completely. Subsequently, however, the world economic situation developed so adversely that it seemed impossible to protect the economic life of the nation by resorting to control under the Capital Flight Prevention Law only. In view of this fact and in order to enlarge the scope of control over the flight of capital and to prohibit speculative dealings in foreign exchange, the Government submitted to the Diet in the 64th session a bill for the control of foreign exchange. With the coming into operation on May 1, 1933 of the Foreign Exchange Control Law that had thus passed the Diet, the Capital Flight Prevention Law was abrogated. Amendments were, however, made in this Law on two occasions in 1937.

The Foreign Exchange Control Law, the principal object of which is to prevent completely the flight of capital and speculative dealings in foreign exchange and to check abnormal fluctuations in the yen exchange, vests the Government with the following authority to control, in case of necessity, such transactions or acts as will be mentioned below through the Ordinance of

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the Department of Finance.

(1) Authority to restrict or prohibit the following transactions or acts:

(a) Acquisition or disposal of foreign currencies or foreign exchange.

(b) Export of currency, gold bullion, gold alloys or gold manufactures, or the melting down or mutilation of gold coins.

(c) Remittances to foreign countries by means other than those included in (a) and (b) above.

(d) Payment in Japan by order from a foreign country.

(e) Fixing of foreign exchange quotations.

(f) Acquisition or disposal of securities, claims or obligations expressed in foreign currencies.

(g) Acquisition or disposal of claims or obligations expressed in Japanese currency to persons residing in foreign countries.

(h) Issue or acquisition of letters of credit.

(i) Granting of credits to persons residing in foreign countries.

(j) Export or import of securities.

(k) Export or import of merchandise unaccompanied by exchange transactions.

(l) Acquisition or disposal of assets in foreign countries other than those mentioned in (a), (f) and (g) above.

(2) Authority to require reports or to make examinations in respect of the matters relating to the above prohibitions or restrictions or matters mentioned in (4) below.

(3) Authority to limit transactions in foreign exchange to cases in which one of the parties to the transactions is the Bank of Japan or such other person as the Government may designate.

(4) Authority to require persons in possession of the following assets to sell them to the Bank of Japan or such other person as the Government may designate, or to require such persons to make necessary disposal relating to such assets:

(a) Gold bullion, foreign currencies, or foreign exchange.

(b) Securities or claims expressed in foreign currencies, or claims expressed in Japanese currency to persons residing in foreign countries.

(c) Assets in foreign countries other than those mentioned in (a) and (b) above.

As in the case of the Capital Flight Prevention Law, the principle of severe punishment has been adopted in applying penal provisions to acts of violation specified in the Ordinance of the Department of Finance issued under such authority. Thus, persons contravening the prohibitions or restrictions of transactions or acts as prescribed in the Ordinance are liable to punishment by penal servitude or imprisonment for a term not exceeding 3 years or to a fine not exceeding 10 thousand yen (or not exceeding three times the value involved in the transaction in question in case three times the value of said transactions exceeds 10 thousand yen), and persons not presenting reports or obstructing the examination of books and other documents are liable to imprisonment for not more than 6 months or a fine of not more than 5 thousand yen.

The Government established the Foreign Exchange Control Bureau in the Department of Finance as an execution organ of the Foreign Exchange Control Law. It has also created two such committees as the Foreign Currency Valuation Committee and the Foreign Exchange Control Committee, the former being authorised to fix the sale price in cases where the Government may, in accordance with the provisions of this Law, require the sale of gold bullion and assets expressed in foreign currencies and the latter acting in consultation with the competent Minister on important matters relating to the enforcement of this Law.

Such authority as has been vested in the Government under the Foreign Exchange Control Law does not operate in all cases. The scope of transactions or acts to be prohibited or restricted and the manner of control are, therefore, provided for in detail in the Ordinance of the Department of Finance issued in accordance with this Law (The Ordinance came into force as from May 1, 1933, the date of the coming into operation of the Foreign Exchange Control Law). Several amendments have been made in this Ordinance since its promulgation, the most important amendments having been made on November 27, 1936, and put into effect as from December 1; on December 11, 1937 (effected on the same day, except for certain provisions) and on October 8, 1938 (effected on the same day, except for certain provisions which were put into operation as from October 15, 1938.) The contents of the Ordinance may be summarized as follows:

(A) Matters prohibited.

(1) The melting down or mutilation of gold coins is prohibited.

(2) Except as necessary for commercial transactions or other actual demands, speculative transactions in ex-

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change are prohibited. The operations to be controlled under this provision are speculative purchases and sales of foreign currencies, of foreign exchange (drafts, checks, mail transfers, telegraphic transfers and postal transfers, whether drawn in Japan on a foreign country or in a foreign country on Japan), and of yen exchange as between foreign countries.

(B) Matters restricted.

In cases where the following transactions or acts are carried out, permission of the Minister of Finance is in principle required, except as specially provided for:—

(1) Gold.

(a) Export of gold coins, gold bullion, gold alloys, or gold manufactures.

(b) Melting down of gold coins.

(2) Currency and foreign currencies.

(a) Purchase of foreign currencies against Japanese currency as counter-value.

(b) Transfer of currency or foreign currencies to foreign countries, or the carrying of such currencies by persons travelling abroad.

(c) Transfer of Japanese bank notes of denomination of one hundred yen to foreign countries or the carrying of such bank notes by persons travelling abroad.

(3) Foreign Exchange.

(a) Purchase of foreign exchange against Japanese currency as counter-value.

(b) Sale of foreign exchange to those other than foreign exchange banks against Japanese currency as counter-value, or sale of foreign exchange for counterbalancing foreign exchange purchased.

(4) Yen exchange.

(a) Purchase of yen exchange drawn on the territories in which Japanese currency has the force of legal tender.

(b) Sale of yen exchange drawn on foreign countries against foreign currencies as counter-value.

(c) Purchase of yen exchange drawn on foreign countries against foreign currencies as counter-value, as made for the purpose of counterbalancing exchange sold.

(5) Payment by order from a foreign country.

Payments in the territories where this Ordinance is in force by order from a foreign country.

(6) Remittances to foreign countries.

Remittance or carrying of currency, foreign currencies, checks or drafts to foreign countries and other categories of remittances.

(7) With respect to the transactions or acts mentioned in (2) to (6) [excluding (c) of (2)], however, no permission is required in the following cases:

(a) When it is necessary to export merchandise (excluding securities) from Japan or to import merchandise into Japan. (In the case of such import, however, permission is now required under the provisions of Ordinance No. 1 of 1937).

(b) When it is necessary to make payment of insurance under re-insurance or marine insurance contracts.

(c) When it is necessary to forward interest of government bonds, company debentures or deposits in banks or profit accruing from cash deposits in trust companies, all payable in Japan, to persons in foreign countries who have rights to receive such interest or profit.

(d) When it is necessary to deliver the funds required for the service of government bonds or company debentures payable in foreign countries within a period not exceeding 6 months to fulfil the obligations under the contracts.

(e) When it is necessary to remit expenses required for the application, request, and other procedure made in foreign countries in respect of patent rights and other industrial ownerships.

(f) When it is necessary for a person travelling abroad to carry currency or foreign currencies not exceeding the equivalent of ¥1,000 as his own travelling expenses.

(g) When it is necessary for a person travelling abroad to carry exchange and a sum involved in a letter of credit not exceeding the equivalent of ¥1,000 in the aggregate as his own travelling expenses for a period not exceeding one year.

(h) When it is necessary to remit to a person travelling abroad or a person residing abroad not exceeding the equivalent of ¥1,000 including a sum involved in a letter of credit acquired, amounts of exchange and a letter of credit carried by such person travelling abroad or residing abroad at his departure from Japan as his travelling expense, salary, allowances, school expenses and other expenses of similar nature for a period not exceeding one year, or when it is necessary for a person residing in Japan to remit to his family residing abroad a sum not exceeding the equivalent of ¥1,000 as living expenses for a period not exceeding one year.

(i) When it is necessary for emigrants designated by the competent Minister to remit the expenses necessary for their

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settlement, or when remittances are made, in compliance with such emigrants' request, by companies or other corporations engaged in the work of emigration as the expenses necessary for their settlement.

(j) When funds required for undertakings or businesses in the territories in which Japanese currency has the force of legal tender are remitted to such territories by persons who have domicile, head offices, or principal business offices in Japan or in such territories.

(k) When exchange is sold, or payment is made, or exchange is purchased for payment under letters of credit issued in Japan.

(l) When the transactions or acts are made by the Government.

(m) When remittances or payments not exceeding the equivalent of ¥100 are made for a period not exceeding one year.

(8) Letters of credit.

Permission of the Minister of Finance is required for the acquisition of all kinds of letters of credit (including travellers' checks), except in the following cases:

(a) When it is necessary for the import of merchandise into Japan or into the territories in which Japanese currency has the force of legal tender. (In the case of such import, however, permission is now required under the provisions of Ordinance No. 1 of 1937).

(b) When it is necessary to export merchandise from Japan.

(c) When it is necessary to make payment of insurance under re-insurance and marine insurance contracts.

(d) In certain cases, for instance, in the case of a journey, there are some matters for which no permission is required.

(9) Securities.

(a) Export and import of securities (Japanese or foreign Government bonds, company debentures, and shares, or coupons attached to such bonds and debentures).

(b) Acquisition of foreign currency securities (Japanese or foreign government bonds, company debentures, shares, or coupons attached to such bonds and debentures, all expressed in foreign currencies, including registered bonds, company debentures or shares in foreign currencies).

(c) Disposal of foreign securities expressed in foreign currencies.

(10) Deposits and loans expressed in foreign currencies.

Conclusion of contracts of deposits or loans made in Japan to acquire claims or obligations expressed in foreign currencies.

(11) Acquisition of claims expressed in foreign currencies.

Acquisition of claims expressed in foreign currencies (excluding foreign exchange and foreign currency securities) against Japanese currency as counter-value.

(12) Conclusion of contracts of trust and insurance expressed in foreign currencies.

Conclusion in Japan of contracts of trust and insurance (excluding re-insurance and marine insurance) to acquire claims or obligations expressed in foreign currencies.

(13) Borrowings and security.

(a) Issue of local government bonds or company debentures expressed in foreign currencies.

(b) Making in foreign countries of loans expressed in foreign currencies on the security of assets held in Japan.

(c) Making of loans expressed in Japanese currency from persons residing in foreign countries on the security of assets held in Japan.

(d) Offering security to the obligations of persons residing in foreign countries.

(14) Assets held in foreign countries.

(a) Acquisition of real estate, mining rights, deforestation rights, or industrial ownership, or vessels of foreign nationality held in foreign countries.

(b) Disposal of assets held abroad for the purpose of investment in foreign countries or for taking over undertakings, or investments.

(c) Disposal of assets held abroad for the purpose of investment in Japan, or for taking over undertakings, businesses, or investment in Japan, or for the purpose of acquiring assets held in Japan.

(15) Exports unaccompanied by exchange transactions.

(A) Export of merchandise for the value of which foreign exchange has not been sold to foreign exchange banks. In the following cases, however, no permission of the Minister of Finance is required:

(a) When merchandise is exported to the territories in which Japanese currency has the force of legal tender.

(b) When merchandise is exported as samples or as donations to other persons.

(c) When merchandise is exported for sale on a consignment basis, or when merchandise imported for sale on a consignment basis is shipped.

(d) When payment for export merchandise has already been received in

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Japan from foreign countries, before its shipment, or when merchandise is exported in exchange for other merchandise for which payment has already been received in Japan from foreign countries.

(e) When there is a contract that payment for exported merchandise is received in Japan from foreign countries within a period of two months after the exportation of such merchandise.

(f) When merchandise, the price of which is fixed after inspection at its destination, is exported.

(g) When merchandise valued at a sum not exceeding the equivalent of ¥20,000 for a month is exported and the payment for such merchandise is transferred to Japan immediately after such payment has been collected under the bill for collection.

(h) When merchandise is exported by the Government, or when merchandise of not more than ¥100 is exported.

(B) Persons who have exported merchandise or securities for the value of which foreign exchange or yen exchange drawn on the territories in which Japanese currency has the force of legal tender has not been sold to foreign exchange banks, or persons who have a right to receive in foreign countries payment for such merchandise or securities are required to take procedure to have the proceeds transferred to Japan within five months after their arrival at destination, excepting such portions as have been used in necessary disbursements in connection with such merchandise or securities, or such portions as have been applied to payment for merchandise imported into Japan. (It should, however, be noted that in cases where the proceeds are applied to payment for merchandise imported into Japan, permission of the Minister of Finance is now required under the provisions of Ordinance No. 1 of 1937.)

These are the outlines of the Ordinance of the Department of Finance No. 7 of 1933 (as amended) providing for matters for which permission of the Minister of Finance is, or is not, required. There are also many provisions relating to foreign exchange banks and dealers in money exchange.

(16) Foreign exchange banks.

(a) Banks intending to carry on, as from December 1, 1936, the business of foreign exchange in the offices that have already been in existence or newly established are required to obtain permission of the Minister of Finance.

(b) Banks which have notified the Minister of Finance, before November 30, 1936, of the offices which carry on the business of foreign exchange and those which have subsequently been permitted by the same Minister to inaugurate the business of foreign exchang are known as foreign exchange banks.

(c) When foreign exchange banks discontinue the business of foreign exchange in their offices or change the names or places of their offices, notification must beforehand be made to the Minister of Finance.

(d) Greater freedom of the regular exchange transactions or acts is allowed to foreign exchange banks. (In this case, however, permission is now required under the provisions of Ordinance No. 1 of 1937).

(e) In cases where foreign exchange banks become one of the parties to the exchange transactions or the acquisition of letters of credit, they are required to ascertain the legality of their customers' (including banks) transactions or acts.

(17) Dealers in money exchange.

(a) Persons (excluding banks) who make it their principal business to buy and sell foreign currencies are required to notify the Minister of Finance, before December 31, 1936, of the offices which carry on such business.

(b) Persons intending to carry on, as from December 1, 1936, the business of buying and selling foreign currencies are required beforehand to notify the Minister of Finance of their intention to carry on such business.

(c) Persons who have thus notified the Minister of Finance of their intention to carry on the business of buying and selling foreign currencies are known as dealers in money exchange. Such persons, when changing their offices or discontinuing the business, are required beforehand to notify the Minister of Finance thereof.

(d) No permission of the Minister of Finance is required in cases where dealers in money exchange make purchases of foreign currencies or travellers' checks expressed in foreign currencies in the course of their business. (Under the provisions of Ordinance No. 1 of 1937, however, permission is now required for their purchase of foreign currencies or travellers' checks expressed in foreign currencies. Sales of such currencies or checks are free under Ordinance No. 7 of 1933 (as amended), but the Ordinance No. 1 of 1937 provides for the permission for sales of such currencies or checks made as from October 15, 1938).

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(e) Dealers in money exchange, when selling foreign currencies or travellers' checks expressed in foreign currencies, are required to ascertain the legality of their customers' transactions or acts.

C. Reports.

(1) Persons, who have carried out such transactions or acts mentioned in B above, are required in principle to make reports to the Minister of Finance not later than the fifteenth day of the following month, except in certain special cases. Persons who export gold and merchandise for the value of which foreign exchange has not been sold to foreign exchange banks are, however, required to submit, in making reports of such export to the customs house or in the event of despatch by mails, reports relating thereto through the customs house or the post office of despatch. With respect to the report of the exports for the value of which foreign exchange has not been sold to foreign exchange banks, there are detailed provisions.

(2) Persons who export merchandise for the value of which foreign exchange or yen exchange drawn on the territories in which Japanese currency has the force of legal tender has been sold to foreign exchange banks are required to submit, in making reports of such export to the customs house or in the event of despatch by mail, reports relating thereto through the customs house or the post office of despatch.

(3) Persons travelling abroad, who carry currency or foreign currencies, are required, at their departure, to make reports through the customs house.

(4) Foreign exchange banks are required to submit, not later than the fifteenth day of the following month, detailed statements for each month of purchases and sales of foreign exchange, purchases and sales of yen exchange drawn on the territories in which Japanese currency has the force of legal tender, bills for collection handled, payment of remittances from foreign countries, letters of credit issued, and the like. (This applies correspondingly to banks other than foreign exchange banks).

(5) Dealers in securities are required to submit, not later than the fifteenth day of the following month, detailed statements for each month of purchases and sales of foreign currency securities or of their brokerage transactions.

(6) Persons who have, in the territory where this Ordinance is in force, the mutual accounts and other counterbalancing accounts with persons residing in foreign countries are required to submit statements for each month not later than the fifteenth day of the following month.

(7) Persons, who carry on undertakings or business in foreign countries, are required to submit, in respect of their undertakings or businesses, statements of receipts and disbursements between January and June and between July and December, the conditions of remittances and movements of other funds as between Japan and foreign countries, and of assets and liabilities in foreign countries as at the end of each period.

(8) Persons who have assets in foreign countries (excluding foreign currency securities, deposits, loans, and rights to receive benefit from trust) are required, as specially provided for, to submit statements of increase and decrease in such assets as between January and June and between July and December, and of the amount as at the end of each period. In cases where the amount as at the end of each period is less than ¥10,000, no report is required.

D. Compulsory disposal of assets.

The Minister of Finance may at any time require persons in possession of the following assets to sell them to the Bank of Japan or such other person as the same Minister may designate, may require them to make necessary disposal of such assets, or may prohibit or restrict such disposal:

(1) Gold bullion, foreign currencies, or foreign exchange.

(2) Securities or claims expressed in foreign currencies, or claims expressed in Japanese currency to persons residing in foreign countries.

(3) Assets in foreign countries other than those mentioned in (1) and (2) above.

E. Impress of stamp on foreign currency securities.

Foreign currency securities, the purchase and sale of which have been exceptionally sanctioned, such as foreign currency securities which were in Japan on July 1, 1932 and those imported subsequently under license from the Minister of Finance may, as has been provided for in the Ordinance of the Depertment of Finance issued under the Capital Flight Prevention Law, be presented to the Bank of Japan and impressed with stamp.

In December, 1936, however, there was witnessed a marked increase in speculative imports of merchandise. In view of the fact that the continuance of such condition would exert an unfavourable

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influence upon the future course of the yen exchange, an emergency measure was taken by promulgation of an Ordinance under the Foreign Exchange Control Law to provide for Government permission for exchange transactions necessary for payment for the import of merchandise and to prevent the undue selling of the yen exchange abroad. This Ordinance No. 1 which was put into operation as from January 8, 1937, was of a temporary nature and the period in which it was in force was to expire on July 31, 1937, but subsequent developments of the situation at home and abroad resulted not only in frequent amendments in the Ordinance, but in the date of expiration being postponed. The content of this Ordinance may be summarised as follows:

(1) Permission of the Minister of Finance is required in principle for exchange transactions and the acquisition of letters of credit necessary for the purpose of making payments for the import of merchandise.

(2) Exchange transactions controlled under this provision comprise the purchase of foreign exchange, the sale of yen exchange in foreign countries, remittance to foreign countries, payments by order from a foreign country, and the delivery of forward exchange contracts as concluded before the coming into effect of this Ordinance.

(3) No permission of the Minister of Finance, however, is required for exchange transactions or the acquisition of letters of credit in the following cases:

(a) When transactions or acts involving not more than the equivalent of ¥100 are made for a period not exceeding one month.

(b) When exchange transactions are made under letters of credit which have been acquired by permission, or without permission as specially provided for.

(4) Permission of the Minister of Finance is required in case payments for export merchandise for the value of which foreign exchange has not been sold to foreign exchange banks are applied to payment for import merchandise.

(5) Permission of the Minister of Finance is required in cases where persons who undertake the import of merchandise of foreign currency securities or deposits, advances and other assets expressed in foreign currencies, held in foreign countries, or make in foreign countries loans in foreign currencies on the security of those assets, for the purpose of making necessary payment for the importation.

(6) Permissions mentioned in (1) to (5) above must be obtained before the importation of merchandise.

(7) Permission of the Minister of Finance is required for the import of merchandise for the value of which foreign exchange or yen exchange drawn in the territories in which Japanese currency has the force of legal tender on Japan has not been sold to foreign exchange banks in foreign countries, provided, however, that this does not apply to the following cases:

(a) When merchandise is imported after permission has been obtained under the provisions in (1) to (5) above for transactions or acts necessary for payment of such merchandise.

(b) When merchandise is imported as sample, donation to other persons, or for purposes of exhibition.

(c) When merchandise shipped from Japan is sent back.

(d) When merchandise is imported for repairs.

(e) When fish caught by vessels which have gone fishing from Japan is imported in the same vessels.

(f) When hand luggages or personal belongings seperated from the owner are imported.

(g) When merchandise is imported by the Government.

(h) When merchandise of not more than ¥100 for one month is imported.

(8) Foreign exchange banks are required, as from April 5, 1938, to obtain permission of the Minister of Finance for purchases and sales of foreign exchange, remittances to foreign countries of money collected by bills for collection, payment by order from a foreign country, export of foreign currency securities for the purpose of receiving payments, the issue of letters of credit, and other transactions or acts for which a greater measure of freedom had formerly been granted only to foreign exchange banks.

(9) No permission of the Minister of Finance had formerly been required under the Ordinance No. 7 of 1933 (as amended) for the purchase and sale of foreign currencies or travellers' checks expressed in foreign currencies made by dealers in money exchange. Under the provisions of Ordinance No. 1 of 1937, however, permission is required for such purchases and sales.

It should, moreover, be noted that this Ordinance also provides that foreign exchange banks, when dealing with their customers, should ascertain the legality of the customers' exchange transactions and acts.

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CHAPTER X

COMMERCE AND INDUSTRY

Number of Companies

There were a total of 85,042 companies throughout the country at the end of 1937, which showed a decrease of 2,469 or 2.8 per cent from similar figures recorded one year before. The increasing tendency of companies during the past 11 years is illustrated by the following figures :

	Number of Companies	Index No.	Increase Over Preceding Year	Percentage of Increase
1927	38,516	100	2,448	6.8
1928	41,702	108	3,186	8.3
1929	46,692	121	4,990	12.0
1930	51,910	135	5,218	11.2
1931	57,226	149	5,316	10.2
1932	65,041	169	7,815	13.7
1933	71,196	185	6,155	9.5
1934	78,198	203	7,002	9.8
1935	84,146	218	5,948	7.6
1936	87,511	227	3,365	4.0
1937	85,042	221	-2,469	- 2.8

Kinds of Companies

Of the 85,042 companies, 16,387 were Gomei Kaisha (unlimited partnerships), 42,354 were Goshi Kaisha (limited partnerships), 26,266 were Kabushiki Kaisha (join stock companies), 31 were Kabushiki Goshi Kaisha (joint-stock limited partherships) and 4 were Sogo Kaisha (mutual companies). The number of Gomei Kaisha decreased by 1,144 as compared with that recorded a year ago. The number of Goshi Kaisha also decreased by 2,832 and that of Kabushiki Goshi Kaisha decreased by 7, while that of Kabushiki Kaisha increased by 1,514.

GOMEI KAISHA

	Number of Companies	Index No.	Increase Over Preceding Year	Percentage of Increase
1927	5,961	100	459	8 3
1928	6,458	108	497	8.3
1929	7,379	124	921	14.3
1930	8,525	143	1,146	15.5
1931	9,673	162	1,148	13.5
1932	10,925	183	1,252	12.9
1933	12,344	207	1,419	13.0
1934	14,357	241	2,013	16.3
1935	16,449	276	2,092	14.6
1936	17,531	294	1,082	6.6
1937	16,387	275	-1,144	- 6.5

GOSHI KAISHA

	Number of Companies	Index No.	Increase Over Preceding Year	Percentage of Increase
1927	14,550	100	1,706	13.3
1928	16,971	117	2,441	16.8
1929	20,318	140	3,347	19.7
1930	23,995	165	3,677	18.1
1931	27,855	192	3,860	16.1
1932	34,059	234	6,204	22.3
1933	38,038	262	3,979	11.7
1934	41,822	288	3,784	9.9
1935	44,388	305	2,566	6.1
1936	45,186	311	798	1.8
1937	42,354	291	-2,832	- 6.3

KABUSHIKI KAISHA

	Number of Companies	Index No.	Increase Over Preceding Year	Percentage of Increase
1927	17,931	100	285	1.6
1928	18,230	101	249	1.4
1929	18,950	105	720	3.9
1930	19,341	108	391	2.1
1931	19,649	109	308	1.6
1932	20,010	111	361	1.8
1933	20,767	115	757	3 8
1934	21,977	122	1,210	5.8
1935	23,364	129	1,287	5.9
1936	24,752	138	1,488	6.4
1937	26,266	146	1,514	6.1

Capitalization of Companies

Among these companies there were 960 with an authorized capital of more than ¥5,000,000 each in 1937.

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Authorized Capital (in yen)	No. of Companies	Percentage
Less than 50,000	58,213	68.5
50,000-100,000	8,760	10.3
100,000-500,000	11,938	14.0
500,000-1,000,000	2,405	2.8
1,000,000-5,000,000	2,766	3.3
5,000,000-10,000,000	421	0.5
More than 10,000,000	539	0.6
Total	85,042	100.0

Those with an authorized capital of less than ¥500,000 decreased from 81,865 at the end of 1936 to 78,911 at the end of 1937, losing 2,954 or 3.6 per cent while those with an authorized capital of more than ¥500,000 increased by 485 or 8.6 per cent, rising from 5,646 to 6,131. Further details in this connection are given in index number as follows :

INDEX NUMBER OF COMPANIES BY CAPITAL

	Less than ¥50,000	Over ¥50,000 and Less than ¥100,000	Over ¥100,000 and less than ¥500,000	Over ¥500,000 and less than ¥1,000,000	Over ¥1,000,000 and less than ¥5,000,000	More than ¥5,000,000 and less than ¥10,000,000	Over ¥10,000,000
1927	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
1928	114	105	101	97	99	102	105
1929	135	112	105	99	101	103	110
1930	158	119	107	97	100	104	109
1931	183	123	107	94	98	101	109
1932	220	128	108	92	99	99	109
1933	246	135	112	95	99	98	109
1934	274	147	120	98	103	104	113
1935	294	162	128	104	108	113	116
1936	302	175	139	109	114	122	123
1937	263	179	148	114	125	134	145

Kinds of Enterprises

The greater part of the companies are engaged in commerce as shown by the figures recorded at the end of 1936 which placed the commercial firms at 44,953 or 52.8 per cent of the total. Those engaged in manufacturing industry numbered 30,518 (35.9%); those in transport business, 6,440 (7.6%); those in agriculture, 1,942; those in mining, 836; and those in fishery, 353. It is to be noted in this respect that those classified under the heading of commerce include those dealing in merchandise, in warehouse business, in banking and in insurance business as well.

The following is a table showing the increasing tendency of the various companies during the past 11 years in index number :

INDEX NUMBER OF COMPANIES BY ENTERPRISE

	Agriculture	Fishery	Mining	Manufacturing Industry	Commerce	Transport
1927	100	100	100	100	100	100
1928	100	102	102	106	109	114
1929	107	109	109	116	125	129
1930	114	115	104	127	141	141
1931	133	120	106	139	157	150
1932	181	126	107	157	180	160
1933	204	128	118	172	198	168
1934	242	133	142	188	218	180
1935	258	135	168	204	234	191
1936	262	141	192	215	240	201
1937	256	143	230	212	230	202

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COMPANIES IN JAPAN PROPER

(Compiled by the Ministry of Commerce and Industry)

(Amount in yen)

	Total		Unlimited Partnership		Limited Partnership	
	Companies	Capital	No.	Capital	No.	Capital
1927	38,516	18,386,354,937	5,961	1,089,701,831	14,530	789,407,615
1928	41,702	18,968,865,222	6,458	1,119,215,594	16,971	836,571,258
1929	46,692	19,666,107,256	7,379	1,148,417,397	20,318	879,635,673
1930	51,910	19,633,761,001	8,525	1,186,472,072	23,995	906,822,796
1931	57,226	19,551,543,522	9,673	1,157,194,896	27,855	940,346,631
1932	65,041	19,484,540,099	10,925	1,171,869,779	34,059	977,045,248
1933	71,196	19,960,318,207	12,344	1,167,953,595	38,038	1,033,015,258
1934	78,198	21,126,978,409	14,357	1,233,544,869	41,822	1,094,181,088
1935	84,146	22,352,402,224	16,449	1,306,235,862	44,388	1,150,161,537
1936	87,511	23,977,761,065	17,531	1,355,529,118	45,186	1,189,346,116
1937	85,042	26,912,152,345	16,389	1,355,707,137	42,354	945,323,173

	Joint-stock Companies			Joint-stock and Limited Partnership		
	No.	Authorized Capital	Paid-up Capital	No.	Authorized Capital	Paid-up Capital
1927	17,981	16,495,414,651	10,748,046,857	36	6,840,840	5,213,797
	* 8	4,990,000	2,095,000			
1928	18,230	17,000,941,440	11,198,114,057	35	7,286,930	5,541,789
	* 8	4,850,000	2,052,500			
1929	18,950	17,623,222,586	11,753,890,560	37	10,031,600	6,821,524
	* 8	4,800,000	1,992,500			
1930	19,341	17,525,569,633	11,844,392,288	41	10,166,500	7,020,824
	* 8	4,730,000	1,932,500			
1931	19,649	17,439,114,145	11,854,068,374	41	10,007,850	6,843,274
	* 8	4,880,000	1,932,500			
1932	20,010	17,322,778,672	11,889,927,128	39	8,166,400	5,879,362
	* 8	4,680,000	1,882,500			
1933	20,767	17,748,038,474	12,338,632,293	43	8,060,880	5,938,350
	* 4	3,250,000	1,250,000			
1934	21,977	18,788,255,072	13,440,732,719	38	7,797,380	5,502,350
	* 4	3,200,000	1,200,000			
1935	23,264	19,885,777,795	14,197,243,247	41	7,377,030	5,485,742
	* 4	2,850,000	1,050,000			
1936	24,752	21,423,015,161	15,248,024,035	38	7,070,670	5,016,257
	* 4	2,800,000	1,000,000			
1937	26,266	24,603,364,615	17,654,516,533	31	5,357,420	4,501,995
	* 4	2,400,000	800,000			

Note: * Indicates mutual companies.

Companies Grouped by the Amount of Capital.

(Amount in yen)

	Total		Less than ¥50,000		¥50,000 —100,000		¥100,000 —500,000	
	Companies	Capital	No.	Capital	No.	Capital	No.	Capital
1927	38,516	18,386,354,937	20,555	254,799,673	4,895	278,445,526	8,061	1,383,885,783
1928	41,702	18,968,865,222	23,453	280,962,699	5,144	292,885,988	8,143	1,401,782,822
1929	46,692	19,666,107,256	27,740	319,299,760	5,477	312,000,084	8,427	1,442,496,834
1930	51,910	19,633,761,001	32,465	357,952,953	5,809	332,115,212	8,638	1,474,224,678
1931	57,226	19,551,543,522	37,667	395,077,297	6,034	344,338,767	8,650	1,471,390,110
1932	65,041	19,484,540,099	45,252	443,092,884	6,262	357,878,155	8,690	1,478,504,592
1933	71,196	19,960,318,207	50,626	488,122,066	6,599	379,265,739	9,065	1,531,005,964
1934	78,198	21,126,978,409	56,264	541,585,233	7,196	412,753,409	9,654	1,628,738,749
1935	84,146	22,352,402,224	60,496	596,756,451	7,941	455,033,469	10,356	1,744,453,954
1936	87,511	23,977,761,065	62,146	629,806,869	8,548	491,012,325	11,171	1,886,736,676
1937	85,042	26,912,152,345	58,213	611,951,082	8,760	503,410,313	11,938	2,044,509,457

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	¥500,000 —1,000,000		¥1,000,000 —5,000,000		¥5,000,000 —10,000,000		More than ¥10,000,000	
	No.	Capital	No.	Capital	No.	Capital	No.	Capital
1927	2,106	1,135,564,500	2,212	3,599,014,155	315	1,818,225,000	372	9,916,420,300
1928	2,051	1,107,565,700	2,199	3,586,327,113	321	1,862,876,500	391	10,436,464,400
1929	2,079	1,130,220,828	2,236	3,664,993,900	325	1,884,184,500	408	10,912,911,350
1930	2,048	1,117,185,728	2,217	3,642,868,930	327	1,889,859,500	406	10,819,554,000
1931	1,985	1,084,760,878	2,164	3,549,380,770	319	1,838,388,000	407	10,868,207,700
1932	1,931	1,058,788,878	2,190	3,604,717,290	312	1,810,988,000	404	10,730,570,300
1933	1,995	1,092,996,278	2,198	3,636,835,610	308	1,788,924,250	405	11,043,168,300
1934	2,066	1,136,149,578	2,269	3,783,148,440	328	1,904,310,000	421	11,720,293,000
1935	2,180	1,193,256,250	2,387	3,986,112,800	356	2,065,607,000	430	12,311,182,300
1936	2,292	1,250,903,655	2,512	4,181,845,640	385	2,215,577,000	457	13,321,878,900
1937	2,405	1,311,834,593	2,766	4,634,700,800	421	2,437,806,300	539	15,367,939,800

Business Results of Companies

(Amount in yen)

Total

	No. of Companies	Capital	Reserves	Net Profit	Dividend	Loss
1927	38,516	18,386,354,937	2,783,347,599	1,102,884,974	708,752,826	333,330,504
1928	41,702	18,968,865,222	2,759,422,927	1,153,767,249	763,880,939	261,938,049
1929	46,692	19,666,107,256	2,873,849,408	1,140,081,627	785,948,514	263,039,538
1930	51,910	19,633,761,001	2,890,574,464	919,419,134	650,929,435	311,666,987
1931	57,226	19,551,543,522	2,892,130,298	743,674,676	549,313,737	272,977,645
1932	65,041	19,484,540,099	2,934,912,608	830,322,113	545,112,912	201,617,106
1933	71,196	19,960,318,207	2,992,993,198	1,092,033,665	638,799,501	138,608,044
1934	78,198	21,126,978,409	3,317,792,057	1,329,053,672	777,697,886	148,710,392
1935	84,146	22,352,402,224	3,609,218,698	1,510,294,180	903,013,099	109,388,955
1936	87,511	23,977,761,065	3,986,663,110	1,682,681,941	1,009,358,614	118,143,245
1937	85,042	26,912,152,345	4,305,417,115	2,008,815,507	1,200,848,789	111,333,703

Agricultural Companies

	No. of Companies	Capital	Reserves	Net Profit	Dividend	Loss
1927	758	178,247,747	8,751,387	5,330,171	3,647,827	3,490,250
1928	761	172,725,396	10,164,373	4,348,186	2,633,832	6,066,344
1929	813	200,005,805	11,659,535	4,059,501	3,398,281	6,962,562
1930	867	203,227,418	11,425,580	2,981,236	2,194,957	4,634,053
1931	1,005	179,419,567	9,410,873	1,101,824	930,572	4,794,527
1932	1,370	175,921,870	9,549,321	1,190,261	845,917	3,489,771
1933	1,548	172,688,571	10,185,207	2,247,291	1,385,094	2,253,861
1934	1,833	179,817,967	11,408,104	4,562,729	2,600,127	2,617,079
1935	1,957	178,378,964	13,054,122	5,824,581	4,238,327	2,848,996
1936	1,987	184,422,763	13,116,044	6,747,455	4,471,217	1,401,934
1937	1,942	199,981,339	13,903,841	8,749,496	6,474,018	1,577,020

Fisheries Companies

	No. of Companies	Capital	Reserves	Net Profit	Dividend	Loss
1927	246	104,841,656	8,014,869	10,760,136	7,229,164	2,174,167
1928	251	137,716,301	11,076,345	15,517,516	5,340,359	1,200,195
1929	269	154,044,001	12,361,601	7,479,049	7,694,692	1,731,132
1930	283	137,219,262	11,284,817	4,865,842	3,536,437	4,069,709
1931	294	127,245,564	10,535,168	1,555,358	1,180,065	2,496,473
1932	309	149,269,571	10,091,826	6,470,393	3,871,431	2,198,027
1933	316	144,111,727	9,616,241	8,037,036	6,018,768	978,924
1934	324	142,754,058	9,345,619	11,755,919	6,795,758	1,160,121
1935	332	151,089,613	13,911,080	16,320,589	10,136,150	1,360,076
1936	346	182,241,152	16,665,136	15,491,053	10,367,297	900,904
1937	353	253,677,652	24,033,043	16,077,870	10,776,322	1,468,416

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Mining Companies

	No. of Companies	Capital	Reserves	Net Profit	Dividend	Loss
1927	363	1,096,506,935	120,941,624	41,842,808	29,969,452	18,180,059
1928	371	1,005,230,192	131,375,307	44,281,532	30,562,085	18,457,887
1929	394	1,060,690,693	116,771,370	57,316,880	34,158,513	19,019,463
1930	376	954,242,273	100,696,580	30,339,837	22,930,041	23,112,090
1931	383	961,868,883	97,793,798	19,027,144	15,651,820	15,857,406
1932	389	951,969,923	96,981,747	26,812,546	19,093,927	12,647,560
1933	427	975,954,664	96,736,497	50,605,374	31,914,230	5,509,475
1934	515	1,066,996,905	120,127,123	76,317,610	49,989,059	2,228,960
1935	611	1,269,098,458	141,984,183	98,089,442	63,862,501	3,250,888
1936	697	1,418,426,383	170,580,240	113,469,849	69,694,072	8,916,621
1937	836	1,758,504,011	210,737,740	131,457,216	85,221,659	7,027,587

Industrial Companies

	No. of Companies	Capital	Reserves	Net Profit	Dividend	Loss
1927	14,382	7,095,066,647	803,646,374	447,525,418	325,267,951	107,207,779
1928	15,271	7,328,935,388	787,070,245	494,930,049	355,445,779	89,579,174
1929	16,623	7,497,121,310	824,996,303	510,002,971	380,157,509	74,325,205
1930	18,205	7,543,682,190	822,698,039	374,118,326	305,306,554	110,432,691
1931	19,969	7,673,518,695	827,873,104	340,977,420	268,876,915	93,350,984
1932	22,575	7,571,152,934	863,546,716	359,856,144	261,873,820	58,961,769
1933	24,717	8,008,172,269	905,296,435	493,721,537	310,217,934	40,159,609
1934	27,067	8,825,335,800	1,034,280,329	614,251,026	392,603,151	63,235,825
1935	29,312	9,456,415,605	1,202,110,825	752,602,721	480,508,664	33,068,171
1936	30,986	10,701,376,368	1,371,321,074	839,868,165	542,065,633	40,950,550
1937	30,518	12,851,303,576	1,597,920,518	1,026,367,425	646,736,061	37,362,611

Commercial Companies

	No. of Companies	Capital	Reserves	Net Profit	Dividend	Loss
1927	19,586	7,931,064,857	1,656,089,356	507,732,882	271,436,874	182,227,765
1928	21,427	8,129,851,803	1,645,423,828	501,019,427	292,216,154	128,033,885
1929	24,481	8,393,133,150	1,717,896,053	465,749,779	282,659,691	123,078,606
1930	27,691	8,462,456,943	1,781,346,341	440,133,263	258,998,466	139,949,004
1931	30,794	8,292,845,679	1,733,832,237	324,341,080	216,505,974	137,501,905
1932	35,315	8,325,581,416	1,789,408,407	385,676,586	220,975,645	105,951,777
1933	38,850	8,350,747,964	1,803,069,497	479,743,200	251,677,831	73,901,069
1934	42,716	8,610,933,679	1,965,678,690	553,716,588	281,054,019	71,881,733
1935	45,852	8,965,151,295	2,041,359,679	542,051,927	286,177,248	62,257,141
1936	47,090	9,105,441,190	2,205,007,423	608,212,852	319,615,445	58,794,378
1937	44,953	9,299,678,059	2,223,407,286	679,650,816	370,946,405	57,068,974

Transportation Companies

	No. of Companies	Capital	Reserves	Net Profit	Dividend	Loss
1927	3,181	1,980,627,095	185,903,989	89,693,559	71,201,558	20,050,484
1928	3,621	2,194,406,142	174,312,829	93,670,539	73,682,730	18,600,564
1929	4,112	2,361,112,297	190,164,546	95,473,447	77,879,828	37,922,570
1930	4,488	2,332,932,915	163,123,107	66,980,630	57,962,980	29,469,440
1931	4,781	2,316,645,134	162,685,118	56,671,850	46,168,391	18,976,350
1932	5,083	2,310,644,398	165,334,588	50,316,183	38,452,172	18,368,202
1933	5,338	2,308,643,012	168,089,321	57,779,227	38,185,654	15,805,106
1934	5,739	2,301,140,000	176,952,192	68,449,800	44,655,772	7,586,674
1935	6,082	2,332,268,289	196,798,809	95,404,920	58,090,209	6,603,683
1936	6,405	2,385,853,209	209,973,193	98,672,567	63,154,950	7,178,358
1937	6,440	2,549,007,708	235,414,687	146,512,684	80,694,524	6,829,095

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FACTORIES

(Compiled by the Ministry of Commerce and Industry)

End of	No. of Factories Worked by Motors	Steam Engines H.P.	Steam Turbines H.P.	Gas H.P.	Petroleum H.P.	Water Turbines H.P.	Pelton's H.P.
1930	51,407	309,742	1,475,504	17,543	27,811	2,310,865	527,424
1931	53,442	323,628	1,753,431	16,459	32,873	2,415,288	533,713
1932	56,453	213,916	1,863,302	16,759	43,146	2,785,866	519,080
1933	61,203	189,781	2,087,009	17,606	55,896	2,992,158	523,744
1934	68,306	222,000	2,259,487	46,613	61,237	2,724,606	537,146
1935	73,302	225,674	2,530,171	44,901	72,210	2,783,751	541,756
1936	78,670	225,652	2,784,162	47,971	82,410	2,943,615	606,170
1937	91,618	401,520	3,108,887	49,900	99,276	3,542,477	569,223

	Water Japanese H.P	Electric Motors H.P.	No. of Factories not Worked by Motors	Total No. of Factories	No. of Operatives Employed Male	Female	Total
1930	8,086	3,859,560	10,827	62,234	796,282	887,281	1,683,563
1931	7,231	3,263,337	10,994	64,436	775,236	886,266	1,661,502
1932	6,150	2,922,149	10,865	67,318	846,307	887,204	1,733,511
1933	5,420	3,054,478	10,737	71,940	967,659	933,432	1,901,091
1934	5,652	3,846,770	12,005	80,311	1,147,097	1,016,356	2,163,453
1935	5,326	4,458,144	11,872	85,174	1,287,575	1,081,702	2,369,277
1936	5,439	5,119,126	11,932	90,602	1,458,398	1,134,289	2,592,687
1937	7,335	6,376,478	14,387	106,005	1,727,032	1,209,480	2,936,512

	No. of Other Workers Officials	Technicians	Others	Grand Total of workers	Production (In yen)
1930	76,391	55,885	69,679	1,885,518	5,962,810,401
1931	74,868	54,019	62,410	1,852,799	5,174,578,927
1932	78,033	55,566	64,675	1,931,785	5,982,469,433
1633	85,406	59,742	66,630	2,112,869	7,871,364,449
1934	97,870	68,631	72,858	2,402,812	9,390,060,374
1935	108,693	76,455	76,941	2,631,366	10,836,894,120
1936	119,303	84,584	79,098	2,875,672	12,257,588,046
1937	138,810	95,245	94,983	3,265,550	16,412,452,730

Note: Figures are for the factories which employ more than 5 operatives each.

OUTSTANDING AMOUNT OF BANK AND CORPORATION BONDS

(at the end of the year)

(Compiled by the Bank of Japan)

Internal Bonds	1934	1935	1936	1937
		(In yen)		
Bank bonds				
Hypothec debentures	796,272,160	728,178,565	711,258,583	936,892,923
Savings bonds	—	—	—	30,000,000
Reconstruction savings certificates	77,654,600	76,854,120	76,025,695	75,245,065
Debentures of the Industrial Bank of Japan	287,261,750	279,254,200	243,091,700	640,759,000
Debentures of the Hokkaidō Colonization Bank	114,428,920	124,818,520	121,330,250	119,066,650
Debentures of Agricutural & Industrial Banks	447,764,252	428,746,288	355,506,002	135,146,627
Debentures of the Chōsen Industrial Bank	244,955,700	278,674,100	326,230,800	344,656,200
Total	1,968,337,382	1,916,525,793	1,833,443,030	2,281,766,465
Corporation bonds				
Railway & tramway	962,174,860	1,132,066,010	1,267,904,260	1,286,298,910
Shipping & shipbuilding	66,250,000	61,190,000	77,470,000	73,450,000

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	1934	1935	1936	1937
		(In yen)		
Mining & metallurgy	37,405,000	32,689,500	24,027,000	83,426,500
Electric & gas works	1,115,725,000	1,064,359,000	983,740,000	985,324,000
Spining & weaving	158,445,350	206,827,050	187,395,350	197,215,350
Manufacturing	270,155,800	324,339,400	315,246,450	235,725,950
Commercial, etc.	216,782,828	212,382,400	255,165,700	269,614,240
Total	2,822,223,338	3,025,190,860	3,150,655,260	3,131,054,950
Total internal bonds	4,790,560,720	4,941,716,653	4,984,098,290	5,412,821,415
External Bonds				
Bank bonds				
Debentures of the Industrial Bank of Japan	—	—	—	—
Debentures of the Hokkaidō Colonization Bank	—	—	—	—
Total	—	—	—	—
Corporation bonds				
Railway & tramway	—	—	—	—
Electric & gas works	297,361,982	279,691,247	268,826,008	257,527,138
Commercial, etc.	58,520,035	56,340,516	54,807,932	52,207,144
Total	355,882,017	336,031,763	323,633,940	310,734,282
Total external bonds	355,882,017	336,031,763	323,633,940	310,734,282
Grand Total	5,146,442,737	5,277,748,416	5,307,732,230	5,723,555,697

EXTERNAL LOANS OF PRIVATE COMPANIES

Companies.	Year of Issue	Rate of Interest %	Issue Price	Amount of Issue	Amount outstanding at the end of 1937
Outstanding issue					
Oriental Development Co., Ltd.	Mar., 1923	6.0	92.0	$ 19,900,000 (39,919,400)	$ 12,793,000 (25,662,758)
Do	Nov., 1928	5.5	90.0	$ 19,900,000 (39,919,400)	$ 13,731,000 (27,544.386)
Nippon Electric Power Co., Ltd.	Jan., 1928	6.5	94.0	$ 9,000,000 (18,054,000)	$ 6,392,000 (12,822,352)
Daidō Electric Power Co., Ltd.	Aug., 1924	7.0	91.5	$ 15,000,000 (30,090,000)	$ 5,997,000 (12,029,982)
Do	July., 1925	6.5	86.0	$ 13,500,000 27,081,000	$ 6,078,500 (62,193,471)
Tokyo Electric Light Co., Ltd.	June, 1928	6.0	95.5	$ 70,000,000 (140,420,000)	$ 55,327,000 (110,985,962)
Do	June, 1927	6.0	90.0	£ 4,500,000 (43,933,500)	£ 3,669,150 (35,821,911)
Do					
Shinyetsu Electric Power Co., Ltd.	Dec., 1928	6.5	93¼	$ 7,650,000 (15,345,900)	$ 5,568,000 (11,169,408)
Ujigawa Electric Power Co., Ltd.	Mar., 1925	7.0	91.0	$ 14,000,000 (28,084,000)	$ 5,739,000 (11,512,434)
Toho Electric Power Co., Ltd.,	Mar., 1925	7.0	90.5	$ 15,000,000 (30,090,000)	$ 2,782,500 (5,581,695)
Do	July., 1925	5.0	97.0	£ 300,000 (2,928,900)	£ 141,158 (1,378,223)
Taiwan Electric Power Co., Ltd.	July, 1931	5.5	93¼	$ 22,800,000 (45,736,800)	$ 21,788,000 (43,706,728)
Total		—	—	(461,602,900)	(310,409,310)

Note: Figures in parenthesis denote corresponding amount in yen.

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IMPORTS OF FOREIGN CAPITAL INTO JAPAN

(Compiled by the Ministry of Finance)

Year	National bonds issued abroad	Domestic bonds abroad	Provincial bonds issued abroad	Debentures issued abroad	Total	Comparison with the preceding year
			(In ¥1,000)			
1925	1,500,215	8,712	124,627	331,557	1,965,113	+104,028
1926	1,477,868	9,687	220,223	347,634	2,055,413	+ 90,300
1927	1,460,232	14,768	257,640	315,500	2,048,140	- 7,273
1928	1,453.092	31,397	254,163	470,406	2,209,029	+160,888
1929	1,446,894	31,779	245,666	465,623	2,189,963	- 19,065
1930	1,567,325	84,178	245,173	455,867	2,352,544	+162,580
1931	1,477,334	59,181	240,697	505,964	2,283,177	- 69,367
1932	1,398,296	51,428	235,502	467,821	2,153,047	-130,129
1933	1,421,211	50,019	230,984	383,116	2,085,331	- 67,176
1934	1,408,303	49,751	226,472	356,020	2,040,546	- 44,784
1935	1,372,885	25,012	222,118	336,019	1,956,036	- 84,510

BOURSES

(Department of Commerce and Industry Figures)

Joint-Stock Companies

(Amount in yen)

Year	Number of Companies	Number of Brokers	At the End of Year: Capital	
			Authorized	Paid-up
1927	34	1,089	137,852,200	97,120,700
1928	34	937	137,852,200	97,678,200
1929	34	923	138,902,200	98,203,200
1930	32	863	138,902,200	98,103,200
1931	31	838	138,902,200	98,103,200
1932	31	861	138,802,300	105,628,200
1933	29	918	138,802,300	105,745,200
1934	26	914	141,402,200	108,237,300
1935	26	898	141,002,200	108,087,200
1936	26	859	141,002,200	108,087,200
1937	26	838	141,002,200	108,962,000

During the Year

Year	Fees	Receipts Others	Total	Tax on Bourses	Expenses: Others	Total
1927	12,356,186	6,308,842	18,665,028	1,849,807	5,550,898	7,400,705
1928	11,378,712	6,513,665	17,892,377	1,731,680	6,206,673	7,938,353
1929	9,803,216	5,370,184	15,178,400	1,469,014	5,758,319	7,227,333
1930	9,953,828	5,078,418	15,032,246	1,540,853	5,406,713	6,947,566
1931	11,718,041	5,699,828	17,417,869	1,775,125	6,431,315	8,206,440
1932	13,700,918	6,236,902	19,993,782	2,076,346	6,992,606	9,068,952
1933	18,856,435	6,963,927	25,820,362	2,840,617	8,810,732	11,651,349
1934	16,631,634	7,567,536	24,199,170	2,508,929	9,667,401	12,176,330
1935	15,337,320	6,960,340	22,297,660	2,295,734	8,162,535	10,458,269
1936	15,001,237	6,719,005	21,720,242	2,227,416	7,986,596	10,214,012
1937	22,154,164	7,486.548	29,640,712	3,567,717	11,070,285	14,638,002

During the Year

Year	Net Profit	Loss	Dividend
1927	11,294,632	30,309	9,136,450
1928	9,954,024	—	8,452,468
1929	7,951,304	237	6,462,306
1930	8,087,621	2,941	6,428,218
1931	9,230,713	19,284	6,642,108

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Year	Net Profit	Loss	Dividend
1932	10,924,830	24,195	7,997,109
1933	14,197,632	28,612	9,639,337
1934	12,026,918	4,078	7,920,831
1935	11,853,311	13,920	8,214,486
1936	11,515,629	9,399	8,140,473
1937	15,009,738	7,028	9,749,263

Associations

(Amount in yen)

Year	At the End Year			
	Number of Associations	Number of Members	Contribution Amount	Reserve Funds
1927	4	120	443,500	323,378
1928	5	142	450,830	377,449
1929	5	128	527,560	438,702
1930	5	120	530,740	478,157
1931	5	111	530,740	514,926
1932	6	183	559,270	593,564
1933	6	187	562,950	732,537
1934	6	188	568,550	905,428
1935	6	188	571,450	1,036,420
1936	6	196	577,950	1,260,196
1937	7	236	656,850	1,546,903

Year	During the Year			
	Fees	Receipts Others	Total	Expenses
1927	269,631	52,096	321,727	189,717
1928	219,159	60,007	279,166	168,820
1929	165,142	61,039	226,181	164,447
1930	144,832	56,575	201,407	127,878
1931	136,730	55,405	192,135	134,469
1932	239,024	73,575	312,599	162,681
1933	316,993	76,923	393,916	161,044
1934	226,789	79,671	306,460	157,353
1935	311,128	81,407	392,535	187,615
1936	338,786	99,204	437,990	193,686
1937	597,142	96,628	693,770	322,628

TRANSACTIONS IN SHARES, BONDS AND PRINCIPAL COMMODITIES AT THE BOURSES

Year	Number of Bourses	Shares			
		Long Term		Short Term	
		Amount of Sales Shares	Amount of Deliveries Shares	Amount of Sales Shares	Amount of Deliveries Shares
1927	11	51,162,160	7,946,110	76,998,030	10,195,310
1928	11	37,159,940	7,332,900	66,810,640	9,617,310
1929	11	27,983,480	5,473,340	82,303,490	12,811,520
1930	11	36,512,680	4,219,690	96,078,300	14,773,330
1931	11	30,360,080	4,013,940	139,008,640	16,941,130
1932	11	46,236,900	6,857,770	165,252,540	22,829,120
1933	11	57,275,810	11,316,750	216,429,210	26,872,090
1934	11	62,291,090	11,982,120	198,729,380	23,041,310
1935	11	41,065,140	8,153,130	214,320,750	23,545,450
1936	11	53,176,290	9,920,920	183,892,540	24,513,640
1937	11	72,943,670	13,933,380	289,128,520	34,115,900

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Year	Bonds Long Term No. of Bourses	Amount of Sales (In yen)	Amount of Deliveries (In yen)	Rice No. of Bourses	Amount of Sales Hectolitres	Amount of Deliveries Hectolitres
1927	2	129,774,000 fr. 44,200,000	16,335,000 fr. 11,475,000	28	317,627,783	1,635,605
1928	2	448,051,000 fr. 145,975,000	108,247,000 fr. 48,810,000	27	320,372,792	2,248,033
1929	2	349,410,000 fr. 107,185,000	76,305,000 fr. 23,920,000	26	324,978,355	1,757,910
1930	2	295,620,000 fr. 45,980,000	33,410,000 fr. 21,070,000	25	398,560,769	1,616,303
1931	2	793,835,000 fr. 289,770,000	166,950,000 fr. 84,620,000	25	369,669,506	2,176,046
1932	2	740,755,000 fr. 279,210,000	148,845,000 fr. 39,420,000	24	400,031,293	3,061,235
1933	2	536,370,000 fr. 624,970,000	126,190,000 fr. 87,760,000	24	224,276,342	2,248,032
1934	2	412,995,000 fr. 513,240,000	99,730,000 fr. 65,430,000	24	198,615,902	1,842,333
1935	2	539,620,000 fr. 271,170,000	52,170,000 fr. 26,920,000	24	171,639,691	2,631,904
1936	2	553,325,000 fr. 243,360,000	55,090,000 fr. 25,490,000	24	76,976,800 (koku)	772,200 (koku)
1937	2	585,310,000 fr. 208,390,000	15,840,000 fr. 13,120,000	24	84,804,200 (,,)	667,700 (,,)

Year	Raw Silk No. of Bourses	Amount of Sales kg.	Amount of Deliveries kg.	Cotton Yarn No. of Bourses	Amount of Sales Bales	Amount of Deliveries Bales
1927	1	18,733,140	285,000	3	12,103,260	79,015
1928	1	15,516,840	749,400	3	10,878,320	61,430
1929	2	11,957,940	322,800	3	7,817,150	47,900
1930	2	29,641,596	480,000	3	10,048,140	54,530
1931	2	44,030,220	2,328,000	3	8,162,960	20,870
1932	2	41,077,140	1,250,400	3	10,492,050	58,000
1933	2	44,379,840	652,800	3	9,398,060	28,625
1934	2	48,118,800	1,020,000	3	8,010,060	42,170
1935	2	802,060,200	1,086,000	3	8,327,190	26,510
1936	2	178,814,400 (kin)	2,041,000 (kin)	3	9,070,880	37,030
1937	2	162,722,000 (,,)	1,285,000 (,,)	3	16,461,390	41,280

PRICES OF PRINCIPAL BONDS AND SHARES IN TOKYO

(Compiled by the Bank of Japan)

Year	5% Loan (Mark: "Ko") Face value	Highest	Lowest	4% Loan (1st series) Face value	Highest	Lowest
	(In yen)					
1929	100.00	96.30	90.60	100.00	83.90	77.00
1930	100.00	92.90	86.95	100.00	80.00	75.50
1931	100.00	98.35	86.15	100.00	84.60	72.60
1932	100.00	99.50	86.50	100.00	90.00	73.60
1933	100.00	104.10	94.70	100.00	100.40	82.60
1934	100.00	106.50	101.90	100.00	99.50	98.35
1935	100.00	105.60	102.50	100.00	99.10	98.60
1936	100.00	105.85	100.10	100.00	103.30	98.65
1937	100.00	101.80	100.15	100.00	102.30	99.95
1938	100.00	105.55	102.10	100.00	103.10	101.95

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Year	Bank of Japan Shares			Yokohama Specie Bank Shares		
	Paid-up	Highest	Lowest	Paid-up	Highest	Lowest
			(In yen)			
1929	200.00	648.00	539.00	100.00	217.00	186.20
1930	200.00	580.00	743.00	100.00	203.00	139.50
1931	200.00	554.00	475.00	100.00	180.00	141.00
1932	200.00	535.00	475.00	100.00	187.50	137.00
1933	200.00	554.00	485.00	100.00	200.50	160.00
1934	200.00	545.00	509.00	100.00	206.70	194.80
1935	200.00	566.00	495.50	100.00	213.00	201.50
1936	200.00	559.00	533.00	100.00	223.50	200.30
1937	200.00	625.00	520.00	100.00	214.40	187.90
1938	200.00	572.00	532.00	100.00	203.80	191.50

Year	Industrial Bank of Japan Shares			South Manchuria Railway Company Shares		
	Paid-up	Highest	Lowest	Paid-up	Highest	Lowest
			(In yen)			
1929	50.00	39.80	32.90	50.00	71.70	43.50
1930	50.00	35.30	18.80	50.00	72.60	49.70
1931	50.00	30.70	23.40	50.00	63.90	45.30
1932	50.00	47.20	24.30	50.00	67.60	48.30
1933	50.00	50.20	35.00	50.00	74.00	54.00
1934	50.00	43.40	48.20	50.00	70.00	61.00
1935	50.00	54.60	50.90	50.00	66.30	57.80
1936	50.00	58.90	53.00	50.00	64.10	56.00
1937	50.00	61.50	49.00	50.00	65.20	49.50
1938	50.00	57.20	54.70	50.00	65.20	49.50

Year	Nippon Yusen Kaisha Shares			Osaka Shosen Kaisha Shares		
	Paid-up	Highest	Lowest	Paid-up	Highest	Lowest
			(In yen)			
1929	50.00	69.70	55.20	50.00	45.30	37.50
1930	50.00	57.40	25.20	50.00	36.00	17.80
1931	50.00	45.00	29.30	50.00	30.50	18.60
1932	50.00	58.50	28.30	50.00	48.50	19.80
1933	50.00	57.20	41.00	50.00	48.80	28.00
1934	50.00	59.30	45.50	50.00	52.90	43.50
1935	50.00	74.00	50.00	50.00	59.20	43.20
1936	50.00	74.20	63.80	50.00	56.90	52.10
1937	50.00	103.90	69.50	50.00	91.30	58.10
1938	50.00	103.90	60.20	50.00	91.30	57.30

Year	Tokyo Electric Light Company Shares			Kanegafuchi Cotton Spinning Company Shares		
	Paid-up	Highest	Lowest	Paid-up	Highest	Lowest
			(In yen)			
1929	50.00	53.90	39.30	50.00	274.50	225.50
1930	50.00	41.90	15.50	50.00	222.50	119.00
1931	50.00	24.70	14.00	50.00	220.50	138.90
1932	50.00	24.30	12.70	50.00	273.90	184.60
1933	50.00	33.90	13.40	50.00	267.90	168.10
1934	50.00	43.40	30.80	50.00	245.70	216.10
1935	50.00	60.00	38.40	50.00	233.50	205.10
1936	50.00	66.30	50.30	50.00	245.00	205.10
1937	50.00	66.80	47.90	50.00	331.40	208.40
1938	50.00	66.80	47.00	50.00	331.40	134.10

Year	Meiji Life Insurance Company Shares			Nippon Oil Company Shares		
	Paid-up	Highest	Lowest	Paid-up	Highest	Lowest
			(In yen)			
1929	100.00	2,005.00	1,680.00	50.00	68.30	40.00
1930	100.00	1,680.00	1,160.00	50.00	44.10	20.40

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Year	Meiji Life Insurance Company Shares			Nippon Oil Company Shares		
	Paid-up	Highest	Lowest	Paid-up	Highest	Lowest
			(In yen)			
1931	100.00	1,700.00	1,280.00	50.00	44.00	27.80
1932	100.00	1,570.00	1,035.00	50.00	58.60	36.60
1933	100.00	1,300.00	1,100.00	50.00	66.50	47.10
1934	100.00	1,150.00	860.00	50.00	53.80	35.50
1935	100.00	1,005.00	815.00	50.00	51.00	38.10
1936	100.00	1,050.00	808.00	50.00	78.90	52.20
1937	100.00	790.00	768.00	50.00	100.40	68.20
1938	100.00	752.00	723.00	50.00	100.40	52.50

Year	Keihin Electric Tramway Company Shares			Tokyo Stock Exchange Shares		
	Paid-up	Highest	Lowest	Paid-up	Highest	Lowest
			(In yen)			
1929	50.00	56.30	50.40	50.00	168.00	111.00
1930	50.00	52.70	28.00	50.00	121.00	96.80
1931	50.00	41.50	34.00	50.00	169.50	104.50
1932	50.00	40.80	31.80	50.00	209.00	129.50
1933	50.00	39.50	31.30	50.00	218.00	128.00
1934	50.00	41.50	33.10	50.00	168.50	114.50
1935	50.00	37.00	33.10	50.00	160.00	124.50
1936	50.00	46.20	35.80	50.00	155.60	114.30
1937	50.00	55.00	45.20	30.00	177.90	130.50
1938	50.00	60.70	49.30	30.00	177.90	121.30

Note:—The highest and lowest prices of the 5% and 4% loans represent flat prices.

YIELDS OF STOCKS AND DEBENTURES

(Prepared by Hypothec Bank of Japan)

	Leading stocks 65 kinds			Bonds and debentures		
	Average yields	Index numbers	Gov't Bonds	Municipal Bonds	Bank Deb.	Corporate Deb. (20)
	(1914 July=100)					
1929	6.85%	95	5.08%	5.88%	6.10%	6.43%
1930	8.10	113	5.37	6.09	6.18	6.54
1931	6.82	95	5.40	5.91	6.12	6.49
1932	6.01	83	5.59	6.07	6.33	6.84
1933	5.03	67	4.81	5.33	5.44	5.96
1934	4.90	66	4.52	4.94	4.98	5.41
1935	5.58	69	4.49	4.70	4.67	4.99
1936	5.59	69	3.81	4.05	4.14	4.47
1937	5.31	66	3.93	4.23	4.23	4.40
1938	5.65	70	3.85	4.24	4.24	4.36

AGRICULTURAL AND INDUSTRIAL PRODUCTIONS IN JAPAN PROPER IN 1936 AND 1937

(In yen)

	1936	1937		1936	1937
Agricultural products	2,873,004,673	3,243,653,597	Live stock products	218,621,118	261,595,010
Rice	1,865,268,551	2,071,889,318	Meats	89,707,231	113,198,872
Barley	330,852,780	403,613,540	Eggs	86,754,199	100,129,706
Vegetables	231,260,646	259,306,238	Milk	32,410,801	37,169,007
Fruits	81,958,451	92,114,502	Others	9,748,887	11,099,425
Potatoes	87,958,930	91,214,087	Forestry products	314,680,920	403,315,203
Others	275,851,315	325,515,912	Lumber	136,932,264	189,088,543
Cocoons	386,640,792	419,609,741			

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	1936	1937
Fuel woods	30,647,394	34,098,828
Charcoal	101,796,857	131,460,169
Others	45,304,405	48,667,663
Fishery products	328,260,595	349,859,324
Fishes	230,637,188	241,830,563
Shells	15,838,836	16,162,026
Seaweeds	20,874,084	24,915,184
Others	60,910,487	66,951,551
Industrial products	12,257,588,046	16,412,452,730
Textiles	3,654,888,191	4,242,258,108
Metalic products	2,208,866,940	3,488,038,477
Machine and tools	1,716,352,631	2,557,201,510
Ceramics	329,316,147	405,287,608
Chemicals	2,110,915,268	2,917,030,415
Wooden manufactures	280,237,008	379,474,062
Printing and book-binding	234,988,007	273,253,762
Food stuffs	1,259,660,608	1,524,939,782
Others	440,661,786	596,555,296
Gas and electric by-products	21,701,460	28,413,620
Mine products	560,917,560 (estimate)	610,185,000 (estimate)
Total	16,939,713,704 (estimate)	21,700,670,605 (estimate)

Note: The amount of industrial products represents only that of the products in the private factories where more than five operatives are employed. The amount of products of household industries is estimated at 10 per cent of the factory products.

The value of gas produced is estimated at ¥200,000,000 and the wholesale amount of electricity at ¥500,000,000.

Governmental monopoly and undertakings are gaining profits of some ¥332,000,000.

When all the factory, household, and Governmental industrial products are taken into account the total amount of products in Japan proper in 1937 may be estimated at ¥27,362,000,000, or per capita production ¥384.08.

Production of Minor Factories There are in Japan great numbers of minor factories engaged in various industries where less than 5 persons are employed and which do not come under the control of the Factory Law. Accordingly, most of the industrial statistics given in the following chapters on industrial subjects are of factories where more than 5 persons are employed. The Ministry of Commerce and Industry gives statistics on more than 20 kinds of industries in which the largest numbers of such minor factories are engaged. The following table includes most of them, the production of which alone reaches nearly 7 per cent of the total production of the factories where more than 5 operatives are employed given above.

VALUE OF INDUSTRIAL PRODUCTION IN FACTORIES WHERE LESS THAN 5 PERSONS ARE EMPLOYED IN 1937

(In Yen)

	Production of the factories where more than 5 persons are employed	Production of all factories	Production of the factories where less than 5 persons are employed
Cotton tissues	842,204,438	1,112,685,156	270,480,718
Silk tissue, and cotton and silk mixtures	217,572,720	721,447,826	503,875,106
Hemp tissue, and hemp and cloth mixtures	20,502,558	26,978,392	6,475,834
Woolen fabrics and mixtures	218,702,662	328,009,685	109,307,023
Knitted goods	113,476,672	115,500,996	2,024,324
Ceramics	69,665,924	115,191,376	45,525,452
Roof tiles	5,850,336	24,910,845	19,060,509
Lacquerwares	1,914,292	44,013,492	42,099,200
Leather and manufactures	34,161,820	45,101,809	10,939,989
Starch	25,037,349	32,636,523	7,599,174
Bamboo articles	2,843,442	11,628,217	8,784,775
Wood work	164,193,692	235,628,230	71,434,538
Cane-work	963,234	2,427,547	1,464,313
Wicker-work	217,907	3,469,919	3,252,012
Brushes	4,300,898	7,500,894	3,199,996
Japanese mats	102,113	17,176,045	17,073,932
Other mats and hanamushiro	2,894,590	11,524,108	8,629,518
Straw and wood-shaving plaits	2,750,861	7,936,416	5,185,555
Total	1,727,355,508	2,863,767,476	1,136,411,968

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CHANGE IN NUMBER OF FACTORIES AND OPERATIVES AND AMOUNTS OF PRODUCTION BY KIND

(Compiled by the Department of Commerce and Industry)

(1) Number of Factories

Year	Number	Percentage of Increase over the Previous Year	Year	Number	Percentage of Increase over the Previous Year
1928	56,948	4.2	1933	71,940	6.9
1929	59,887	7.0	1934	80,311	11.6
1930	62,234	3.9	1935	85,174	6.1
1931	64,436	3.5	1636	90,602	6.4
1932	67,318	4.5	1937	106,005	17.0

(2) Number of Factories by kind

Kind of Industry	Number			Percentage		
	1931	1936	1937	1931	1936	1937
Total	64,436	90,602	106,005	100	100	100
Spinning and Weaving	20,965	26,358	28,133	32.5	29.1	26.6
Metal	4,133	8,251	10,076	6.4	9.1	9.5
Machine and Tool	5,850	11,766	14,636	9.1	13.0	13.8
Ceramic	3,167	4,222	4,990	4.9	4.7	4.7
Chemical	3,389	4,998	5,820	5.3	5.5	5.5
Timber and Woodwork	5,200	7,788	9,880	8.0	8.6	9.3
Printing and Bookbinding	2,948	3,450	3,857	4.6	3.8	3.6
Foodstuff	12,567	14,021	16,518	19.8	15.5	15.6
Gas and Electric Manufactures	498	570	656	0.8	0.6	0.6
Miscellaneous	5,719	9,178	11,439	8.9	10.1	10.8

(3) Number of Operatives

Kind of Industry	Number			Percentage		
	1931	1936	1937	1931	1936	1937
Total	1,660,332	2,592,687	2,936,512	100	100	100
Spinning and Weaving	898,792	1,027,917	1,032,510	54.1	39.7	35.2
Metal	84,269	246,858	310,490	5.1	9.5	10.6
Machine-tool	158,351	456,963	601,684	9.5	17.6	20.5
Ceramic	56,731	101,702	112,857	3.4	3.9	3.8
Chemical	122,461	273,487	322,796	7.4	10.5	11.0
Timber and Woodwork	56,658	93,293	107,869	3.4	3.6	3.7
Printing and Bookbinding	51,367	58,839	64,652	3.1	2.3	2.2
Foodstuff	133,516	165,310	185,508	8.1	6.4	6.3
Gas and Electric Manufactures	8,248	8,721	9,286	0.5	0.3	0.3
Miscellaneous	89,939	159,597	188,860	5.4	6.2	6.4

(4) Production

Kind of Industry	(Amount in ¥1,000)			Percentage		
	1931	1936	1937	1931	1936	1937
Total	5,178,135	12,257,588	16,412,452	100	100	100
Spinning and Weaving	1,926,807	3,654,888	4,242,258	37.2	29.8	25.8
Metal	431,438	2,208,867	3,488,038	8.3	18.0	21.2
Machine-tool	498,014	1,716,352	2,557,201	9.6	14.0	15.6
Ceramic	144,712	329,316	405,287	2.8	2.7	2.5
Chemical	816,559	2,110,915	2,917,030	15.8	17.2	17.8
Timber and Woodwork	146,906	280,237	379,474	2.8	2.3	2.3
Printing and Bookbinding	176,712	234,988	273,253	3.4	1.9	1.7

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Kind of Industry	(Amount in ¥1,000) 1931	1936	1937	Percentage 1931	1936	1937
Foodstuff	837,773	1,259,660	1,524,939	16.2	10.3	9.3
Gas and Electric Manufactures	14,758	21,701	28,413	0.3	0.2	0.2
Miscellaneous	184,453	440,661	596,555	3.6	3.6	3.6

NUMBER OF APPLICATIONS AND GRANTS FOR PATENTS, DESIGNS, ETC. ACCORDING TO NATIONALITIES

(Compiled by the Patent Bureau, Department of Commerce and Industry)

Kinds	Year	Applied For Japanese	Foreigners	Total	Registered Japanese	Foreigners	Total
Patents	1931	12,871	2,312	15,183	2,998	1,320	4,318
	1932	12,176	1,702	13,878	3,437	1,309	4,846
	1933	12,110	1,794	13,904	4,306	1,196	5,502
	1934	12,822	1,900	14,722	3,743	930	4,673
	1935	14,785	1,887	16,645	3,816	950	4,766
	1936	16,132	2,379	18,511	3,994	842	4,836
	1937	14,772	2,609	17,381	3,725	890	4,615
	1885-1937 total	314,092	52,436	366,528	80,390	29,595	109,985
Utility models	1931	37,954	342	38,296	11,917	163	12,080
	1932	33,666	315	33,981	11,782	206	11,988
	1933	32,502	341	32,843	15,680	260	15,940
	1934	34,557	382	34,939	13,978	272	14,250
	1935	40,580	408	40,988	14,014	226	14,240
	1936	44,210	422	44,632	15,396	274	15,670
	1937	38,110	473	38,583	13,686	264	13,950
	1905-1937 total	748,843	4,016	752,859	236,501	2,286	238,787
Designs	1931	9,951	36	9,987	4,801	18	4,819
	1932	9,172	23	9,195	4,547	20	4,567
	1933	9,388	39	9,427	4,044	13	4,057
	1934	9,566	45	4,026	9,611	26	4,052
	1935	12,285	79	12,364	5,434	40	5,474
	1936	14,568	58	14,626	5,629	33	5,662
	1937	10,102	50	10,152	4,447	17	4,464
	1890-1937 total	186,265	900	187,165	84,524	392	84,916
Trade Marks	1931	21,288	1,132	22,420	10,953	928	11,881
	1932	20,648	881	21,529	9,873	703	10,576
	1933	22,986	1,056	24,042	11,867	763	12,630
	1934	25,484	802	26,286	12,575	753	13,328
	1935	28,912	749	29,661	13,456	564	14,020
	1936	29,365	748	30,113	14,615	525	15,140
	1937	26,546	913	27,459	14,345	627	14,972
	1884-1937 total	604,236	37,312	641,548	293,191	26,789	319,980
Total	1931	82,064	3,822	85,886	30,669	2,429	33,098
	1932	75,662	2,921	78,538	29,739	2,238	31,977
	1933	76,986	3,230	80,216	35,897	2,232	38,129
	1934	82,429	3,129	85,558	34,322	1,931	36,303
	1935	96,535	3,123	99,658	36,720	1,780	38,500
	1936	104,275	3,607	107,882	39,634	1,674	41,308
	1937	89,530	4,045	93,575	36,203	1,798	38,001
	1884-1937 total	1,853,436	94,664	1,948,100	694,606	59,062	753,668

INDEX NUMBER OF WHOLESALE COMMODITY PRICES

(Compiled by the Ministry of Commerce and Industry)
(Based on December, 1929=100)

	Jan.	Feb.	March	April	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Year Average	Percentage of rise over the previous year
1934	94.1	95.5	95.3	95.1	95.2	95.0	95.0	96.0	98.2	99.0	97.6	97.4	96.3	0.9
1935	97.9	98.3	97.6	97.3	96.9	95.7	94.8	95.3	97.5	100.1	99.6	98.5	97.4	1.1
1936	98.5	98.4	98.7	99.2	98.9	99.3	100.7	101.6	101.9	101.9	103.8	109.8	101.2	3.9
1937	120.0	119.9	123.3	126.1	123.7	121.8	122.8	122.3	123.7	124.5	126.9	128.8	123.8	22.3
1938	131.1	135.1	136.9	137.8	140.0	147.8	148.2	141.9	141.0	139.9	141.2	141.7	140.2	13.2

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INDEX NUMBER OF PRICES

(Compiled by the Ministry of Commerce and Industry)

Comparison of Wholesale and Retail Prices

(Based on December, 1929=100)

		Jan.	Feb.	March	April	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.
1934	Wholesale	95	96	95	95	95	95	95	96	98	99	98	98
	Retail	88	88	89	89	89	86	87	89	89	91	89	89
1935	Wholesale	97.9	98.3	97.6	97.3	96.9	95.7	94.8	95.3	97.5	100.1	99.6	98.5
	Retail	89.5	89.5	88.9	89.6	90.1	88.8	90.3	90.6	91.7	92.4	92.2	92.9
1936	Wholesale	98.5	98.4	98.7	99.2	98.9	99.3	100.7	101.1	101.9	101.9	103.8	109.8
	Retail	93.6	95.5	95.9	96.6	95.5	92.8	93.3	94.4	94.4	93.8	93.7	96.7
1937	Wholesale	120.2	119.9	123.3	126.2	123.7	121.9	122.8	122.3	123.5	124.5	126.9	128.8
	Retail	103.0	102.6	101.9	104.0	104.1	103.3	103.3	103.9	105.8	105.6	105.8	108.2
1938	Wholesale	131.1	135.1	136.9	137.8	140.0	147.8	148.2	141.9	141.0	139.9	141.2	141.7
	Retail	110.6	114.0	116.8	118.6	118.3	118.9	124.6	127.5	127.5	127.4	127.9	129.6

WHOLESALE PRICES OF PRINCIPAL TRADE GOODS

(Based on December, 1929=100)

		Jan.	Feb.	March	April	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.
1934	Export	91	92	92	91	92	93	92	92	95	95	95	95
	Import	106	107	106	106	106	107	107	108	110	110	107	107
1935	Export	94.8	94.6	93.1	92.4	92.8	91.5	90.7	90.9	92.8	97.1	97.4	95.6
	Import	108.9	108.4	107.4	107.7	107.8	106.4	105.3	105.7	107.2	110.3	109.8	109.0
1936	Export	94.1	92.7	93.3	94.5	94.0	94.8	96.8	97.9	98.4	100.5	103.2	108.1
	Import	109.7	110.5	111.4	111.4	110.8	111.8	113.9	114.6	115.1	116.1	118.9	128.9
1937	Export	115.9	114.3	114.6	115.6	113.8	113.9	112.0	107.7	109.7	107.8	106.9	108.9
	Import	143.2	142.0	150.3	157.3	152.8	149.1	151.8	153.1	153.2	153.4	156.7	158.1
1938	Export	111.8	117.5	119.9	120.1	120.1	128.0	119.1	113.4	120.9	120.8	121.4	123.1
	Import	160.0	161.9	162.3	163.7	167.8	172.9	174.5	167.2	163.0	158.6	159.7	157.7

WHOLESALE PRICES ACCORDING TO KINDS

(Based on December, 1929=100)

1934

	Jan.	Feb.	March	April	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.
Foodstuffs	86	87	87	87	88	86	85	88	90	93	93	93
Fibre goods	91	93	93	92	91	94	93	93	93	92	91	92
Metal articles	108	108	109	110	110	110	111	112	122	123	115	113
Building materials	98	98	99	100	100	100	100	101	106	106	105	104
Industrial chemicals	101	99	96	95	94	92	91	90	89	89	94	89
Fertilizers	88	89	88	88	88	85	84	87	88	89	88	89
Fuel	93	93	93	92	92	92	93	93	94	95	95	95
Miscellaneous	110	112	112	111	111	110	112	113	114	114	112	111
Average	95	96	95	95	95	95	95	96	98	99	98	98

1935

	Jan.	Feb.	March	April	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.
Foodstuffs	94.4	97.6	97.8	96.4	95.6	94.2	93.8	96.2	100.7	102.4	101.7	101.7
Fibre goods	92.9	92.7	90.4	89.8	91.3	89.0	89.7	89.6	90.7	94.7	95.3	93.1
Metal articles	111.4	108.1	108.4	109.6	107.8	104.9	102.7	103.5	107.8	112.9	107.8	104.8
Building materials	101.7	100.6	100.2	99.9	98.8	98.3	98.2	97.5	98.7	99.3	99.3	99.3
Industrial chemicals	89.0	88.7	87.3	88.0	85.7	84.7	82.0	80.3	78.3	78.0	76.7	77.0
Fertilizers	90.5	96.0	96.8	98.5	99.5	96.3	92.0	91.3	96.0	100.5	100.8	100.8
Fuel	95.0	94.7	94.3	94.4	93.8	93.4	93.2	92.7	93.4	94.1	94.0	94.0
Miscellaneous	110.9	111.0	110.0	109.3	107.1	107.4	106.2	106.2	106.2	108.4	109.3	108.3
Average	97.9	98.3	97.6	97·3	96.9	95.3	94.8	95.3	97.5	100.1	99.6	99.0

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1936

	Jan.	Feb.	March	April	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.
Foodstuffs	103.7	103.2	102.6	103.4	105.0	105.5	106.3	108.2	107.0	103.1	102.7	105.2
Fibre goods	90.9	89.7	90.6	91.6	90.9	92.0	94.5	95.0	95.0	96.3	99.1	105.1
Metal articles	103.7	105.4	108.3	108.7	106.9	107.5	106.6	110.4	112.4	115.4	121.4	143.4
Building materials	98.9	99.1	98.9	98.6	98.5	97.7	98.2	99.0	101.6	102.3	104.4	107.5
Industrial chemicals	76.0	75.4	75.0	74.3	72.3	71.0	71.0	70.3	71.0	71.3	71.3	71.7
Fertilizers	103.3	101.8	98.3	98.0	96.0	97.3	99.8	101.5	101.0	97.8	96.5	99.0
Fuel	94.6	95.9	96.0	95.9	95.4	96.3	96.7	97.3	96.0	99.7	100.7	101.9
Miscellaneous	109.7	110.6	111.0	111.1	109.7	109.6	110.6	110.1	110.3	112.8	116.1	124.2
Average	98.5	98.4	98.7	99.2	98.9	99.3	100.7	101.6	101.9	101.9	103.8	109.8

1937

	Jan.	Feb.	March	April	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.
Foodstuffs	108.9	109.2	109.3	111.1	110.0	108.0	109.6	107.7	108.5	110.9	112.2	113.4
Fibre goods	115.1	113.1	113.6	114.3	111.7	112.0	109.0	104.1	106.6	103.4	102.7	105.3
Metal articles	178.9	174.8	194.3	200.6	183.1	173.8	183.8	191.2	189.0	190.4	204.4	212.2
Building materials	113.3	114.8	116.3	122.4	124.4	123.2	122.9	124.1	125.1	126.0	128.0	130.4
Industrial chemicals	76.7	85.7	90.0	93.0	94.7	94 7	95.0	97.0	101.3	106.3	113.0	118.3
Fertilizers	103.3	104.5	107.3	113.5	115.3	118.3	117.0	123.0	124.8	126.0	127.5	129.0
Fuel	104.1	105.3	105.3	108.3	110.1	110.7	113.6	114.0	117.9	122.6	123.9	124.3
Miscellaneous	138.9	141.2	148.7	151.8	150.1	146.8	147.1	148.0	148.8	150.6	151.6	146.4
Average	120.0	119.9	123.3	126.1	123.7	121.8	122.8	122.3	123.7	124.5	126.9	128.8

1938

	Jan.	Feb.	March	April	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.
Foodstuffs	113.8	113.9	114.1	114.0	114,2	115.7	115.9	116.0	117.7	120.0	122.4	125.1
Fibre goods	107.3	115.4	119.6	119.8	119.7	130.4	119.3	114.5	118.3	118.5	120.4	121.6
Metal articles	219.5	229.0	228.0	229.5	243.2	276.2	284.1	245.3	228.7	215.2	215.6	208.7
Building materials	134.1	138.4	142.0	144.9	145.5	147.0	147.3	143.2	146.5	144.3	146.9	150.0
Industrial chemicals	119.7	125.7	126.7	126.0	122.7	121.0	118.7	120.0	117.7	115.7	116.0	115.7
Fertilizers	128.3	127.5	128.8	128.8	128.0	128.0	128.0	126.0	127.8	130.3	132.0	133.0
Fuel	129.2	129.6	130.2	134.2	135.9	138.4	139.7	137.9	137.1	136.2	135.9	136.0
Miscellaneous	146.3	146.4	148.7	149.9	155.9	160.6	170.7	169.0	165.8	166.8	164.9	164.1
Average	131.1	135.1	136.9	137.8	140.0	147.8	148.2	141.9	141.0	139.9	141.2	141.7

RETAIL PRICES ACCORDING TO KINDS

1934

	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	April	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.
Foodstuffs	87.7	87.9	88.3	89.0	88.5	83.5	85.1	87.3	87.5	88.9	87.5	88.1
Clothes and accessories	85.6	86.4	86.2	86.2	86.4	87.7	87.8	88.0	88.4	88.6	88.0	87.4
Fuel	90.7	90.3	90.9	90.3	90.1	89.6	89.4	89.9	90.7	91.7	91.9	91.6
Building materials	99.7	99.9	101.6	102.6	102.1	102.3	104.9	106.3	108.4	117.0	110.0	107.1
Miscellaneous	83.3	83.4	83.4	83.2	82.7	82.9	83.4	84.1	84.8	88.0	86.6	85.3
Average	87.9	88.2	88.6	88.9	88.6	86.1	87.2	88.7	89.1	90.9	89.4	89.3

1935

	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	April	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.
Foodstuffs	89.2	89.5	88.6	89.9	91.0	89.1	92.0	92.3	94.4	94.6	94.1	95.8
Clothes and accessories	86.6	86.9	86.8	86.2	87.9	86.7	86.5	86.2	86.6	88.0	88.7	88.1
Fuel	91.6	91.1	90.9	90.7	90.1	89.9	89.9	90.1	90.3	90.7	90.9	90.9
Building materials	104.9	102.9	103.0	102.4	99.6	98.0	97.1	97.7	98.0	101.0	98.7	97.6
Miscellaneous	84.9	83.9	83.7	84.6	83.9	83.6	82.9	82.8	82.9	84.2	84.2	84.0
Average	89.5	89.5	88.9	89.6	90.1	88.8	90.3	90.4	91.7	92.4	92.2	92.9

1936

	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	April	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.
Foodstuffs	97.4	100.6	101.6	102.6	100.9	96.0	96.5	98.2	97.4	95.4	94.5	97.4
Clothes and accessories	87.6	87.6	87.3	87.8	87.8	88.2	89.0	89.0	90.6	91.4	42.2	93.5
Fuel	91.1	92.4	92.3	92.0	91.0	90.7	90.4	91.0	91.4	92.3	93.7	95.6
Building materials	96.4	96.1	96.1	96.7	95.6	95.9	96.3	97.7	99.7	101.7	103.1	112.0
Miscellaneous	83.9	83.8	83.7	83.4	82.9	82.8	83.1	82.9	83.1	84.2	85.0	88.9
Average	93.6	95.5	95.9	96.6	95.5	92.8	93.3	94.4	94.4	93.8	93.7	96.7

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1937

	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	April	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.
Foodstuffs	100.9	100.1	98.3	100.9	100.5	99.6	99.6	101.1	104.1	103.1	102.7	105.8
Clothes and accessories	101.9	103.5	103.6	104.6	104.9	104.4	104.1	102.8	103.7	104.1	103.8	104.6
Fuel	96.4	96.6	95.9	96.6	97.9	98.1	98.6	98.6	99.6	102.1	103.9	105.7
Building materials	135.6	128.9	131.3	135.6	137.0	132.3	135.1	135.0	135.1	135.4	139.6	143.4
Miscellaneous	97.8	100.0	101.8	103.2	103.4	103.1	103.0	103.7	103.4	103.2	104.3	105.2
Average	103.0	102.6	101.9	104.0	104.1	103.1	103.3	103.9	105.8	105.6	105.8	108.2

1938

	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	April	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.
Foodstuffs	108.6	109.9	111.5	112.4	110.7	108.9	112.5	118.2	118.6	118.6	118.6	121.1
Clothes and accessories	107.0	117.3	123.0	126.3	127.5	131.6	143.0	142.5	141.0	142.3	143.5	144.6
Fuel	107.9	108.9	109.7	111.7	112.9	114.4	116.0	116.6	116.9	116.3	116.4	117.1
Building materials	146.0	148.3	152.0	152.9	155.0	160.3	169.3	165.1	167.3	164.7	168.3	168.9
Miscellaneous	105.8	108.8	112.8	116.2	118.1	120.4	126.0	127.7	126.8	125.7	125.7	125.3
Average	110.6	114.0	116.8	118.6	118.3	118.9	124.6	127.5	127.5	127.4	127.9	129.6

COMPARISION OF INDEX NUMBERS OF WHOLESALE PRICES AND CIRCULATION OF BANK-NOTES

(Based on December, 1929=100)

		Jan.	Feb.	March	April	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.
1934	Wholesale	94.6	95.5	95.3	95.1	95.2	95.0	95.0	96.0	98.2	99.0	97.6	97.4
	Bank-notes	92.4	98.6	84.0	86.5	83.0	84.0	84.1	83.7	81.4	85.1	85.8	98.7
1935	Wholesale	97.9	98.3	97.6	97.3	96.9	95.7	94.8	95.3	97.5	100.1	99.6	98.5
	Bank-notes	98.0	90.8	88.3	90.0	86.2	88.7	88.5	87.5	86.5	92.6	93.4	107.2
1936	Wholesale	98.5	98.4	98.7	99.2	98.9	99.3	100.7	101.1	101.9	101.9	103.8	109.8
	Bank-notes	106.6	96.5	97.0	95.8	92.8	95.0	96.1	95.2	93.5	97.7	98.6	114.6
1937	Wholesale	120.0	119.9	123.3	126.1	123.7	121.8	122.8	122.3	123.7	124.5	126.9	128.8
	Bank-notes	111.9	107.2	103.0	105.9	103.2	106.5	103.0	110.1	111.1	119.1	122.6	142.0
1938	Wholesale	131.1	135.1	136.9	137.6	140.0	147.8	148.2	141.9	141.0	139.9	141.2	141.7
	Bank-notes	141.3	130.9	129.5	132.4	131.3	136.1	139.9	140.9	140.0	146.5	148.6	171.3

NEW BUILDINGS IN JAPAN PROPER

(21 larger cities)

(Compiled by the Ministry of Commerce and Industry)

Nature of Construction	1937 No.	1937 Floorage (Sq. M.)	1937 Expences (In ¥1,000)	1938 No.	1938 Floorage (sq. M.)	1938 Expenses (In ¥1,000)
Steel-skeletoned reenforced concrete	505	1,185,473	109,734	91	145,239	12,888
Renforced concrete	1,559	1,043,050	71,172	1,097	480,838	31,802
Steel-skeleton	2,154	1,357,711	73,274	1,653	1,388,109	80,662
Wooden	127,682	12,376,155	230,903	116,184	12,059,202	255,079
Brick, stone or concrete	157	22,556	562	212	15,815	624
Others	108	6,407	169	94	6,166	186
Total	132,165	15,991,352	485,815	119,331	14,095,369	381,243

Classification of New Buildings According to Purposes, 1938

	Number	Floorage (In Sq. M.)	Expenses (In yen)
Dwellings	61,877	5,435,357	117,376,398
Residences:	56,472	5,158,295	111,709,276
Residences	41,201	2,975,753	68,818,415
Tenement houses	14,000	1,787,128	32,743,559
Apartments	1,271	395,414	10,147,302
School boarding houses	143	61,484	1,759,948

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	Number	Floorage (In Sq. M)	Expenses (In yen)
Boarding houses	464	80,509	1,750,904
Others	4,798	135,069	2,156,270
Factories	36,662	6,043,581	189,050,212
Factories:	36,338	5,976,596	186,173,051
Factories;	31,137	5,603,458	179,513,721
Work shops	14,615	3,768,447	133,765,644
Storages	5,198	706,287	13,805,295
Business houses	2,349	341,813	8,947,659
Boarding houses	550	141,574	3,363,433
Others	8,425	645,337	19,631,690
Dwelling and factories	5,201	373,138	6,659,330
Electoric plants	75	44,532	2,571,982
Others	249	22,453	305,179
Commercial buildings	16,891	1,756,974	41,892,054
Shops:	9,883	945,369	20,194.851
Shops	242	27,379	926,199
Dwelling and shops	9,641	917,990	19,268,652
Bazaars	—	—	—
Department stores	3	1,061	26,680
Markets	139	48,367	915,609
Warehouses	220	59,539	1,396,949
Garages	953	72,556	1,884,004
Banks	91	19,780	1,453,996
Offices	660	138,021	5,294,508
Inns	256	28,055	780,065
Restaurants	865	67,146	1,946,546
Theatres, cinema houses	101	32,891	1,691,577
Playgrounds, etc.	67	4,595	94,187
Pleasure houses	272	28,714	910,307
Public bath houses	173	20,024	728,948
Others	3,203	290,856	4,573,827
Public buildings	3,901	859,457	32,924,498
Governmental offices	163	35,288	1,398,135
Stations	99	12,473	2,138,617
Schools	1,123	458,742	16,937,324
Meeting houses	67	11,302	358,837
Clubs, etc.	104	14,059	418,903
Hospitals, sanatoriums	603	139,636	5,149,186
Nurseries, asylums	66	11,692	281,111
Museums, libraries, etc.	11	2,007	153,030
Religious buildings	449	44,449	2,303,738
Crematories, etc.	13	872	29,521
Incineration plants	27	1,513	50,075
Aerosheds, boat houses	22	9,194	309,081
Others	1,154	118,230	3,396,940
Total	119,331	14,095,369	381,243,162

Living Expenses

The following tables may give a general idea on the economic life of the people in Japan proper. So far as monthly income is concerned, the first order of the standard of economic life is occupied by officials in companies, followed by factory operatives, governmental officials, labourers in transportation business and educators in the order named. When it is seen from the money expended for daily life the salaried men are in a standard much higher than the labourers; but the difference between the two is diminishing judged from the index numbers for April, 1939. If economic margin or reserve may be surmised by the balance between income other than from salary and property in the items of income and money for deposits, etc. in the items of expenditure, officials in companies are best off leaving a balance of ¥14.23, next come factory operatives with ¥11.50, followed by governmental

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officials, labourers in transportation business and educators in the order named. But in the case of salaried men pensions and special allowances must be taken into consideration. Farmers are the poorest with monthly income of ¥70.

MONTHLY LIVING EXPENSES OF OFFICIALS AND LABOURERS IN JAPAN PROPER

(Investigations made by the Bureau of Statistics on the monthly incomes and expenses of the representative families of each group during the 12 months from September, 1936 to August, 1937)

MONTHLY INCOME (Amount in yen)

	No. of households investigated	Average No. of members in each household	Total income	Income from salary and property	Income from deposits, loans Insurance, etc.
Salaried men					
Governmental officials	192	4.16	161.84	94.78	67.06
Bank and Company staffs	288	3.74	186.88	105.52	81.36
Educators	78	3.74	158.13	94.31	63.82
Labourers					
Factory operatives	942	4.23	162.30	90.59	71.71
Labourers in transportation	178	4.21	159.53	88.91	70.62

MONTHRY EXPENSES

		Expenses for Daily Life						Total for deposits, loans, insurance, etc.
	Total of expenses	Food	Housing	Heat and Light	Clothing	Others	Total	
Salaried men								
Governmental officials	161.84	30.65	14.24	1.29	9.47	29.25	84.90	76.94
Bank and Company staffs	186.88	31.24	15.83	4.43	10.81	28.88	91.19	95.69
Educators	158.13	28.54	15.65	4.64	9.59	28.13	86.55	71.58
Labourers								
Factory operatives	162.30	31.03	12.19	3.69	8.84	23.34	79.09	83.21
Labourers in transportation	159.53	30.78	13.05	3.89	8.88	22.97	79.57	79.96

INDEX NUMBER OF LIVING EXPENSES FOR APRIL, 1939

(Base: July, 1937=100)

	Total for daily life	Food	Housing	Heat and Light	Clothing	Others
Salaried men	116.8	118.7	104.6	118.0	145.7	105.8
Percentage of rise over the same month of 1938	8.7	9.3	2.9	5.2	24.2	2.7
Labourers	117.9	118.0	105.7	120.9	146.7	106.5
Percentage of rise over the same month of 1938	9.2	8.5	3.6	6.2	25.7	3.0

YEARLY LIVING EXPENSES OF FARMERS IN JAPAN PROPER IN 1935

(Compiled by the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry)

YEARLY INCOME
(Amount in yen)

	Landed farmers	Tenants	Semi-landed farmers	Total and Average
No. of households investigated	94	92	102	288
Average No. of members in each household	6.45	6.67	6.46	6.52
Net gain from farming	765.27	503.24	701.73	656.74
Net gain from side works	134.23	143.02	130.92	136.06
Miscellaneous income	54.18	37.17	44.26	45.21
Total income	953.68	683.44	876.91	838.01

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YEARLY EXPENSES
(Unit: yen)

	Landed farmers	Tenants	Semi-landed farmers	Average
Food	334.23	320.94	330.13	328.43
Housing	26.55	19.78	22.39	22.91
Heat, Light and Electric power	37.22	29.14	32.92	33.09
Clothing	76.33	51.22	67.17	64.91
Total expenses for daily life (including others)	793.81	627.03	694.82	705.22
Balance (or for deposits, insurance, refundment, etc.)	159.87	56.41	182.09	132.79

Commercial and Industrial Bodies

Important Commodities Guilds At the end of 1937 there were 769 important Commodities Guilds representing 107 kinds of enterprises in Japan, a loss of 5, as compared with the previous year. Those which headed the list were textiles with 93, rice and cereals 65, lumber 50, soy and "miso" 35. Federations of these guilds numbered 22.

Industrial Guilds As the end of 1937 the number of Industrial Guilds was 1,113 representing 96 kinds of enterprises, a gain of 280 in number and 21 in kind as compared with the previous year. Cotton textiles head the list with 109 rayon come next with 102, followed by wood works with 93. There were 60 federations of these guilds.

Commercial Guilds In the same year the Commercial Guilds numbered 1,641, representing 35 kinds of commodities, a gain of 452, as compared with the previous year. Cereals and flour lead the rest with 324, followed by textiles with 102. There were 11 federations of these guilds.

Export Guilds In the same period, the number of Export Guilds was 106 representing 12 kinds of commodities, a gain of 12.

Chambers of Commerce and Industry At the end of March, 1937, there were 111 Chambers of Commerce and Industry in Japan, with the total membership of 3,913 elected by 168,831 voters, an increase of 3 in the number of chambers, 97 in members and 12,417 in votes.

Industrial and Commercial Expansion in 1938-39

At the end of the Hayashi Cabinet or toward the end of the first half of 1937 a five-year programme for the expansion of munitions industry was drawn out, according to which all the industrial facilities for the manufacture of goods necessary for defence purposes were to be expanded from 200 to 1,000 per cent with an aggregate increase of capitalization amounting to ¥9,400,000,000 by the end of the fifth year including ¥6,900,000,000 in Japan proper and Korea and ¥2,500,000,000 in Manchoukuo. The Konoé Cabinet remodelled the plan to a great extent leaving the main policy unchanged and over ten new bills were presented by the Government to the 71st, 72nd and 73rd sessions of the Diet and all of them were passed and promulgated by the end of April, 1938, while efforts were made to balance international payments and to control the relation between supply and demand of commodities in the country. As the result of these Governmental policies a radical change has been produced upon the industrial structure of the nation within the past two or three years. Capitalization was concentrated in industries most closely connected with the needs for national defence as shown in the following tables:

INCREASE OF CAPITALIZATION OF BANKS AND COMPANIES IN THE EMPIRE IN 1938
(Compiled by the Bank of Japan)
(In ¥1,000)

Kind of Business	Stocks for New Establishment		Increase of Stocks in Old Companies	
	No. of Companies	Amount	No. of Companies	Amount
1. Banking	—	0	2	40,000
2. Trust	—	0	—	0
3. Financing	—	0	—	0
4. Warehousing	2	3,400	1	5,000

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Kind of Business	Stocks for New Establishment		Increase of Stocks in Old Companies	
	No. of Companies	Amount	No. of Companies	Amount
5. Insurance	—	0	—	0
6. Transportation	52	70,970	23	46,525
7. Railways	2	15,450	2	6,700
8. Shipping	21	21,375	19	37,055
9. Others	29	34,145	2	2,770
10. Mining	90	134,200	41	587,240
11. Electric power and Gas	2	50,500	1	6,525
12. Electric power	2	50,500	1	6,525
13. Gas	—	0	—	0
14. Manufacturing industries	585	761,308	202	1,024,544
15. Spinning	2	550	4	63,700
16. Weaving	14	4,300	4	8,550
17. Chemical	67	454,208	33	166,180
18. Dyeing	3	485	1	1,000
19. Paper	2	500	1	2,750
20. Machine and tool	226	136,970	78	360,155
21. Shipbuilding and Dockyards	4	2,100	4	9,500
22. Ceramic	22	13,380	10	18,670
23. Metal	132	116,095	52	376,839
24. Brewing	1	480	2	1,000
25. Foodstuff	31	11,952	1	500
26. Silk	—	0	1	1,100
27. Timber	9	3,680	2	1,000
28. Miscellaneous	72	16,608	9	13,600
29. Fisheries	7	33,850	1	1,500
30. Agriculture and Forestry	10	5,080	2	1,930
31. Commerce	239	72,667	11	7,030
32. Miscellaneous	124	522,361	9	40,600
33. Total	1,111	1,654,336	293	1,760,894

Kind of Business	Issue of Corporation Bonds		Total		Increase or Decrease (−) as compared with the previous year	
	No. of Companies	Amount	No. of Companies	Amount	No. of Companies	Amount
1. Banking	—	—	2	40,000	1	39,000
2. Trust	—	0	—	0	—	0
3. Financing	—	0	—	0	− 7	− 6,090
4. Warehousing	—	0	3	8,400	− 3	− 3,200
5. Insurance	—	0	—	0	—	0
6. Transportation	3	125,000	78	242,495	10	20,660
7. Railways	3	125,000	7	147,150	2	71,404
8. Shipping	—	0	40	58,430	3	− 21,189
9. Others	—	0	31	36,915	5	− 29,555
10. Mining	2	20,000	133	741,440	− 2	424,150
11. Electric power and Gas	6	72,000	9	129,025	−14	−100,010
12. Electric power	6	72,000	9	129,025	−12	− 98,510
13. Gas	—	0	—	0	− 2	− 1,500
14. Manufacturing industries	20	231,183	807	2,017,035	93	− 60,398
15. Spinning	1	10,000	7	74,250	−14	− 29,500
16. Weaving	—	0	18	12,850	−20	− 42,190
17. Chemical	8	81,183	108	701,571	−18	36,306
18. Dyeing	—	0	4	1,485	−11	− 11,465
19. Paper	1	3,000	4	6,250	−12	− 64,720
20. Machine and tool	9	107,000	313	604,125	108	113,406
21. Shipbuilding and Dockyards	—	0	8	11,600	− 6	− 60,600
22. Ceramic	—	0	32	32,050	6	− 10,100

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Kind of Business	Issue of Corporation Bonds		Total		Increase or decrease (−) as compared with the previous year	
	No. of Companies	Amount	No. of Companies	Amount	No. of Companies	Amount
23. Metal	1	30,000	185	522,934	51	127,914
24. Brewing	—	0	3	1,480	− 4	− 3,520
25. Foodstuff	—	0	32	12,452	−10	− 91,418
26. Silk	—	0	1	1,100	1	1,100
27. Timber	—	0	11	4,680	3	− 420
28. Miscellaneous	—	0	81	30,208	19	− 25,191
29. Fisheries	—	0	8	35,350	− 9	2,780
30. Agriculture and Forestry	—	0	12	7,010	− 1	− 56,990
31. Commerce	—	0	250	79,697	−17	−124,101
32. Miscellaneous	5	113,000	138	675,961	−42	213,379
33. Total	36	561,183	1,440	3,976,413	9	349,179

Comprison of the Past 5 Years 1934-1938

(In ¥1,000)

Kind of Busines	1938	1937	1936	1935	1934
1. Banking	40,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	—
2. Trust	—	—	7,000	—	—
3. Financing	—	6,090	2,500	1,200	1,000
4. Warehousing	8,400	11,600	1,900	7,200	—
5. Insurance	0	—	—	2,000	2,000
6. Transportation	242,495	221,835	276,488	133,390	222,920
7. Railways	147,150	75,746	239,463	112,860	206,690
8. Shipping	58,430	79,619	30,300	15,200	9,625
9. Others	36,915	66,470	6,725	5,330	6,605
10. Mining	741,440	317,290	122,745	118,165	177,720
11. Electric power and Gas	129,025	229,035	448,315	102,925	214,945
12. Electric	129,025	227,535	444,610	102,825	212,995
13. Gas	0	1,500	3,705	100	1,950
14. Manufacturing industries	2,017,035	2,077,433	647,723	682,042	547,858
15. Spinning	74,250	103,750	72,000	13,550	71,178
16. Weaving	12,850	55,040	17,198	18,195	31,185
17. Chemical	701,571	665,265	163,823	222,500	203,910
18. Dyeing	1,485	12,950	6'200	850	1,725
19. Paper	6,250	70,970	17,627	176,412	4,900
20. Machine and tool	604,125	490,719	108,080	54,875	66,820
21. Shipbuilding and Dockyards	11,600	72,200	18,300	10,100	2,500
22. Ceramic	32,050	42,150	70,800	16,800	49,435
23. Metal	522,934	395,020	107,730	80,150	77,150
24. Brewing	1,480	5,000	8,050	7,950	16,810
25. Foodstuff	12,452	103,870	38,409	24,250	6,750
26. Silk	1,100	—	1,100	—	200
27. Timber	4,680	5,100	1,900	1,800	700
28. Miscellaneous	30,208	55,399	16,505	54,610	14,595
29. Fisheries	35,350	32,570	81,421	5,150	18,400
30. Agriculture and Forestry	7,010	64,000	17,000	8,200	4,200
31. Commerce	79,697	203,798	190,681	157,404	73,330
32. Miscellaneous	675,961	462,582	203,635	208,235	72,079
33. Total	3,976,413	3,627,234	2,000,409	1,426,911	1,334,452

Note: These figures are compiled by the Bank of Japan of the surest proposed schemes for capital issues, each of which is over ¥100,000, in Japan proper, Korea, Formosa and Karafuto, excluding refunding, issues abroad an dbank bonds.

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NEW CAPITALIZATION OF BANKS AND COMPANIES IN THE FIRST HALF OF 1939

(Compiled by the Industrial Bank of Japan)
(Unit ¥1,000)

Kind of Business	Stocks for New Establishments	Increase of Stocks in Old Companies	Issue of Corporation Bonds
Chemical Industry	105,102	103,980	35,000
Manufacturing Industries	262,206	498,691	40,000
Transportation	37,434	36,846	45,000
Electricity	600	2,720	82,000
Gas	80	100	0
Mining, Fisheries, Agriculture and Forestry	108,171	237,615	73,214
Insurance	0	6,400	0
Warehousing	10	50	0
Trust and Financing	3,712	1,555	100
Banking	0	0	191,565
Commerce	89,851	23,737	0
Miscellaneous	350,000	0	0
Total	957,166	911,696	466,87
Increase (+) or Decrease (−) as compared with the first half of 1938	−15,463	−178,983	+168,899

As the above table shows the capitalization for new companies decreased by 15 million yen as compared with the first half of 1938, the increase for old companies also decreased by 178 million yen, but the floatation of corporation bonds showed a remarkable increase of 168 million yen because of the better condition of the share market. The increase in manufacturing industries, mining, fisheries, agriculture and forestry is perticularly conspicuous.

At the same time the amount of decrease of the old capital was ¥181,652,000, consisting of ¥27,006,000 by the partial decrease and ¥154,646,000 by the dissolution of old companies. As compared with the first half of 1938, the partial decrease was ¥29,412,000 less and the decrease by dissolution was ¥116,509,000 less. Thus the net increase in the amount of stocks was ¥1,687,210,000 in the first half of 1939.

The following tables indicate the general trend of industrial expansion in Japan in recent years which is moving from the so-called light to heavy industries including chemical industry:

INDEX NUMBERS OF INDUSTRIAL PRODUCTION

(Compiled by the Department of Commerce and Industry)
(Base—The average of 1931, 1932, 1933=100)

Year	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936	1937	1938
Total average of manufacturing and mining industries	97.2	112.5	127.4	141.0	150.2	169.7	172.0
Average of manufacturing industries	97.3	113.3	129.1	143.3	151.9	172.4	173.6
Cotton yarn	99.5	109.7	122.9	126.0	127.7	140.4	106.7
Law silk	95.9	95.7	99.1	100.9	91.1	102.6	90.9
Silk yarn	105.8	103.2	101.7	97.6	83.1	75.6	68.9
Woolen yarn	99.5	113.3	105.7	108.0	114.0	118.8	98.1
Cotton tissues	97.4	113.1	127.4	131.7	125.0	131.3	97.0
Silk tissues	98.4	109.1	118.3	112.2	88.1	100.9	89.8
Rayon tissues	111.9	113.8	143.3	203.9	294.3	311.6	380.2
Woolen tissunes	101.7	102.7	91.8	101.1	80.6	56.9	44.8
Pig iron	91.7	125.0	151.5	165.2	173.6	119.7	—
Steels	98.5	124.5	156.0	181.9	210.0	248.7	—
Machine and tools	94.9	121.9	159.5	187.7	214.2	252.6	—
Cement	92.3	118.3	118.5	132.1	129.4	143.2	131.0
Sheet glass	90.8	177.4	128.6	134.5	145.9	176.0	130.5
Sulphate of ammonium	102.7	107.0	120.3	144.1	190.4	201.7	219.5
Lime nitrogen	94.3	131.4	117.4	171.6	170.2	242.3	226.8
Superphosphate of lime	101.9	110.8	105.5	125.1	141.6	161.6	126.1
Bleaching powder	92.1	127.6	140.9	161.0	169.8	199.2	183.7
Soda ash	90.7	128.8	163.8	196.5	213.2	229.5	240.7
Caustic soda	96.1	143.9	222.0	287.3	354.6	458.2	593.6
Rayon	95.8	134.5	205.0	299.0	389.5	483.0	297.3
Paper	96.3	106.0	116.9	126.3	134.1	156.3	142.9
Wheat flour	98.1	104.1	101.5	116.5	100.8	97.4	118.5
Sugar	86.8	104.5	100.2	112.9	97.5	100.6	97.4

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Year	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936	1937	1938
Electricity	99.5	113.0	125.4	137.5	150.6	165.7	179.5
Gas	—	—	100.4	104.0	109.8	151.2	132.1
Mining industry							
Average of mining industry	96.3	106.7	115.4	124.1	138.0	169.7	160.1
Gold	97.3	106.5	114.2	140.7	166.6	175.0	—
Silver	94.9	107.8	124.3	147.5	173.8	182.3	—
Copper	99.4	95.9	94.5	97.8	109.4	117.0	—
Sulphur	97.8	132.1	160.4	192.9	225.5	298.5	—
Crude oil	97.6	85.4	90.6	114.9	149.3	152.2	—
Coal	95.6	110.1	121.0	127.9	139.5	149.9	—

INDEX NUMBER OF OPERATIVES AND THEIR ACTUAL EARNINGS

(Compiled by the Bank of Japan)

(Base: 1926=100)

Kind of Industry	1936		1937		1938	
	Number of Operatives	Earnings	Number of Operatives	Earnings	Number of Operatives	Earnings
Raw silk	55.8	64.2	54.5	67.6	53.7	72.0
Spinning	72.9	60.8	77.8	66.4	72.6	69.6
Weaving	79.9	65.5	82.8	69.6	78.9	71.9
Dyeing	122.9	76.2	125.5	78.8	117.1	82.0
Knitting	103.8	65.3	108.2	67.4	104.8	69.7
Machine manufacturing	222.0	91.0	230.8	92.1	422.4	93.6
Shipbuilding	143.0	98.4	187.7	100.7	232.6	104.4
Vehicle manufacturing	125.2	80.0	134.8	82.7	164.9	85.4
Tools manufacturing	171.6	80.6	207.9	82.8	278.4	86.1
Metal works	145.9	95.3	168.6	99.7	204.0	101.2
Ceramics	90.8	81.8	98.5	85.4	99.5	90.6
Paper	89.1	89.5	94.8	94.1	97.2	99.4
Chemicals	147.3	78.7	163.7	81.0	186.6	87.4
Rubber articles	151.0	85.2	156.9	89.6	141.4	89.6
Fertilizers	113.3	95.2	135.0	99.7	158.3	105.9
Foodstuffs	92.8	91.7	97.3	95.2	105.6	99.0
Printing and book-binding	100.8	86.0	102.0	86.5	101.0	89.9
Timber and woodwork	82.6	72.3	82.4	75.9	81.1	82.4

RATE OF PROFIT AND DIVIDEND OF COMPANIES IN 1935-1938

(The Mitsubishi Economic Research Institute Figures)

Kind of Business		1935		1936		1937		1938	
		Profit	Dividend	Profit	Dividend	Profit	Dividend	Profit	Dividend
Ordinary banks	(A)	11.9	6.6	12.1	6.7	12.9	6.7	13.1	6.9
	(B)	11.5	6.6	12.2	6.8	13.0	6.7	—	—
Savings banks	(A)	27.4	7.7	25.6	7.7	22.3	7.6	23.2	7.6
	(B)	28.2	7.7	26.0	8.7	22.1	7.6	—	—
Trust	(A)	17.5	5.6	18.1	5.7	21.7	5.9	18.4	6.3
	(B)	17.6	5.7	18.5	5.7	17.3	6.0	—	—
Bourses	(A)	8.6	6.7	9.2	7.4	13.7	9.8	8.9	6.8
	(B)	10.2	7.7	8.6	7.1	10.3	7.6	—	—
Warehousing	(A)	4.5	2.3	3.6	2.2	1.8	2.4	5.6	2.9
	(B)	4.3	2.4	4.3	2.3	5.0	2.6	—	—
Private railways	(A)	6.8	5.6	7.4	6.1	7.2	6.3	7.2	6.4
	(B)	6.6	5.9	7.5	6.2	7.5	6.3	—	—
Shipping	(A)	9.9	4.0	7.7	4.0	18.0	5.1	16.1	5.8
	(B)	9.3	4.7	9.9	4.1	22.9	5.6	—	—
Transportation	(A)	9.9	6.1	9.8	6.1	12.4	7.7	10.8	6.9
	(B)	9.4	6.1	11.4	6.9	13.4	3.0	—	—

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		1935		1936		1937		1938	
		Profit	Dividend	Profit	Dividend	Profit	Dividend	Profit	Dividend
Foreign trade	(A)	14.7	9.4	11.5	14.3	21.0	12.3	17.2	13.5
	(B)	13.6	9.1	13.3	10.8	16.5	12.6	—	—
Department stores	(A)	12.5	8.7	12.8	8.3	13.1	7.9	13.1	8.3
	(B)	13.0	8.9	14.2	8.2	13.1	8.2	—	—
Silk tissues	(A)	6.3	2.6	6.4	3.4	9.6	6.5	7.8	5.8
	(B)	6.9	3.4	6.9	3.4	6.2	5.6	—	—
Cotton spinning	(A)	22.0	15.5	20.1	14.5	23.0	14.9	19.4	15.1
	(B)	21.3	15.4	19.6	13.9	20.3	14.1	—	—
Cotton tissues	(A)	12.3	8.5	8.9	6.5	12.5	8.4	13.4	8.8
	(B)	10.9	8.1	11.4	6.8	13.4	8.8	—	—
Woolen	(A)	9.0	8.6	15.4	9.6	16.9	11.3	14.0	9.4
	(B)	13.7	9.2	16.4	9.7	13.8	9.4	—	—
Raw silk	(year)	8.1	6.7	6.3	6.3	6.0	4.8	—	—
Hemp	(A)	8.0	6.3	9.6	6.8	12.4	9.2	17.8	9.8
	(B)	10.2	6.9	10.7	7.3	16.1	9.4	—	—
Cement	(A)	10.8	7.6	10.0	7.6	9.4	7.1	8.8	6.9
	(B)	11.3	7.7	8.9	6.7	9.0	6.9	—	—
Bricks	(A)	11.0	6.5	10.8	7.2	12.2	8.3	16.2	9.6
	(B)	11.5	7.1	12.1	8.3	13.3	8.4	—	—
Glass	(A)	29.2	16.8	23.4	17.0	22.9	14.0	22.3	13.9
	(B)	23.2	18.3	19.6	13.7	21.2	14.0	—	—
Medicine	(A)	18.6	8.8	19.9	10.3	21.7	9.7	18.4	9.8
	(B)	19.1	8.7	18.7	3.7	18.2	8.8	—	—
Industrial Chemical	(A)	16.4	9.9	12.1	8.9	12.6	8.1	1.47	10.0
	(B)	15.6	10.0	10.2	7.1	13.5	9.9	—	—
Dyestuff	(A)	30.9	11.8	23.8	12.6	28.1	12.3	21.4	10.5
	(B)	23.1	10.8	24.9	12.0	20.9	12.0	—	—
Paint	(A)	10.5	6.9	13.3	8.2	15.6	8.4	16.7	8.4
	(B)	13.0	7.9	16.7	10.3	15.6	10.6	—	—
Oils	(A)	11.9	7.6	13.8	9.7	21.0	16.6	12.5	9.4
	(B)	12.5	8.0	14.6	8.6	14.0	9.3	—	—
Rayon yarn	(A)	19.1	14.5	14.1	11.5	15.6	11.0	13.8	11.0
	(B)	17.2	14.4	14.9	11.0	14.4	10.5	—	—
Paper	(A)	15.2	9.4	12.4	8.9	16.6	9.8	15.1	9.8
	(B)	16.6	9.4	14.7	9.5	15.3	9.6	—	—
Fertilizer	(A)	10.1	7.8	13.4	9.5	11 7	8.3	13.4	9.8
	(B)	12.6	6.7	12.8	9.2	12.8	9.6	—	—
Other chemical industries	(A)	15.9	8.3	17.3	9.4	20.9	10.1	18.4	11.1
	(B)	15.9	8.7	14.7	9.5	16.5	9.8	—	—
Electric machinery	(A)	20.1	9.8	20.1	9.8	18.1	9.5	19.6	10.5
	(B)	21.4	11.8	20.6	11.5	19.7	11.8	—	—
Shipbuilding	(A)	6.9	4.6	10.1	5.5	12.2	6.0	13.2	7.1
	(B)	8.4	5.3	11.0	6.1	10.2	5.8	—	—
Rolling stock	(A)	15.1	8.4	17.0	9.4	14.8	9.0	18.3	8.4
	(B)	19.9	11.7	18.0	9.3	17.6	10.3	—	—
Other machine manufacturing	(A)	18.5	8.8	25.0	10.5	18.4	10.5	16.4	8.6
	(B)	19.1	9.2	17.6	9.7	18.0	9.2	—	—
Steel	(A)	19.7	7.0	15.9	7.8	20.0	7.7	23.9	7.7
	(B)	15.9	7.0	15.9	7.5	21.8	7.6	—	—
Other metalic industries	(A)	20.9	10.0	18.1	9.2	17.7	8.7	16.3	8.7
	(B)	16.9	8.5	19.7	10.0	16.4	8.9	—	—
Beer	(A)	18.7	11.3	20.4	11.5	21.1	11.5	18.7	11.5
	(B)	18.0	11.3	19.6	11.5	19.3	11.5	—	—
Sugar	(A)	18.6	9.0	24.6	10.9	26.7	10.9	23.5	11.2
	(B)	20.8	10.3	26.2	11.2	28.0	11.2	—	—
Wheat flour	(A)	16.7	10.1	15.9	10.2	14.9	9.4	14.1	9.9
	(B)	18.8	10.6	15.9	11.1	12.8	9.5	—	—
Bread and confectionaries	(A)	10.6	6.6	13.2	6.6	14.0	6.7	15.3	7.8
	(B)	13.1	7.7	12.8	6.7	15.1	7.3	—	—

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		1935		1936		1937		1938	
		Profit	Dividend	Profit	Dividend	Profit	Dividend	Profit	Dividend
Mining	(A)	16.9	10.5	16.3	10.5	16.3	10.2	19.2	11.4
	(B)	16.2	10.7	15.9	9.8	17.5	11.4	—	—
Petroleum	(A)	5.1	4.0	11.2	6.8	15.9	9.6	15.9	7.2
	(B)	7.8	4.9	12.6	7.7	16.4	7.9	—	—
Gas	(A)	9.9	8.8	10.3	9.0	10.1	8.8	10.3	8.9
	(B)	9.8	9.0	10.3	3.8	10.1	8.9	—	—
Electric power	(A)	6.8	5.7	9.2	7.4	8.7	7.5	8.5	7.6
	(B)	8.0	6.8	8.8	7.3	8.3	7.3	—	—
Lumber	(A)	6.4	4.8	5.2	4.2	9.3	5.9	13.4	7.2
	(B)	5.9	4.7	5.7	4.2	10.2	6.1	—	—
Fisheries	(A)	21.9	12.7	15.2	11.0	15.5	11.1	14.4	11.2
	(B)	16.4	11.2	14.1	10.4	13.7	10.6	—	—
Land and building	(A)	2.7	2.5	3.4	2.5	5.0	3.4	3.9	3.2
	(B)	3.3	2.6	3.9	2.8	4.0	3.0	—	—
Gum plantation	(A)	7.9	5.8	7.3	5.3	15.1	10.5	7.0	5.6
	(B)	5.5	5.6	8.8	6.6	12.3	8.9	—	—
Life insurance	(year)	83.2	20.2	76.2	18.4	38.4	23.2	—	—
Insurances for damages	(year)	24.2	14.8	25.6	14.5	23.2	26.0	—	—

Note: (A) denotes a half-year period, from March to August, (B) the other half, from September to February of the following year. Profit rate means the rate of net profit against paid-up capital. These figures are obtained by averaging several representative companies for each kind of industry.

Wartime Economic Legislation

The following is an outline of the various laws enacted with a view to facilitating the necessary expansion of the productive capacity of the munitions industry :

Temporary Fund Adjustment Law This law was promulgated on September 10, 1937, as Law No. 86 and was enacted for the purpose of checking the absorption of commodities and funds by peacetime industries so as to make them available for industries directly connected with the national defence. This law deals with : (1) the adjustment of industrial funds ; (2) the extension of the issue limit of the debentures of the Industrial Bank of Japan ; (3) the issuance of savings debentures ; and (4) the investigation of banking matters.

The adjustment of industrial funds is to be effected in regard to the management of enterprises as well as of banking organs. Six ways of adjustment have been specified, namely, (1) the advancing of loans for the creation, expansion and improvement of industrial facilities, (2) the subscription and underwriting of securities and handling of affairs concerning the issuance of securities, (3) establishment of companies, increase of capitalization and amalgamation of companies or making the required changes in the objects of companies, (4) the collection of the second and later instalment payments on capital shares, (5) the creation, expansion or improvement of industrial facilities beyond the limit prescribed by decree, without resorting to the means of collecting payments on capital shares or issuing debentures for obtaining loans from banking organs, and (6) the issuance of debentures without causing others to underwrite the debentures or handle affairs concerning their issuance. In view of the requirements of the current situation, preferential right to obtain funds is given to those enterprises which are either directly connected with munitions production, or of basic importance to munitions industry and are short of industrial facilities at present or likely to be short of such facilities in the near future. At the same time, almost prohibitive restrictions are placed on the demand for funds in the case of enterprises which have a surplus productive capacity or which are engaged in the manufacture of luxury goods or such articles as are not in great demand among the general public on account of the prevailing situation.

The extension of the issue limit of industrial debentures is aimed at enabling the Industrial Bank of Japan to issue debentures to the extent of ¥1,000,000,000 instead of ¥500,000,000 as heretofore. This measure together with the provision of the said law for

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the recognitions of exceptions in regard to capital increase and debenture issues of industrial companies connected with the urgent requirements of the current situation are the principal steps aimed at facilitating the supply of industrial funds for enterprises connected with munitions industry. In this connection, mention may be made of the fact that the Bank of Japan is also called upon to extend financial assistance in the promotion of the munitions enterprises.

The issuance of savings debentures is intended to absorb the smaller amounts of funds held by the general public as a means of promoting the digestion of Government bonds and to encourage the public to save their earnings. According to this provision of the law, the Hypothec Bank is able to issue savings debentures to the extent of ¥200,000,000.

Detailed regulations for the enforcement of the temporary fund adjustment law were promulgated on September 25, 1937, together with the ordinance concerning the enforcement of the law. Accordingly, all the provisions were put into effect as from September 27 of the same year.

Automobile Manufacturing Industry Law It was considered necessary to develop the automobile manufacturing industry in this country in order to facilitate and perfect the national defence and the industrial advancement of the nation. Hence the automobile industry law. Through the enactment of this law, the licensing system was enforced for the automobile manufacturing enterprises and were exempted from the income tax, the business profit tax and the import duty. The law also provides that the importation of automobiles or parts thereof may be restricted or subjected to the imposition of a special duty, when such measures are deemed necessary from the standpoint of promoting the domestic automobile manufacturing industry. The enforcement of the law dates back to July 11, 1936.

Temporary Law Concerning Restriction of Movements of Horses This law aims at facilitating the commandeering of necessary horses in connection with the China incident by putting restrictions on the movements of horses from those cities, towns and villages which are included in the plans for such commandeering to other places. It was promulgated on September 10, 1937.

Temporary Shipping Control Law Promulgated on September 10, 1937, this law aims at the general and rational management of shipping in order to facilitate the smooth transportation of commodities in connection with the China incident. It enforces a licensing system for the transfer, chartering and mortgaging of Japanese vessels, authorizes the importation of foreign vessels, controls lines and freight rates and makes stipulations in regard to the manufacture of vessels and seamen. The enforcement of this law started from September 29 of the same year.

Japan Iron Manufacturing Joint Stock Company Law This law was promulgated on April 6, 1933, with the object of consolidating the foundation of the iron industry in this country. It provides for the organization of the Japan Iron Manufacturing Joint Stock Company as a semi-governmental concern and contains regulations pertaining to the control of the Company.

Iron Manufacturing Industry Law This legislation aims at the development of the iron industry and the strengthening of the foundation of the heavy industry of the country, thus contributing to the national defence and the industrial expansion of the country. It enforces the licensing system for the iron industry and empowers the Government to grant privileges including exemption from taxes to enterprises connected with the iron industry on the one hand and, on the other hand, enables the Government to strengthen its control over the production and sale of iron and steel and restrict the exportation or importation of the metal when such is deemed necessary. The law was promulgated on August 13, 1937, and has been in force since September 22 of the same year.

Petroleum Industry Law The enforcement of the licensing system for oil-refining enterprises and oil import business is the principal aim of this legislation. It enables the Government to strengthen its control over the said enterprises and business and provides that persons who are engaged in refining oil or importing oil shall store a specified amount of oil (enough to last for six months, calculated on the basis of the annual amount of imports). Promulgated on March 28, 1934, the law has been in force since July 1 of the same year.

Artificial Petroleum Industry Law This law aims at the establishment of the artificial petroleum industry as a means of securing the supply of liquid fuel. It requires persons who are

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about to engage themselves in the industry to obtain the permission of the Government and provides that the Government grant a subsidy and other privileges such as exemption from taxes, if necessary, in regard to the industry. At the same time, the law stipulates that enterprises connected with the artificial petroleum industry shall be placed under the direction and control of the Government. The law was promulgated on August 10, 1937.

Imperial Fuel Industrial Joint Stock Company Law This legislation is connected with the afore-mentioned artificial petroleum law. It provides for the organization of the Imperial Fuel Industrial Joint Stock Company with a capital of ¥100,000,000 shared by the Government and civilian circles and empowers the semi-governmental concern to take charge of the management of the artificial petroleum industry with a view to its promotion. The law was promulgated on August 10, 1937.

Alcohol Monopoly Law This law aims at the manufacture and sale of alcohol by the Government with a view to ensuring an abundant supply of alcohol to be mixed with volatile oil in conformity with the national fuel policy. It also makes alcohol used for industrial and other purposes a Government monopoly. Promulgated on March 31, 1937, the law has been in force since April 1 of the same year.

Law Pertaining to Mixing of Volatile Oil with Alcohol. This legislation created the system of mixing alcohol with volatile oil and aims at economization in the consumption of volatile oil and is also calculated to facilitate the nation to attain self-sufficiency in liquid fuel. It was promulgated on April 1, 1937.

Regulations Concerning Permission for Iron and Steel Works These regulations are contained in the Ordinance No. 24 of the Ministry of Commerce and Industry which was issued on October 11, 1937. Aimed at economizing the general consumption of iron and steel, this ordinance makes the permission of prefectural governors necessary for erecting structures using more than 50 tons of iron and steel. Prepared on the basis of the provisions of Article 2 of the Export and Import Temporary Disposition Law, these regulations were enforced as from October 20, 1937.

Regulations Concerning Restrictions in the Use of Copper. These regulations require the permission of prefectural governors for the use of more than 100 kilogrammes of copper in one building and were enforced as from November 10, 1937. Aimed at economization in the consumption of copper in view of the impotance of this metal for national defence, these regulations were embodied in Ordinance No. 28 of the Ministry of Commerce and Industry which was enacted on November 6, 1937, on the basis of the provisions of Article 2 of the Export and Import Temporary Disposition Law referred to above.

Resources Investigation Law This law was promulgated on April 12, 1929, and has been in force since December 1 of the same year. It was enacted with the object of investigating exact extent of the resources of the nation on a comprehensive scale, inasmuch as the investigations and reports coming within the scope of the Munitions Industry Mobilization Law are confined to resources and raw materials directly connected with munitions production. By means of this new legislation, the Government is able to make extensive investigations through the various Ministries as to the exact extent of the man-power and material resources which the nation can command in time of emergency, the information thus obtained being arranged and co-ordinated by the Resources Bureau, and made available in devising ways and means of supplying the shortage of resources in time of war.

Taxation Laws With reference to the taxation increase effected to raise war funds, it may be noted here that a total sum of ¥269,500,000 was calculated as obtainable during the 1937–38 fiscal year through the operation of the following five laws which were all promulgated on March 30, 1937 :

1. Temporary Taxation Increase Law ;
2. Law Pertaining to Capital Tax on Juridical Persons ;
3. Law Pertaining to Special Tax on Foreign Currency Bonds ;
4. Volatile Oil Tax Law ;
5. Law Pertaining to Tax on Transfer of Securities.

North China Incident Special Tax Law Promulgated and enforced on August 12, 1937, this law was enacted as a temporary measure to be in effect only for one year. It imposes a special tax on income, a special tax on extraordinary profits, a special tax on dividends, a special tax on bonds and debentures, and a special tax on commodities, all of which are estimated to yield a sum of ¥66,500,000 during the 1937–38 fiscal year and ¥34,900,000 during the 1938–39 fiscal year.

The operations to facilitate the diges-

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tion of Government bonds are still centered on the control of industrial funds and mobilization of banking organs and as yet no legislative measures making the possession of Government bonds compulsory have been taken. The Temporary Fund Adjustment Law, as already referred-to, aims at facilitating the expansion of munitions industry by turning industrial funds toward enterprises directly connected with the national defence, while enabling the banking organs to have more money on hand for the digestion of Government bonds by restraining the demand of non-urgent enterprises for funds.

Among the various measures taken to mobilize the banking organs are the following :

a. Mobilization of the Bank of Japan : Lowering of the rate for advances on security of Government bonds from 1 sen to 9 rin for the purpose of facilitating the possession of Government bonds by the ordinary banks. Moreover, the Bank of Japan is called upon to purchase Government bonds from the member banks of the National Loans Underwriting Syndicate and other banks in case of necessity ;

b. Mobilization of special banks : Operation of the Deposits Bureau through the Industrial Bank of Japan, in addition to calling upon the Yokohama Specie Bank to refrain from absorbing call money from the ordinary banks so that the short money market may be eased.

c. Mobilization of ordinary banks and other banking organs : The removal of the need for incident bonds to be underwritten by the Bank of Japan as heretofore and the causing of the the Bank of Japan to negotiate with the National Loans Underwriting Syndicate for an increase in the amount of incident bonds underwritten by the latter and to negotiate with banks which are not members of the said syndicate, trust companies, insurance companies, and the Central Chest for Cooperative Associations for similar purposes.

The Government, on its part, adopted a policy of hastening payments as a means of facilitating an easy money market. Other measures adopted by the Government include the operation of the gold fund special accounts, operation of the Deposits Bureau and mobilization of the postal insurance special accounts for the digestion of incident bonds.

With reference to the general public, great encouragement has been given to savings and economization of consumption. Government bonds are being sold through post offices with a view to mobilizing the small amounts of funds in the hands of the general public, and popularizing the incident bonds.

The Munitions Industry Mobilization Law This law provides that the Government may, in time of war, press the labour of the people into service in the production of munitions but the nation has not yet reached a stage where it would require the application of the provisions of the mobilization law. Nevertheless, the shortage of labour, especially skilled labour, has come to be felt keenly as the expansion of the productive capacity of the nation has made progress. The China incident has intensified this need since it has given a further impetus to the expansion of the productive capacity and necessitated the calling up of a large part of labour to be pressed into service at the battle front.

In order to cope with the situation, the authorities of the Government have already taken steps to train technicians. A total sum of ¥2,020,000 was included in the additional budget for the 1937-38 fiscal year as expenses for various undertakings of the Ministry of Commerce and Industry, the Ministry of Education and the Ministry of Finnce in this connection.

The plan worked out by the Ministry of Commerce and Industry called for the creation of three State-managed institutions in Tokyo, Nagoya and Osaka to train mechanics to be assisted by 20 civilian organizations. It was calculated that through this means a total of 2,000 mechanics would be trained annually. Further, a total of 200 workers for gold mines and 400 workers for coal mines are to be trained annually at the hands of civilian organizations commissioned to perform the task by the Government.

The Ministry of Education worked out a plan calling for the training of 2,000 technicians during the latter half of the 1937-38 fiscal year in the technical schools under the management of the Government and public institutes as well as a certain number of assistant instructors and 150 high-grade seamen to be trained within 6 months.

A brief explanation of the various laws connected with the endeavours of the Government to check an evil inflation is given below :

Export and Import Temporary Disposition Law This law empowers the Government to restrict or prohibit the

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export or import of specified articles in case of necessity. In case of special need, the Government is also empowered to issue necessary orders limiting or withholding the distribution, transfer, use or consumption of commodities which require to be adjusted in regard to their demand-supply relations and to issue necessary orders limiting or restraining the manufacture of articles using the aforementioned commodities as raw material. Other provisions of the law concern the issuance of orders by the Government for the presentation of reports on necessary matters and the punishment of those who have violated the law. Promulgated on September 10, 1937, this law is scheduled to be abolished within one year of the termination of the China incident.

Gold Production Law This legislation changed the system of empowering the Bank of Japan to purchase gold. Under the new rule, the Government is to purchase gold through the medium of the Bank of Japan. The law also provides for necessary matters concerning the promotion and control of the gold mining industry. It was promulgated on August 11, 1937, and enforced as from August 25 of the same year. On the basis of this law, the Ministry of Finance enacted regulations concerning the use of gold, which put a ban on the use of fine gold over 9 carats for decorative purposes. Apart from this law, the Ministry of Commerce and Industry has enacted regulations intended to encourage the production of gold.

Gold Reserve Appraisal Law and Gold Fund Special Account Law. The enactment of the appraisal law aimed at the revaluation of the gold reserves of the Bank of Japan at the rate of ¥12.93 per one momme (The original rate was ¥5 per one momme). The gold reserves of the Bank of Taiwan and the Bank of Chosen were also revalued in accordance with the provisions of the law. The special account law concerns the creation of a special account with the margin of profits accruing from the revaluation. The special account is to be operated within the limits of the budget to the extent of ¥50,000,000 for promoting the production of gold, facilitating the adjustment of foreign exchange relations and smoothing the digestion of Government bonds. Both laws came into force as from August 25, 1937.

Revision of the Foreign Exchange Control Law Law No. 81 of 1937 and Law No. 87 of 1937 were enacted by way of revising the Foreign Exchange Control Law. This revision of the foreign exchange control law was effected successively with the approval of the 71st session and the 72nd session of the Imperial Diet. The first revision inaugurated the control over imports without exchange bills while the second strengthened the control over funds held abroad. The ordinance of the Ministry of Finance issued on January 8, 1937, in regard to the import exchange licensing system was revised by another ordinance of July 7 which lowered the exemption point from ¥30,000 a month to ¥1,000 a month. This exemption point was again lowered to ¥100 a month by the ordinance of the Finance Minister which was issued on December 11, 1937, and enforced as from the same day.

Anti-Profiteering Regulations These regulations were enacted through the issuance of an ordinance of the Ministry of Commerce and Industry on August 3, 1937, which revised the previous Ordinance No. 10 of the Ministry of Agriculture and Commerce issued in 1917. Under the old ordinance, the antiprofiteering regulations concerned only 8 kinds of commodities but the number was increased to 26 under the new rule. According to the ordinance, either the Minister of Commerce and Industry or the prefectural governors are to issue warning against cornering for excessive profits or anticipating excessive profits by withholding the sale of goods. They are also to impose conditions on dealings in certain specified articles. Other provisions of the regulations refer to the making of reports on necessary matters and the punishment of those who have violated the regulations. Eight other commodities including timber were added to the list through another revision of the regulations effected on October 26, 1937.

There had been precedences for the fixing of official prices as in the case of petroleum on the basis of the Petroleum Industry Law, fertilizers on the basis of the Fertilizer Industry Law and cement on the basis of the Key Industries Control Law. The scope of such system was enlarged as a result of the outbreak of the China incident and such commodities as raw cotton, cotton yarn, cotton cloth, staple fibre and rubber which all come under the Export and Import Temporary Disposition Law were subjected to the fixing of official prices.

Control of Consumption. The policy of controlling consumption, especially

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encouraging the economization of consumption, is aimed at the balancing of international accounts and the adjustment of the demand-supply relations in regard to commodities closely connected with national defence, in addition to restraining the rising tendency of commodity prices. The campaign for economization of consumption took on the shape of an appeal to the spirit of thrift among the general public and was made more effective by the imposition of increased taxes. The restriction of the importation of raw materials through the invocation of the trade control law constitutes a more direct measure of control over consumption.

Among other legislative measures of control over consumption may be mentioned the regulations concerning the mixing of staple fibre with woolen yarn and the regulations concerning the mixing of staple fibre with cotton yarn. Along with iron, copper and gold, paper is also subject to economization, the control being enforced through the manufacturing company which is monopolizing the paper industry in Japan.

Supply of Daily Necessities. Although Japan is generally self-supplied and self-sufficient in the daily necessities of her people, serious considerations had to be given to measures to prevent the decline of the productive capacity of the agricultural community which was feared on account of the decrease in farm labour brought about by the conscription. The Ministries of War, Navy, Agriculture and Forestry, Commerce and Industry, and Home Affairs have already commenced making efforts to replenish farm labour through the operation of an Agricultural Labour Replenishment Commission. The Emergency Rice Disposition Law and the Temporary Fertilizer Distribution Control Law, both passed by the 72nd session of the Imperial Diet, also aim at securing the necessary supply of provisions.

Emergency Rice Disposition Law This law, promulgated on September 10, 1937, makes reserve stocks of rice available for military consumption in connection with the China incident. It also authorizes the Government to purchase rice in accordance with the provisions of Imperial ordinance when the need arises to hold specified quantities of rice.

Temporary Fertilizer Distribution Control Law This legislation is also connected with the China incident. It authorizes the Government to make adequate dispositions in regard to the demand for, and supply of fertilizers and to regulate their prices as well as entrust their production to responsible persons. The Government is also empowered to issue necessary orders concerning the sale, use, consumption, movement, export or import of fertilizers. The law was promulgated on September 10, 1937.

Social Policy With a view to preventing the occurrence of labour disputes in this emergency period, an appeal has been made to labour organizations to cooperate in tiding over the national crisis and a ban has been proclaimed on the activities of the "Popular Front" movement. The General Federation of Labour already announced its intention of abandoning the tactics of strike in the autumn of 1937. The newly created Ministry of Welfare is now in charge of establishing and maintaining a social policy with a view to consolidating the "home front."

General Mobilization Law The wartime economic system was gradually strengthened in connection with the China incident. On February 19, 1938, the Government presented a bill providing for a law pertaining to the general mobilization of the national resources to the 73rd session of the Imperial Diet. The House of Peers gave its approval to the bill on March 24, following the example of the House of Representatives and the epoch-making legislation thus passed through the Imperial Diet without amendment.

The general mobilization law aims at the most effective display of both the man-power and material resources of the nation in time of war or during an incident of warlike nature by requiring the perfection of all necessary preparations in time of peace. It incorporates the Munitions Industry Mobilization Law as already referred-to and all the temporary legislations which were made one after another in connection with the China incident and also includes all necessary provisions concerning the perfection of the general mobilization system.

The principal feature of this legislation is to be found in the fact that it invests the Government with an extremely wide scope of powers in regard to the operation of the general mobilization system, on the ground that the conditions of war are ever-changing and cannot be exactly anticipated. The discussion of the mobilization bill at the Diet meetings was also centered

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on the wide-scope authorization and arguments were advanced from the standpoint of Article 31 of the Constitution concerning the extraodinary prerogative in relations to the restriction of the rights and liberty of the people.

The general mobilization law is composed of 50 articles. Article 1 gives the definition of the general mobilization of the national resources while Article 2 stipulates in regard to the mobilization of commodities and Article 3 concerns the mobilization of enterprises. Articles 4 to 20 contain wartime provisions in regard to dispositions concerning labour, commodities, funds, establishments, land, facilities, industries, prices and publications. Articles 21 to 26 stipulate in regard to the general mobilization preparations both in time of war and in time of peace concerning the training of technicians, the maintenance of commodities, the establishment of plans and drills, experiments and researches and the encouragement of enterprises. Articles 27 to 30 concern compensation and grants while Articles 32 to 49 contain penal regulations and Article 50 provides for the organization of the general mobilization council.

With reference to the central organ for the operation of the general mobilization system, the Government announced the following three points as a result of various interpellations made in the course of the 73rd session of the Imperial Diet :

1. The Cabinet is the central supervising organ for the operation of the general mobiliztion law, the Prime Minister assuming the responsibility for the supervision and the Planning Board taking charge of the adjustment and unification of the general mobilization of the national resources under the direction of the Prime Minister.

2. The execution of the various matters are left in the charge of the various sections of the Government in accordance with the provisions of official regulations, the various State Ministers assuming the responsibilities for the matters coming within their jurisdiction.

3. According to the scale of war, necessary organs are to be created or expanded.

Laws Promulgated in 1938 and 1939

Laws promulgated and put into force during 1938 and the early part of 1939 are given with respective subjects concerned in other chapters.

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CHAPTER XI

FOREIGN TRADE

Japan's foreign trade for the last 70 years can be divided into five periods, the first, before the Sino-Japanese War; the second, after the Sino-Japanese War to the outbreak of the Russo-Japanese War; the third, after the Russo-Japanese War to the outbreak of the World War; the fourth, the period following the World War and the fifth, the period after 1937. (For further historical explanations see the Japan Year Book, 1937, pp. 409, 410).

Foreign Trade in 1937

Foreign trade, excluding that of Chosen, Taiwan, and Nanyo, reached during 1937 a total value of ¥6,958,595,000, being made up of ¥3,175,418,000 of exports and ¥3,783,177,000 of imports. These figures, which are all the highest on record, show an increase of ¥482,442,000 or 17.9% in exports, of ¥1,019,496,000 or 36.9% in imports, and of ¥1,501,938,000 or 27.5% in the total value over the figures for the preceding year. While in 1936 the import excess remained at ¥70,705,000, it rose sharply to ¥607,759,000 in 1937, this being second only to ¥646,367,000 of 1924, the year immediately following the Great Earthquake in the Kanto districts. From an examination of this phenomenon, it will be found that the diversion of the economic structure of the country to a war-time basis arising out of the outbreak of the China incident in July, 1937, was one of the main factors contributing to the rapid growth of the import surplus, preventing the course of our foreign trade from turning to a favourable balance even at a time when, in ordinary circumstances, an export season sets in. Thus, the import excess had reached 760 million yen by the early part of September. The introduction of much stricter exchange restrictions and other measures of control, however, caused it to decline at the year-end by 150 million yen as compared with the early part of September. It would appear that the import excess in 1937 is enormous in value, but when its ratio to the total trade value is compared, it may be remarked that it is not so large. In 1905 (the Russo-Japanese War) and 1924 (the year after the Great Earthquake), the ratio of the import excess to the total trade value was 20.6% and 15.2% respectively, whereas in 1937, it was only 8.7%. In a situation under which the expansion of industrial productive capacity and the adjustment of and demand for goods were urgently needed, the appearance of such unfavourable balance of trade seems to have been inevitable.

Exports and imports of merchandise during 1937, excluding those of Chosen, Taiwan, and Nanyo, were as follows:

(In thousands of yen)

	1937	1936	Increase over 1936
Exports	3,175,418	2,692,976	482.442
Imports	3,783,177	2,763,681	1,019,496
Total	6,958,595	5,456,657	1,501,938
Excess of Imports	607,759	70,705	

Export Trade Although the rate of expansion in the export trade slowed down somewhat in the second six months of 1937, remarkable progress made in the first six months caused the value for the whole year to be raised by 17.9% as compared with the preceding year. Of the principal articles of export, those which declined in value were only vegetable oil, marine products, and refined sugar, these decreasing by 33.3%, 1.4%, and 11.4% respectively. All other articles, however, increased, and the greater increases were found in machinery and parts thereof (33.9%), cotton yarns (43.2%), iron manufactures (34.3%), rayon yarns (53.4%), paper (40.5%), wood (43.4%), wheat flour (76.5%), tea (76.5%), fish and whale oil (51.4%), and copper (53.3%). Turning to the value of the principal articles, it is to be noted that raw silk increased from ¥392,809,000 of the preceding year to ¥407,118,000 in 1937, rayon tissues from ¥149,170,000 to ¥154,860,000, and machinery and parts thereof from ¥82,054,000 to ¥109,881,000. In 1936, the exports of cotton tissues, silk tissues, and knitted goods declined in value, while in 1937 they showed increases of ¥89,474,000, ¥4,259,000, and ¥10,724,000 respectively. It may specially be noted that cotton tissues still head-

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ed the list of exports, reaching ¥573,065,000. Vegetable oil, however, decreased from ¥35,496,000 to ¥23,662,000, marine products from ¥22,216,000 to ¥21,916,000 and refined sugar from ¥20,977,000 to ¥18,577,000. Speaking geographically, exports to all continents indicated increases, and those to Asia, Central America, South America, and Africa showed increases of more than 20%.

The principal exports are given below:

(In thousands of yen)

Articles	1937	1936	Ratio to Exports of 1936
Cotton tissues	573,065	483,591	118.5%
Raw silk	407,118	392,809	103.6
Rayon tissues	154,860	149,170	103.8
Machinery and parts thereof	109,881	82,054	133.9
Comestibles in tin and bottle	86,905	71,077	122.3
Silk tissues	72,286	68,027	106.3
Knitted goods	60,713	49,988	121.5
Cotton yarns	54,906	38,345	143.2
Iron manufactures	54,116	40,302	134.3
Potteries	53,971	43,548	123.9
Woollen tissues	50,082	45,956	109.0
Rayon yarns	44,803	29,173	153.6
Toys	42,295	36,459	116.0
Paper	38,708	27,545	140.5
Wood	35,412	24,703	143.4
Glass and manufactures	33,572	25,627	131.0
Wheat flour	30,746	17,622	174.5
Hats, caps and bonnets	26,337	19,736	133.4
Vegetable oil	23,662	35,496	66.7
Tea	23,181	13,130	176.5
Lamps and parts thereof	21,950	18,587	118.1
Marine products	21,916	22,216	98.6
Refined sugar	18,577	20,977	88.6
Articles for personal adornment	15,535	11,853	131.1
Fish and whale oil	15,414	10,180	151.4
Copper	15,105	9,852	153.3
Buttons	13,737	11,635	118.1

EXPORTS CLASSIFIED BY CONTINENTS (In thousands of yen)

Continents	1937 Value	1937 Ratio to Total Exports	1936 Value	1936 Ratio to Total Exports	Ratio to Exports of 1936
Asia	1,645,915	51.8%	1,370,970	50.9%	120.0%
Europe	356,299	11.2	307,718	11.4	115.8
North America	659,601	20.8	608,857	22.6	108.3
Central America	54,885	1.7	41,241	1.5	133.1
South America	109,519	3.5	68,761	2.6	159.3
Africa	242,736	7.6	197,703	7.3	122.8
Oceania	106,463	3.4	97,727	3.6	108.9
Total	3,175,418	100.0	2,690,976	100.0	

Import Trade Of the principal articles of import, those which declined in value below the figures for the preceding year were oil yielding materials, wheat, crude sulphate of ammonium, and sugar, their rate of decrease being 2.8%, 12%, 40.5% and 10.1% respectively. All other articles, however, showed increases, and the total value of imports indicated an increase of 36.9% over the preceding year. In particular, gum and gum resins, wool, pulp for paper making, leather, phosphorite, synthetic colour showed greater increases, the rate of increase being 136%, 148.5%, 173.9%, 182.8%, 137.6% and 148.4% respectively. With respect to the value of the principal articles, it will be found that cotton in the seed and cotton ginned still headed the list of imports, their value remaining in 1937 at nearly the same as in the preceding year. Wool in-

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creased from ¥200,898,000 of the preceding year to ¥298,404,000 in 1937, pulp for paper making from ¥67,107,000 to ¥116,720,000, and gum and gum resins from ¥72,957,000 to ¥99,218,000. Oil yielding materials, however, decreased from ¥44,873,000 to ¥43,612,000, wheat from ¥33,651,000 to ¥29,604,000, crude sulphate of ammonium from ¥33,930,000 to ¥20,191,000, and sugar from ¥20,928,000 to ¥18,806,000. As regards the imports from continents, it is to be noted that all, except Central America, showed increases over the preceding year, and especially those from Africa, Europe, North America and South America increased substantially, reaching 190.8%, 152.7%, 149.3%, and 144.9% of the preceding year.

The principal imports are given below:

Articles	(In thousands of yen) 1937	1936	Ratio to Imports of 1936
Cotton in the seed and cotton ginned	851,163	850,452	100.1%
Wool	298,404	200,898	148.5
Pulp for paper making	116,720	67,107	173.9
Gum and gum resins	99,218	72,957	136.0
Beans and peas	92,547	82,601	112.0
Wood	64,817	55,548	116.7
Coal	51,224	51,056	116.0
Oil cake	45,310	35,790	126.6
Leather	44,571	24,386	182.8
Oil yielding materials	43,612	44,873	97.2
Hemp, jute and other vegetable fibres	40,995	37,301	109.9
Posphorite	30,810	22,393	137.6
Wheat	29,604	33,651	88.0
Crude sulphate of ammonium	20,191	33,930	59.5
Sugar	18,806	20,928	89.9
Synthetic colour	16,928	11,404	148.4

IMPORTS CLASSIFIED BY CONTINENTS (In thousands of yen)

Continents	1937 Value	1937 Ratio to Total Imports	1936 Value	1936 Ratio to Total Imports	Ratio to Imports of 1936
Asia	1,295,114	34.2%	1,060,189	38.4%	122.2%
Europe	504,001	13.3	330,123	11.9	152.7
North America	1,374,252	36.3	920,747	33.3	149.3
Central America	18,765	0.5	21,791	0.8	86.1
South America	162,611	4.3	112,190	4.1	144.9
Africa	206,305	5.5	108,143	3.9	190.8
Oceania	222,129	5.9	210,498	7.6	105.5
Total	3,783,177	100.0	2,763,681	100.0	136.9

Foreign Trade in 1938

Japan's foreign trade in 1938, including that of Japan Proper and Karafuto or Southern Saghalien, showed an export excess of 26 million yen. This represents a remarkable improvement over the similar total trade figure for the corresponding period of 1936 and of 1937 when the import excess rose to huge proportions. In 1938, the volume of foreign trade declined from the beginning of the year to July, causing serious apprehension among observers. However, after July it showed improvement.

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Yet, the improvement in the trade balance is not a positive one brought about by increased exports, but rather is a negative one effected by decreased imports. This may be seen from the grand totals which were 2,689 million yen for exports and 2,663 million yen —a decrease of 15.3 per cent for exports and 29.5 per cent for imports in comparison with the preceding year. The trade balance improvement was due to the fact that imports fell off in larger measure than exports.

Foreign trade in 1938 was characterized by several peculiar features. First, her trade with the Kwantung Leased Territory, Manchoukuo and China, which is classified as trade within the Yen bloc, continued to rise despite the general downward trend of her foreign trade. In other words, whereas the exports destined for third Powers fell off seriously, those for the Kwantung Leased Territory, Manchoukuo and China rose favourably from the beginning of the year, totalling 1,165 million yen, an increase of 374 million yen or 47.2 per cent over the corresponding figures of the preceding year. In imports, trade within the Yen bloc totalled 564 million yen, showing an increase of 28.8 per cent over the similar figures for the preceding year. Moreover, the exports to these regions rose so rapidly that the export excess for the period under review showed an increase of more than 70 per cent.

Responsible factors for this favourable trend in the export trade, coming as it did after the remarkable decline witnessed after the beginning of the China Affair in July, 1937, are the increased demand for materials of production needed in 1938 for Manchoukuo's 5-year industrial development plan and the special demands to meet various needs for construction, peace preservation and military operations in China. These factors have been interwoven with speculative demands arising from anticipation of further consolidation in various control policies in Japan.

Secondly, Japan's foreign trade in 1938 was marked by a decline in transactions with the so-called third Powers, those outside of the Kwantung Leased Territory, Manchoukuo and China. That the trade with these Powers should have been extremely unfavourable is an obvious corollary to the increase in trade within the Yen bloc, inasmuch as foreign trade as a whole declined. Japan's trade with third Powers for 1938 totalled 1,524 million yen in exports and 2,099 million yen in imports, showing decreases of about 36 per cent and 37.2 per cent respectively and leaving an import excess of 575 million yen.

Thirdly, various changes were witnessed in regard to the relative proportions of different goods imported. Government control of foreign exchange and imports was strengthened after 1937 in order to make completely effective use of the capital available in view of the prevailing situation wherein the importation of war supplies and other materials needed to meet immediate requirements had to be precipitated and the importation of civilian supplies for consumption within the country and of materials for the manufacture of goods for export had to be held down. Thus, war supplies and other needed materials continued to be imported in large quantities in 1938 in increasingly larger proportions to other imports. With the exception of agricultural products, coal and fertilizers, all of these other imports declined sharply. Especially sharp was the decline in imports of cotton, wool, raw rubber and pulp, which are important materials for the manufacture of goods for export. During 1938, imports of these four items fell off by 741 million yen or 54.3 per cent as compared with the corresponding figures for 1937. This amount of decrease corresponds to 66.2 per cent of the total decrease witnessed in imports during the year.

Fourthly, the relative proportions among various items of exportation have also undergone some changes, which, however, are not so conspicuous as the changes in articles of importation. Notable among such changes is the fact that, while exports to third Powers generally are tending to decline, goods manufactured from native materials are gradually coming to be exported in larger proportions in comparison with goods for export which depend on imported materials. Another change has been in the gradual decline in the position of exports of miscellaneous goods, which had provided an impetus in promoting Japan's export trade in recent years.

That Japan's export trade with third Powers is in an unfavourable situation has already been stated. This situation may be made clearer by the table given below.

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CHANGE IN TRADE OF JAPAN

(Unit: ¥1,000)

	The Japanese Empire	Japan Proper and Karafuto		
		Total	With Kwantung Manchoukuo & China	With Third Powers
Exports				
1938	2,896,770	2,689,677	1,165,540	1,524,137
1937	3,318,820	3,175,418	791,258	2,384,160
1936	2,797,599	2,692,976	657,715	2,035,261
Imports				
1938	2,836,321	2,663,437	564,151	2,099,286
1937	3,954,726	3,783,177	437,906	3,345,271
1936	2,927,975	2,763,681	394,253	2,369,428
Import excess				
1938	—	—	—	575,149
1937	635,906	607,759	—	961,111
1936	130,376	70,705	—	334,167
Export excess				
1938	60,449	26,240	601,389	—
1937	—	—	353,352	—
1936	—	—	263,462	—

Causes of the Decline This decline in exports may be traced to several causes. First, the worldwide economic depression centring around the prevailing depression in the United States has been responsible in large measure for this trend.

Secondly, other causes peculiar to this country have existed. Notable among such peculiar causes is the control on foreign exchange and import trade, which has been tightened to such an extent as to make it difficult to import materials for the manufacture of goods for export, thereby making Japan's commodity prices comparatively higher than in many other countries. The boycotting of Japanese goods, which has been carried on vigorously by Chinese residents abroad, may also be considered a contributing factor here. On account of the above-mentioned difficulty in obtaining materials for the manufacture of export goods, the export trade in cotton yarn and fabrics, rayon yarn and fabrics, hosiery goods and woollen textiles, which depend largely on imported cotton, wool, pulp and such fibrous materials, declined by about 30 per cent.

It may also be pointed out that the decline in the exportation of goods manufactured from imported materials was made sharper than it might otherwise have been by such additional obstacles as the complicated procedures required for imports, the lack of smoothness in the distribution of imported materials and the conversion of some of the materials imported for the manufacture of exports to uses as materials for goods to meet domestic demands.

As regards commodity prices in Japan, investigation by the Department of Commerce and Industry reveals that wholesale prices according to the September indices for 1938 rose by a little more than 10 per cent over the corresponding period of the preceding year, those for staple goods for import and export rising by 6 per cent and a little over 10 per cent respectively during the same interval.

As for the boycotting of Japanese goods, its effect was felt most seriously in the South Seas region where Chinese residents are numerous. Boycotting of Japanese goods is also under way in some parts of the United States, Great Britain, etc. instead of being confined to the above-mentioned regions.

Moreover, these factors, which have combined to hamper Japan's foreign trade, have been, it may be conceded, further interwoven with other circumstances such as the hesitation on the part of overseas buyers of Japanese goods due to their anticipation of a lower yen in the future or their insufficient knowledge of financial and industrial conditions in this country, the insufficient supply of labour for manufacturing industries for export on account of the absorption of labour by munitions industries and other so-called "boom industries," and the lack of smoothness in the dispensation of shipping bottoms.

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Counter-Measures With the general situation of Japan's foreign trade as outlined above, the Government is taking various special measures to meet immediate requirements in addition to the facilities previously provided for the purpose of promoting export trade. The wartime trade policy is aimed not so much at balancing the nation's international receipts and payments in a negative way as at increasing the power to the maximum while balancing international receipts and payments in a positive way by maintaining and promoting export trade. Such wartime measures are summarized below.

First, procedures to be gone through in obtaining import licences have been unified with the object of facilitating and speeding up procedures required for the importation of raw materials. For this purpose, a portion of the Foreign Exchange Bureau of the Department of Finance has been moved into the Department of Commerce and Industry building in order to keep the two Departments in closer contact than heretofore in coordinating procedures of granting foreign exchange licences and import licences. Further, the regulations governing import licences have been so revised as to simplify necessary formalities.

Secondly, efforts have been made to prevent conversion of raw materials imported for the manufacture of exports to domestic uses. For this purpose what is known as the link system was adopted. This system was first introduced some time ago when it was so arranged that an import licence be given for the importation of the same volume of wool as was contained in the woollen goods exported, the wool imported under this system being required to be exported again as woollen goods within a fixed space of time. This measure was primarily designed to encourage export of woollen goods. Later, with or without slight alterations, this system has been applied to cotton goods, rayon goods, brushes, manila paper and toilet soap. Another measure taken for the same purpose is known as the bonded factory system, under which system bonded factories may obtain import licences with special facility in case they desire to import materials with the object of reshipping them for export as manufactured goods.

Still another measure calculated to meet the same purpose was the creation of the foreign exchange fund, which was founded by earmarking 300 million yen out of the 800 million yen specie reserve of the Bank of Japan with a view to facilitating the financing of capital needed for the importation of raw materials for the manufacture of export goods. This fund has been made available for cases where adequate precautions are taken through the link system, the bonded factory system and other measures to prevent the conversion of imported materials to domestic uses. The issuance of what is known as "allowances" of raw materials for the manufacture of miscellaneous goods for export may also deserve cursory mention. Raw materials for miscellaneous goods for export have become the most difficult to obtain owing to the strengthened restrictions on imports, but in view of the important part these goods have been playing in Japan's foreign trade, special discretion has been shown in the procedures of exchange control in favour of the importation of raw materials for the manufacture of such goods for export. In a similar manner, special attention has been paid to the effective distribution of such materials after investigating into the industrial requirements of the prefectures interested with the aid of the prefectural authorities concerned and the Department of Commerce and Industry, in an effort to make the "allowances" of raw materials for miscellaneous goods for export as satisfactory as possible.

Further improvement is now being planned so that nothing may be left undone as regards the importation of materials for the manufacture of export goods.

Thirdly, attention is called to the rectification of high commodity prices. Any measure calculated directly to lower the prices of export goods would be open to criticism from abroad as a recourse to dumping. Therefore, efforts are being made to control general commodity prices in this country through the enforcement of regulations governing sales prices and other measures that may be deemed necessary in controlling commodity prices.

Fourthly, the existing "export compensation system" has been enlarged in scope so that the same system may be applied to goods for export to all parts of the world market and the compensation premiums be lowered, with a view to facilitating the financing of foreign trade. At the same time, it has been arranged that what is to be known as the system of compensating losses of loans advanced on exports

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will be newly introduced in order to improve trade finances.

Fifthly, remedial measures have to be taken, apart from those to be worked out through diplomatic channels, in order to remove the economic pressure which has been brought to bear on Japanese goods in overseas markets. For this purpose close contact is being maintained within the various quarters concerned so as to make Government aid available for Japanese merchants in regions where Chinese residents are thriving in business and to rectify mistaken views of the Japanese situation on the part of overseas buyers with the aid of trade information agencies and other private organizations in markets where feelings unfavourable to Japan prevail or knowledge of the Japanese financial conditions is lacking.

Sixthly, exports to the Kwantung Leased Territory, Manchoukuo and China are being controlled in order not to exceed the volumes actually needed in those countries. This control is being effected through enforcement of official regulations, control of distribution and other measures, with a view to increasing the exportation to third Powers of goods manufactured out of imported materials so as to amplify the nation's power to buy from third Powers, inasmuch as the exports to the Yen-bloc countries rose amazingly during 1938.

Moreover, foreign trade among the same group of countries has to be restored to normalcy as speedily as possible. For this purpose, it is necessary to expedite operations for the development of their natural resources and promote the importation of materials from these resources into Japan. Hence, the problem of controlling exports to the Yen-bloc countries will have to be considered in conjunction with the question of how to promote import trade with these countries.

In the seventh place, other measures are being taken with the object of generally improving foreign trade. The most notable among such efforts is the organization of missions tasked with investigation of overseas markets. These groups have been sent to various parts of the world since 1937, when five of the missions toured the Near East, East Africa, West Africa and South America. The information brought back by these missions having proved considerably serviceable for the purpose of formulating Japan's future trade policy towards these parts of the world, three more similar missions were sent to India, Central America and North America respectively in September, 1938.

Another measure taken for similar purposes calls for the opening of trade facilities bureaus abroad, which were opened at 14 places in foreign countries during 1937. The number of these offices were increased by 12 during 1938 in order to make this system more widely available throughout the world.

Foreign Trade During the First Half of 1939

Imports and exports of the Empire during the six months from January to June, 1939, showed improvement as compared with the similar period of 1938. Details follow:

	Exports	Imports	Excess of Exports (+) or Imports (−)
		(Unit: ¥1,000)	
Jan.-June, 1939			
Japan Proper and Karafuto	1,454,405	1,478,380	(−) 23,975
Chosen and Taiwan	161,121	111,831	(+) 49,290
Total	1,615,526	1,590,211	(+) 25,315
Jan.-June, 1938			
Japan Proper and Karafuto	1,200,633	1,394,473	(−)193,840
Empire	1,287,801	1,483,272	(−)195,411

Increase in Exports Of the 13 leading export articles, only cotton textiles, silk textiles and toys dropped in export value from the year before.

The largest gain in the list of leading export goods was recorded by lumber shipments which increased 143 per cent to ¥44,615,000 for the half year. Machinery exports rose by 69 per cent to ¥102,047,000. Shipments of woollen textiles increased by 56 per cent. The bulk of the increase in machinery and lumber shipments were to the Yen-bloc.

The drop in cotton textile sales by 17 per cent was obviously because of the restriction on shipments to the Yen-bloc regions, but exports to the other countries from the first of this year to June 20 amounted to 993,820,000 square yards, valued at ¥157,970,000, an increase of 39 per cent in quantity and 18 per cent in value as compare with the corresponding period of 1938.

The 21 per cent decrease in the ship-

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ment of toys was reportedly caused by the difficulty of acquiring materials, while the 19 per cent fall in the sales of silk textiles was attributed to a fall in foreign demand. Though the value of raw silk shipments was 10 per cent greater than during the first half of 1938, the quantity was 41,412 bales less than a year ago, amounting to but 161,568 bales.

Details of principal exports of Japan proper and Karafuto follow:

	Jan.-June (Unit: ¥1,000)	Compared with 1938
Cotton textiles	182,893	- 37,661
Raw silk	166,621	15,734
Rayon textiles	62,149	7,671
Machines	102,047	41,747
Canned foods	41,180	8,946
Silk textiles	19,425	- 4,463
Knitted goods	18,616	1,105
Woolen textiles	27,999	10,146
Procelain	19,717	1,349
Toys	9,336	- 2,547
Rayon yarn	11,411	3,908
Lumber	44,615	26,295
Others	717,931	168,307
Total	1,454,405	253,772

FOREIGN TRADE OF THE EMPIRE

(Unit: ¥1,000)

Year	Exports	Imports	Excess of Imports
1929	2,217,658	2,389,175	171,517
1930	1,518,574	1,680,314	161,740
1931	1,179,212	1,319,406	140,193
1932	1,457,296	1,524,521	67,206
1933	1,932,069	2,017,504	85,435
1934	2,258,081	2,400,495	142,414
1935	2,603,152	2,617,910	14,758
1936	2,797,599	2,927,975	130,377
1937	3,318,820	3,954,726	635,905
1938	2,896,770	2,836,321	60,449

(Export exc.)

FOREIGN TRADE OF THE EMPIRE IN 1938

(Value in ¥1,000)

	Exports			Imports		
	Total Value	Compared with the previous year	Rate of Increase or Decrease	Total Value	Compared with the previous year	Rate of Increase or Decrease
Japan Proper	2,689,677	-485,741	-15.3%	2,663,437	-1,119,740	-29.5%
Korea	169,067	55,969	49.5	132,733	6,681	5.3
Formosa	36,350	6,434	21.5	38,709	- 5,510	-12.4
South Sea Islands	1,676	1,288	332.2	1,444	176	13.8
Total	2,896,770	-422,050	-12.1	2,836,321	-1,118,405	-28.3

JAPAN'S TRADE IN 1938

(Japan Proper and Karafuto)

(In ¥1,000)

	Exports		Imports	
	1937	1938	1937	1938
Asia	1,645,915	1,664,725	1,295,114	1,023,532
Manchoukuo	216,092	316,323	249,071	339,217
Kwantung Leased Territory	395,916	536,317	45,188	60,323
China	179,251	312,900	143,636	164,611
Asiatic Russia	23,851	4,715	3,902	380
Hong Kong	49,150	16,754	5,332	1,308
Siam	49,382	39,269	13,571	4,951
Straits Settlements	67,433	20,696	67,796	54,167
British India	299,367	188,040	449,486	172,231
Iraq	23,644	17,082	9,028	6,114
Philippines	60,348	32,599	45,194	35,630
Dutch East Indies	200,051	104,145	153,450	88,249
Europe	356,299	261,018	504,001	376,266
England	168,297	134,972	105,772	63,157
France	47,208	36,814	27,885	13,502

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	Exports		Imports	
	1937	1938	1937	1938
Germany	43,261	33,015	176,363	171,170
Belgium	20,650	10,151	41,059	15,441
Sweden	11,545	8,277	49,277	24,069
North America	659,601	440,404	1,374,252	1,006,803
United States	639,428	425,123	1,269,542	915,354
Canada	20,036	15,244	104,692	91,260
Central America	54,885	29,415	18,765	7,129
South America	109,519	60,152	162,611	91,235
Argentine	42,481	19,607	42,018	24,356
Africa	242,736	137,336	206,305	60,621
Egypt	32,772	13,997	74,118	36,315
Canea, Uganda & Tanganyika	40,122	22,504	24,155	4,269
South Africa	53,749	35,289	88,852	9,558
Oceania	106,463	96,610	222,129	97,850
Australia	72,080	69,388	165,252	82,875

VALUE OF EXPORTS AND IMPORTS
(Japan Proper and Karafuto)

(In ¥1,000)

Year	Exports	Imports	Total	Excess of Imports over Exports
1899	214,929	220,401	435,331	5,472
1900	204,429	287,261	491,691	82,831
1901	252,349	255,816	508,166	3,467
1902	258,303	271,731	530,034	13,428
1903	289,502	317,135	606,637	27,633
1904	319,260	371,360	690,621	52,099
1905	321,533	488,538	810,071	167,004
1906	423,754	418,784	842,539	4,970
				(Export exc.)
1907	432,412	494,467	926,880	62,054
1908	378,245	436,257	814,503	58,011
1909	413,112	394,198	807,311	18,913
				(Export exc.)
1910	458,428	464,233	922,662	5,804
1911	447,433	513,805	961,239	66,371
1912	526,981	618,992	1,145,974	92,010
1913	632,460	729,431	1,361,891	96,971
1914	591,101	595,735	1,186,837	4,634
1915	708,306	532,449	1,240,756	175,857
				(Export exc.)
1916	1,127,468	756,427	1,883,896	371,040
				(Export exc.)
1917	1,603,005	1,035,811	2,638,816	567,139
				(Export exc.)
1918	1,962,100	1,668,143	3,630,244	293,956
				(Export exc.)
1919	2,098,872	2,173,459	4,272,332	74,587
1920	1,948,394	2,336,174	4,284,569	387,780
1921	1,252,837	1,614,154	2,866,992	361,317
1922	1,637,451	1,890,308	3,527,760	252,856
1923	1,447,750	1,982,230	3,429,981	534,479
1924	1,807,034	2,453,402	4,260,437	646,367
1925	2,305,589	2,572,657	4,878,247	267,068
1926	2,004,727	2,377,484	4,422,212	332,756
1927	1,992,317	2,179,153	4,171,471	186,836
1928	1,971,955	2,196,314	4,168,270	224,359
1929	2,148,618	2,216,240	4,364,858	67,621
1930	1,469,852	1,546,070	3,015,923	76,218
1931	1,146,981	1,235,675	2,382,656	88,693
1932	1,409,992	1,431,461	2,841,453	21,469
1933	1,861,045	1,917,219	3,778,266	56,174
1934	2,171,924	2,282,601	4,454,526	110,677
1935	2,499,072	2,472,235	4,971,307	26,837
				(Export exc.)
1936	2,692,976	2,763,681	5,456,657	70,705
1937	3,175,418	3,783,177	6,958,595	607,759
1938	2,689,677	2,663,437	5,353,114	26,240
				(Export exc.)

EXPORTS AND IMPORTS OF GOLD AND SILVER BULLION AND SPECIE

(In ¥ 1,000)

	Exports	Imports	Excess of Exports over Imports	Excess of Imports over Exports
1897	19,219	81,466	—	62,247
1898	86,937	42,563	44,237	—
1899	11,178	20,163	—	8,985
1900	56,707	11,517	45,189	—
1901	14,049	10,960	3,088	—
1902	2,028	32,161	—	30,132

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	Exports	Imports	Excess of Exports over Imports	Excess of Imports over Exports
1903	19,001	27,807	—	8,806
1904	107,795	33,946	73,849	—
1905	19,354	31,506	—	15,152
1906	25,784	47,211	—	21,426
1907	18,759	8,256	10,503	—
1908	3,772	17,544	—	13,772
1909	6,584	79,587	—	73,003
1910	25,175	17,671	7,504	—
1911	24,398	6,168	18,230	—
1912	28,325	11,544	16,781	—
1913	27,093	1,021	26,072	—
1914	29,649	9,107	20,542	—
1915	44,566	24,296	20,270	—
1916	28,079	101,029	—	72,950
1917	153,736	392,224	238,488	—
1918	937	5,016	—	4,079
1919	5,053	327,476	322,423	—
1920	3,897	404,726	400,829	—
1921	—	138,621	—	138,621
1922	2,180	1,672	508	—
1923	5,465	196	5,269	—
1924	6	4,109	—	4,103
1925	22,305	173	22,132	—
1926	35,897	1,628	34,269	—
1927	49,680	8,515	41,165	—
1928	3,436	2,696	740	—
1929	3,490	613	2,877	—
1930	311,007	9,686	301,321	—
1931	421,400	11,177	410,223	—
1932	121,378	140	121,238	—
1933	28,608	125	28,483	—
1934	13,924	331	13,594	—
1935	225,405	142	225,263	—
1936	36,021	915	35,106	—
1937 (Jan.-July)	390,622	1,329	389,293	—

RATE OF TRADE EXPANSION OF JAPAN PROPER IN THE PAST 5 YEARS

	Export Amount in ¥1,000	Rate of Increase as compared with the Previous Year	Imports Amount in ¥1,000	Rate of Increase as Compared with the Previous Year	Excess of Imports (−) or Exports (+)
1934	2,171,925	17%	2,282,602	19%	(−) 110,677
1935	2,499,073	15	2,472,236	9	(+) 26,837
1936	2,692,976	7.5	2,763,681	11.8	(−) 70,705
1937	3,175,418	17.9	3,783,177	36.9	(−) 607,759
1938	2,689,677	(−) 15.3	2,663,437	(−) 29.5	(+) 26,240

VALUE OF CHIEF COMMODITIES EXPORTED TO VARIOUS COUNTRIES

Japan Proper and Karafuto

(In ¥ 1,000)

	1938	1937	1936
Cotton tissues	404,240	573,065	483,591
British India	67,879	63,041	72,517
Dutch East Indies	39,486	85,603	55,391
Manchoukuo	38,010	55,748	47,221
China	23,911	11,296	7,860
Kwantung L. T.	17,389	29,426	28,332
Canea, Uganda and Tanganyika	15,882	23,003	18,724
Australia	15,070	13,527	13,984
Siam	14,905	16,149	13,620
French Morocco	13,788	10,820	11,786
Argentine	13,130	29,295	14,780
Anglo-Egyptian Sudan	10,161	12,103	9,004
Syria	9,840	10,614	8,344
Iraq	9,797	10,875	10,449
Union of South Africa	7,124	10,214	7,349
Aden	6,285	9,892	9,520
Philippine Islands	6,053	12,057	7,680
Straits Settlements	5,053	12,231	9,188
Hong-Kong	4,586	9,514	15,102
Chile	4,289	7,951	6,027
Iran	4,155	2,236	1,941
Arabia	3,863	3,273	2,045
Ceylon	3,621	2,641	1,681
Germany	3,115	4,048	4,086
Mozambique	2,785	3,920	2,290
Sweden	2,716	3,286	1,833
Venezuela	2,694	5,400	5,376
Great Britain	2,677	4,776	2,985
New Zealand	2,493	3,044	2,838
U. S. A.	2,407	22,179	13,760
Egypt	2,347	10,510	20,525
Turkey	2,081	2,496	4,074
Urguay	2,028	4,934	1,930
Dominica	1,865	4,009	2,401
Palestine	1,823	2,630	2,414

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	1938	1937	1936
Finland	1,813	2,969	1,313
Costa Rica	1,381	1,892	1,321
Honduras	1,344	2,223	2,483
Peru	1,330	1,347	1,422
Panama	1,312	1,246	946
Eritrea	1,219	5	—
Norway	1,149	1,567	1,416
Nigeria	1,063	2,076	1,011
Raw Silk	364,124	407,118	392,809
U. S. A.	297,682	325,225	333,949
Great Britain	26,175	31,430	23,628
France	24,631	26,111	21,772
Australia	6,461	8,132	5,231
British India	1,520	8,460	3,872
Italy	351	269	11
Canada	278	727	823
Switzerland	177	433	142
Machines and accessories	156,475	109,881	82,054
Kwantung L. T.	75,807	46,584	41,166
China	35,925	24,152	16,936
Manchoukuo	30,384	14,835	6,370
British India	5,794	6,443	2,969
Asiatic Russia	1,811	4,460	8,042
Dutch East Indies	1,038	2,113	968
Philippine Islands	817	1,073	505
Brazil	270	436	277
Australia	162	392	118
Rayon tissues	115,762	154,860	149,170
Kwantung L. T.	20,243	15,612	21,494
Australia	17,303	16,667	18,415
Manchoukuo	17,029	2,574	842
British India	11,627	32,466	26,221
Dutch East Indies	7,202	11,490	11,633
China	6,883	1,334	492
Union of South Africa	3,475	7,168	5,838
New Zealand	3,318	4,621	4,151
Straits Settlements	2,207	3,632	2,848
Hong-Kong	2,150	7,673	7,509
Philippine Islands	2,096	5,500	8,674
Siam	1,569	3,522	4,440
Uruguay	1,217	3,663	5,107
Great Britain	1,043	1,537	912
Canada	911	997	725
U. S. A.	624	1,512	612
Canea, Uganda and Tanganyka	543	1,295	851
Mozambique	510	1,360	795
Comestibles in tin and bottle	92,819	86,905	71,077
Great Britain	40,832	29,122	32,384
U. S. A.	12,212	21,940	15,458
China	9,865	854	383
Kwantung L. T.	7,228	3,902	1,916
Manchoukuo	2,480	1,202	670
Australia	2,464	2,489	946
Belgium	2,337	3,903	2,465
Hawaii	1,747	1,755	1,092
France	1,675	2,722	2,472
Netherlands	1,072	1,635	1,040
Germany	495	673	551
Hong-Kong	169	173	267
Wheat flour	60,715	30,746	17,622
China	23,063	15,249	620
Kwantung L. T.	21,901	11,669	8,832
Manchoukuo	15,748	2,560	6,013
Iron manufactures	52,231	54,116	40,302
Kwantung L. T.	22,786	12,590	8,718
Manchoukuo	10,413	5,288	2,699
China	6,357	2,668	2,967
Dutch East Indies	2,857	7,774	4,181
British India	2,728	6,221	4,309
Philippine Islands	651	2,262	2,098
Siam	561	1,534	2,045
Mozambique	388	516	468
Union of South Africa	364	845	697
Australia	337	493	460
Straits Settlements	279	2,027	2,154
Canea, Uganda and Tanganyka	190	877	544
Hong-Kong	105	657	696
Papers	52,127	38,708	27,545
Kwantung L. T.	19,393	13,814	9,699
China	16,149	6,940	7,413
Manchoukuo	8,857	5,931	3,008
U. S. A.	1,497	1,773	1,116
British India	1,123	1,613	1,025
Dutch East Indies	808	1,830	916
Australia	787	1,176	477
Hong-Kong	718	1,777	1,213
Siam	572	921	565
Great Britain	541	802	515
Germany	529	372	281
Philippine Islands	328	404	317
Straits Settlements	101	564	360
Silk tissues	49,352	72,286	68,027
Great Britain	9,023	9,518	8,306
British India	7,896	13,838	13,203
U. S. A.	7,402	11,531	7,544
Kwantung L. T.	4,049	2,839	3,474
Australia	1,923	2,664	4,076
Egypt	1,772	3,158	2,333
France	1,515	1,673	1,443
Manchoukuo	1,494	393	681
Union of South Africa	1,454	3,531	4,005
Germany	1,449	1,464	851
Straits Settlements	1,122	4,597	3,613
China	655	68	33
Dutch East Indies	627	1,148	1,089
Argentine	620	1,882	1,142
New Zealand	398	410	651
Netherlands	369	390	480
Belgium	360	349	232
Hong-Kong	330	701	851
Italy	214	646	369
French Indo-China	201	921	567
Canada	174	222	217
Timber	46,887	35,412	24,703

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	1938	1937	1936
Kwantung L. T.	15,168	6,122	3,856
China	13,839	2,951	2,461
Great Britain	4,962	12,141	3,301
Manchoukuo	4,299	1,536	1,313
Asiatic Russia	1,636	1,687	1,082
British India	1,242	1,533	1,123
Union of South Africa	534	1,169	1,016
Netherland	418	660	462
Australia	355	383	308
Belgium	333	781	596
Straits Settlements	206	627	469
U. S. A.	159	622	521
Woollen tissues	46,845	50,082	45,956
Manchoukuo	11,651	3,800	1,052
Kwantung L. T.	11,529	11,903	13,187
China	9,508	3,823	3,616
British India	3,460	9,884	5,254
Egypt	1,458	4,671	4,051
Knitted goods	40,818	60,713	49,988
Dutch East Indies	6,086	7,602	4,426
Philippine Islands	4,024	5,015	5,475
Manchoukuo	3,441	3,363	1,813
Great Britain	3,203	5,967	5,206
Union of South Africa	2,579	3,180	2,711
British India	2,366	4,560	4,256
Kwantung L. T.	2,332	2,018	1,600
U. S. A.	1,462	6,849	6,784
Mozambique	969	1,083	892
Canea, Uganda and Tanganyka	713	1,026	906
Straits Settlements	695	1,401	1,496
China	566	207	120
Egypt	272	1,030	965
Australia	175	140	70
Potteries and Porcelains	40,477	53,971	43,548
U. S. A.	8,696	19,460	15,530
Kwantung L. T.	4,643	2,353	1,859
Manchoukuo	3,821	2,222	1,391
Australia	2,915	2,599	2,291
Dutch East Indies	2,714	3,109	2,388
British India	2,580	4,240	3,696
China	2,453	1,146	1,127
Canada	1,235	2,038	2,025
Union of South Africa	1,009	1,259	1,144
Great Britain	888	1,171	1,275
Argentine	786	1,259	595
Philippine Islands	628	1,431	1,148
Netherlands	607	542	608
Brazil	576	1,036	461
New Zealands	453	438	443
Egypt	415	364	495
Mozambique	338	445	309
Straits Settlements	307	1,174	514
Germany	296	303	245
Hong-Kong	191	363	481

	1938	1937	1936
Canea, Uganda and Tanganyka	151	315	142
Siam	144	270	307
France	133	426	317
French Indo-China	131	232	270
Cotton yarn	39,355	54,906	38,345
British India	20,502	19,846	18,051
Dutch East Indies	7,419	13,790	5,489
Manchoukuo	3,232	8,334	6,391
Philippine Islands	1,134	1,761	1,259
Hong-Kong	716	3,625	1,840
China	626	1,025	279
Australia	372	235	391
Kwantung L. T.	368	1,423	447
Siam	269	543	994
Glass and manufactures	25,886	33,572	25,627
British India	5,492	7,215	5,817
Dutch East Indies	2,676	3,436	2,206
China	2,015	1,161	1,319
U. S. A.	1,857	4,543	3,059
Manchoukuo	1,820	1,370	822
Kwantung L. T.	1,635	1,180	799
Australia	1,367	1,412	1,114
Philippine Islands	1,130	1,991	1,330
Great Britain	963	890	488
Union of South Africa	663	1,070	831
New Zealand	462	446	366
Siam	279	763	728
Straits Settlements	260	1,337	1,087
Mozambique	208	287	238
Hong-Kong	161	373	407
Canea, Uganda and Tanganyka	129	258	158
French Indo-China	120	234	258
Toys	24,991	42,295	36,459
U. S. A.	6,093	16,521	13,689
Great Britain	5,504	7,036	5,916
Australia	2,187	2,276	2,137
British India	1,715	2,787	2,784
Canada	1,262	1,664	1,081
Netherlands	879	844	982
Manchoukuo	671	436	310
Union of South Africa	638	1,067	891
Dutch East Indies	500	1,132	959
New Zealand	434	551	419
Garmany	431	190	252
Argentine	406	562	425
Brazil	331	378	338
Philippine Islands	314	567	435
Belgium	289	440	284
China	270	339	507
Egypt	178	366	644
France	154	282	158
Straits Settlements	135	631	643
Refined Sugar	23,654	18,577	20,977
Kwantung L. T.	13,081	7,770	13,226
China	7,309	8,298	5,826

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	1938	1937	1936
Manchoukuo	3,259	1,715	1,361
Aquatic products	21,931	21,916	22,216
Kwantung L. T.	9,230	7,402	4,402
China	6,552	3,418	7,219
U. S. A.	3,370	3,972	2,811
Manchoukuo	978	578	334
Hawaii	710	802	689
Philippine Islands	314	697	634
Hong-Kong	134	2,016	2,436
Rayon yarn	17,888	44,803	29,174
China	7,487	4,629	2,002
British India	4,274	23,154	8,747
Mexico	1,150	6,018	2,332
Kwantung L. T.	672	1,328	8,840
Australia	550	518	1,223
Lamps and accessories	14,748	21,950	18,587
Kwantung L. T.	2,949	1,916	1,116
U. S. A.	1,737	4,238	4,931
China	1,613	520	502
Great Britain	1,453	2,895	2,459
Manchoukuo	1,191	592	389
Dutch East Indies	811	1,801	1,122
British India	718	1,584	1,148
Canada	383	666	219
Australia	345	565	571
Hong-Kong	127	321	428
Philippine Islands	124	457	435
Tea	12,063	23,181	13,130
U. S. A.	4,316	7,750	5,549
Canada	641	1,226	1,097
British India	599	862	588
Kwantung L. T.	490	313	242
Hats and Caps	11,092	26,337	19,736
U. S. A.	3,081	8,479	5,233
Manchoukuo	973	1,192	786
Kwantung L. T.	820	655	560
China	801	1,884	1,642
British India	536	1,736	1,247
Great Britain	429	1,603	1,272
Union of South Africa	401	768	913
Dutch East Indies	397	693	462
Australia	221	311	281
Argentine	166	140	122
Mozambique	142	263	229
Clothing and accessories	10,167	15,535	11,853
British India	3,515	4,048	3,202
U. S. A.	1,369	3,132	2,249
Great Britain	762	827	695
Australia	460	558	493
Manchoukuo	254	212	126
Philippine Islands	155	342	266
China	121	108	231
Coal	10,147	9,927	10,356
Hong-Kong	3,216	3,564	4,023
China	2,514	290	828
Philippine Islands	1,953	2,373	2,448
Straits Settlements	1,948	3,388	2,806

	1938	1937	1936
French Indo-China	238	80	119
Beer	10,019	5,686	5,912
China	6,034	944	555
Kwantung L. T.	1,646	1,980	1,750
British India	639	753	650
Manchoukuo	525	308	1,158
Hawaii	380	397	265
Buttons	9,730	13,737	11,635
Great Britain	1,837	3,047	2,566
British India	808	1,432	1,116
Netherlands	522	710	677
Australia	516	669	596
Manchoukuo	507	393	246
Argentine	506	620	306
Dutch East Indies	482	653	352
Germany	457	353	415
Belgium	445	680	414
China	380	318	364
U. S. A.	343	575	818
Kwantung L. T.	220	153	150
Canada	133	116	89
Vegetable oils	8,572	23,662	35,496
U. S. A.	5,638	18,956	31,665
Kwantung L. T.	431	310	273
Germany	376	966	419
Great Britain	219	639	825
Australia	154	239	113
Soap	7,837	5,531	4,246
Machoukuo	3,713	2,141	1,300
Kwantung L. T.	2,090	1,154	1,138
China	1,500	432	535
Rubber tyres	7,799	12,983	9,939
Kwantung L. T.	2,853	3,449	1,601
Manchoukuo	1,323	1,052	478
China	1,251	2,132	2,010
British India	767	1,099	1,206
Dutch East Indies	403	1,503	1,449
Fish and whale oils	7,027	15,414	10,180
U. S. A.	1,886	1,486	864
Germany	1,857	6,314	3,931
Great Britain	1,116	1,531	922
Kwantung L. T.	578	562	450
Netherlands	348	583	1,211
Australia	141	254	168
Beans	6,972	9,330	7,060
Great Britain	2,706	4,739	4,463
Germany	1,808	1,700	589
Cotton towels	6,961	8,935	6,830
Union of South Africa	985	872	634
Australia	861	904	496
Siam	409	311	444
Kwantung L. T.	357	321	238
Dutch East Indies	288	593	536
Straits Settlements	100	387	418
Cement	6,411	6,836	8,002
Dutch East Indies	1,150	1,046	607
China	911	138	251
Kwantung L. T.	904	286	1,874
Philippine Islands	658	102	36

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	1938	1937	1936
Manchoukuo	625	13	59
Straits Settlements	352	877	995
Canea, Uganda and Tanganyka	149	277	182
Cotton blankets	6,321	8,092	6,908
Manchoukuo	2,547	821	693
Kwantung L. T.	957	325	161
Siam	502	951	1,087
Dutch East Indies	270	356	186
Canea, Uganda and Tanganyka	163	391	552
Isinglass	6,201	6,761	5,574
Germany	1,201	1,060	542
U. S. A.	1,152	1,236	998
France	601	875	739
Great Britain	574	898	768
Australia	295	188	161
Dutch East Indies	285	533	441
China	185	145	136
Straits Settlements	104	286	289
Insecticide	6,103	7,693	3,207
U. S. A.	5,275	6,879	2,885
Plaits for hat making	5,901	7,876	5,798
U. S. A.	3,640	4,880	3,593
France	679	643	474
Great Britain	402	526	624
Australia	189	249	220
Menthol	4,381	6,116	4,986
U. S. A.	2,688	3,276	2,406
British India	387	656	416
France	373	544	700
Germany	289	479	273
Great Britain	218	161	146
Brushes	4,078	6,917	5,633
U. S. A.	830	2,715	2,063
Great Britain	479	731	744
Manchoukuo	412	232	138

	1938	1937	1936
Dutch East Indies	228	244	167
Netherlands	207	243	238
China	200	119	159
British India	192	327	243
Canada	135	205	129
Camphor	3,723	4,774	4,843
British India	1,405	1,447	1,415
U. S. A.	1,040	1,490	1,736
France	252	289	350
Australia	135	154	113
Matches	3,304	2,103	2,174
China	2,053	9	3
Kwantung L. T.	638	422	189
Philippine Islands	141	86	76
Waste cotton and silk	2,897	6,238	3,164
Italy	735	1,567	471
Belgium	350	605	171
Great Britain	312	301	84
France	197	734	284
U. S. A.	179	378	699
Silk handkerchief	2,738	5,688	4,192
U. S. A.	667	1,704	1,194
Great Britain	569	899	705
British India	359	834	835
Australia	163	110	93
Canada	101	148	62
Rice and paddy	2,265	2,306	2,367
Canada	736	694	842
Peppermint oil	2,168	2,975	2,963
Germany	981	1,138	919
France	808	876	977
Yellow copper	1,812	5,899	6,679
Kwantung L. T.	1,223	666	349
Manchoukuo	346	164	107
British India	142	1,365	2,926
Umbrellas	1,463	3,714	2,633
Union of South Africa	131	233	167
Manchoukuo	102	51	31

VALUE OF CHIEF COMMODITIES IMPORTED FROM VARIOUS COUNTRIES

Japan Proper and Karafuto

(In ¥ 1,000)

	1938	1937	1936
Cotton and ginned cotton	436,835	851,163	850,452
U. S. A.	166,414	306,388	372,415
British India	113,331	363,635	315,061
China	71,790	23,610	22,778
Egypt	27,530	58,759	36,415
Canea, Uganda and Tanganyka	5,218	21,529	27,500
Turkey	1,478	291	2,439
Dutch East Indies	452	1,173	701

	1938	1937	1936
Beans	102,076	92,547	82,601
Manchoukuo	98,541	84,708	73,043
China	2,184	3,635	4,593
Kwantung L. T.	918	435	304
Wool	94,426	298,404	200,898
Australia	64,882	118,196	147,493
New Zealand	8,272	42,822	18,316
Argentine	5,946	17,713	6,562
Union of South Africa	4,266	82,763	17,389

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	1938	1937	1936
China	3,327	382	611
Manchoukuo	2,478	527	269
Chile	780	2,358	1,744
Great Britain	677	1,073	1,190
Coal	67,217	59,224	51,056
Manchoukuo	27,951	29,958	26,660
China	26,877	16,279	12,595
French Indo-China	12,108	12,832	11,656
Kwantung L. T.	231	60	58
Oil cakes	60,112	45,310	35,790
Manchoukuo	49,946	29,662	20,137
Kwantung L. T.	3,056	6,870	6,975
China	1,957	6,143	7,651
Dutch East Indies	107	678	485
India rubber and gutta percha	51,374	99,218	72,957
Straits Settlements	25,184	41,566	23,662
Dutch East Indies	12,080	25,775	22,878
French Indo-China	1,364	8,371	4,075
Pulp for rayon and paper making	41,059	116,720	67,107
U. S. A.	15,111	49,181	31,758
Sweden	6,276	26,993	9,735
Norway	5,400	17,071	14,621
Canada	5,046	12,619	4,150
Finland	3,339	9,497	6,401
Czecoslovakia	132	1,157	391
Sulphate of ammonium, crude	31,710	20,191	33,930
Germany	14,639	6,349	15,607
Kwantung L. T.	12,298	7,315	5,718
Manchoukuo	841	1,957	4,110
Seeds for oil making	28,790	43,612	44,873
Manchoukuo	17,069	19,206	23,508
China	6,963	14,093	14,332
Dutch East Indies	2,268	5,062	3,765
British India	161	2,459	1,129
Straits Settlements	114	662	501
Lumber	28,178	64,817	55,548
U. S. A.	9,770	30,077	32,184
Philippine Islands	6,695	11,260	7,330
Canada	3,803	11,517	6,217
Dutch East Indies	2,282	2,477	2,012
British Borneo	1,980	3,198	4,306
Manchoukuo	1,294	660	298
Siam	1,236	3,102	1,773
China	289	826	677
Asiatic Russia	189	1,005	107
Hides and skins	27,826	44,571	24,386
U. S. A.	10,954	9,396	3,972
Argentine	6,883	5,871	1,391
China	3,083	10,070	9,177
Australia	2,265	5,023	1,124
Manchoukuo	1,564	1,039	926
France	378	835	324
British India	205	2,323	659
Great Britain	110	385	458
Hemp, jute and Manila hemp	27,306	40,995	37,301
Philippine Islands	11,969	23,224	20,68

	1938	1937	1936
Manchoukuo	5,587	1,273	298
British India	3,769	8,344	7,342
China	3,116	5,127	7,556
Great Britain	973	46	—
Dutch East Indies	399	1,279	546
Phosphorite	19,281	30,810	22,393
Egypt	5,879	10,022	7,044
U. S. A.	4,725	7,760	5,499
Straits Settlements	4,148	4,186	3,292
Wheat	9,557	29,604	33,651
Australia	4,008	15,623	17,392
Manchoukuo	3,198	1,961	1,759
China	442	178	2,104
Argentine	424	2,068	—
Wheat bran	8,932	10,653	8,724
Manchoukuo	6,678	6,004	1,733
China	2,033	4,036	6,376
Kwantung L. T.	221	610	616
Sugar	5,241	18,806	20,928
Dutch East Indies	5,189	17,724	19,767
Meats	4,414	6,878	8,401
China	1,654	3,958	6,204
Australia	720	744	406
Manchoukuo	472	379	385
Kwantung L. T.	303	406	435
Synthetic colours	3,838	16,928	11,404
Germany	1,711	12,313	6,983
Switzerland	477	2,227	1,664
U. S. A.	355	1,932	2,347
France	261	418	371
Watches and parts	2,893	5,645	3,742
Switzerland	2,448	4,319	2,761
U. S. A.	134	446	413
Rice and paddy	2,806	4,033	5,098
Siam	2,800	3,757	4,820
Electric motors and transformers	2,766	1,841	1,805
U. S. A.	1,869	980	557
Germany	715	694	468
Woollen tissues	2,724	9,292	9,675
Great Britain	2,613	8,971	9,389
Nitrate of soda, crude	2,558	3,630	7,158
Chile	2,272	3,032	4,398
Caustic soda, soda ash and natural soda	1,973	6,534	4,267
Manchoukuo	210	9	—
Canea, Uganda and Tanganyka	154	844	1,281
Leather	1,875	7,520	5,465
British India	1,088	3,436	2,346
U. S. A.	175	1,061	1,223
Germany	174	934	1,023
Printing paper	718	9,171	10,164
Canada	360	6,658	8,443
Norway	173	657	249
Fats	431	1,949	1,644
Australia	301	1,147	747
Woollen yarn	328	1,605	1,873
Great Britain	325	1,605	1,864
Cotton tissues	236	793	984
Great Britain	177	624	809

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Important Foreign Trade Countries

Great Britian Early in the Meiji Era Great Britain, China, the United States and France were the most important countries for Japan's export trade. In the import trade Great Britain, China, France and the United States were the principal countries, in that order. With a rapid gain in the export of raw silk in 1879, the importance of export countries was changed to the United States, China, France and Great Britain, although no change was noted in their precedence as import countries. A change came over the precedence in import countries in 1893 and India became the largest exporting country to Japan, being followed by Great Britain, the United States and China in that order. This was due to the rapid growth of the Japanese spinning industry, for which Indian cotton was needed. But in 1937 India became the second and in 1938 the third in the order. At present Great Britain comes 6th in order of Japan's export trade and 9th in Japan's import trade. When British India is included, however, she stands next to the U.S.A. both in buying Japanese commodities and in selling her goods to Japan among third Powers.

The U.S.A. America's economic condition and her financial and tariff policy have a direct bearing on Japan's export trade and domestic economy, for Japan's trade with the United States is far in excess of that with any other country. The close Japan-American trade relations trace back to the visit of Commodore Matthew .Perry to Japan in the 6th year of Kaéi, 1853. In the early stage the trade volume was less than that of Great Britain and France, but in 1879 Japan's exports to that country gained to more than ¥10,000,000, and America became Japan's largest customer, a position she has since retained. In 1904 Japan's exports to America reached the ¥100,000,000 mark; in 1915 they amounted to ¥204,000,000, in 1919 to ¥828,000,000, and the record amount was ¥1,006,000,000 in 1925. In the following year the amount went off to ¥860,000,000, but this, as compared with the exports of ¥4,000,000 in 1874, was an increase by 215 times and was 40 per cent of Japan's total trade volume. Raw silk, silk textiles, refined tea, straw-braid, fancy mats and porcelain have been the principal exports from the very beginning. Imports from America increased in consonance with exports. In 1874 the value of imports was just over ¥1,000,000, but by 1905 this had advanced to ¥100,000,000, and in 1920 the amount set an all-time record of ¥873,000,000. The 1926 figure of ¥680,000,000 was 680 times the 1874 trade volume and was 26 per cent of Japan's total import value of that year. Imports from America consist of raw cotton, kerosene oil, wheat, machinery and iron. The most unique feature of the Japan-American trade is that the trade balance has been mostly in favour of Japan. In the last 67 years of trade relations the last 7 only, 1932 1933, 1934, 1935, 1936, 1937, and 1938 have shown a continuous unfavourable balance to Japan, before that only five out of sixty were unfavourable, 1900, 1905, 1918, 1920-1921. In 1938 the total volume of Japan-American trade comprised 25.0 per cent of the total of Japan's foreign trade in that year.

China It is only natural that Japan, with its close proximity to China, should look to that country with its population of 400,000,000 persons and rich in natural resources as a market for its products and manufactures as well as for supplies of materials for its industries. The friction between this uncontrollable demand of Japan and the growing racial consciousness of the Chinese, however, brought about various political differences, and finally led to the Sino-Japanese War of 1894, the Manchurian Incident of 1931 and the Shanghai Affair of 1932. Boycotts of Japanese goods have been frequent.

Notwithstanding these political obstacles, the trade between the two countries steadily progressed and in 1925 the trade total reached the record amount of ¥701,000,000 including ¥486,000,000 in exports and ¥215,000,000 in imports, as viewed from the Japanese side. China thus became the second largest market for Japanese goods, the development of China as an important market for Japanese goods, as achieved by that time, may be illustrated by the following table:

China's Share in Japan's Foreign Trade

	Proportion of Exports to China to Total Exports	Proportion of Imports from China to Total Imports
1894	8.0	9.9
1908	16.0	11.7
1912	21.8	8.9
1916	17.1	14.4
1921	22.9	11.9
1926	20.6	10.1

A strong anti-Japanese sentiment began to sweep China about this time and trade began to fall off until it reached its climax after the northern expedition of the Nationalist armies in 1930. An

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illustration of these changes may be obtained from the following table:

	Exports to China	Imports from China
	(In ¥)	
1926	421,861,000	239,410,000
1927	334,183,000	226,034,000
1928	373,141,000	234,556,000
1929	346,652,000	209,975,000
1930	260,825,000	161,666,000
1931	143,876,000	103,749,000

Even in 1930 when the northern expedition ended in success for the Nanking Government and the movement of the Chinese for their racial resuscitation was at its zenith, Asia still held an important position as a market for Japan's principal manufactures, chiefly cotton goods, consuming 42.6 per cent of Japan's total exports of this kind. In this consumption, China and the Kwantung Leased Territory and Hong-Kong shared 24.7 per cent. Furthermore, almost all the remainder consumed in other parts of Asia was handled by Chinese traders.

The Manchurian Incident, 1931, enabled Japan to get the lion's share in the foreign trade of Manchoukuo, about 71 per cent in the imports of the new State during 1935 and 51 per cent in the exports during the same year, but on the other hand, combined with the Shanghai Affair, it intensified the anti-Japanese movement in China. Increases in China's tariffs on Japanese goods were also effected in rapid succession, thus dealing a great blow to Japan's trade with China and at the same time furnishing a chance for the United States, Great Britain and Germany to recover their commercial influence of former years in that country. But the trade relation is improving since 1936 with the increase of Japanese influence in that country as a consequence of the China Affair.

TRADE WITH CHINA AFTER THE MANCHURIAN INCIDENT

(In ¥1,000)

	Export	Import	Balance
1932	129,478	77,175	52,303
1933	108,253	113,357	5,104
1934	117,062	119,573	2,511
1935	148,788	138,817	14,971
1936	159,690	154,837	4,853
1937	179,251	143,636	35,615
1938	312,900	164,611	148,289

Note: The underlined figures under the heading of "Balance" denote excess of import while others denote excess of export.

AMOUNT OF EXPORTS TO VARIOUS COUNTRIES

(In ¥ 1,000)

	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936	1937	1938
ASIA:							
Manchoukuo	25,947	82,071	107,151	126,045	150,859	216,092	316,323
China	129,478	108,253	117,062	148,788	159,691	179,251	312,900
Kwantung L. T.	120,584	221,068	295,868	300,269	347,165	395,916	536,317
British India	192,492	205,154	258,220	275,637	259,108	299,367	188,040
Hong-Kong	18,141	23,419	33,497	49,731	58,445	49,150	16,754
Straits Settlements	25,549	46,133	63,320	48,536	58,770	67,433	20,696
Asiatic Russia	13,065	12,090	11,366	26,181	22,993	23,851	4,715
French Indo-China	2,343	3,680	2,654	4,020	—	—	3,082
Dutch East Indies	100,254	157,487	158,450	143,041	129,495	200,051	104,145
Philippines	22,362	24,050	36,460	48,058	51,840	60,348	32,599
Siam	8,581	18,124	28,048	40,258	43,028	49,382	39,269
Aden	8,307	7,193	9,353	13,208	13,851	14,177	8,534
Syria	—	—	11,699	12,559	13,078	19,250	12,539
Iraq	—	—	17,166	22,073	19,019	23,644	17,082
Ceylon	—	—	19,792	11,887	13,840	18,656	14,620
Others and total	677,613	930,636	1,169,503	1,304,433	1,370,970	1,645,915	1,664,725
EUROPE:							
Great Britain	59,658	87,849	109,269	119,458	147,309	168,297	134,972
France	21,358	38,736	38,813	42,467	43,475	47,208	36,814
Germany	9,098	12,411	19,677	26,766	35,054	43,261	33,015
Italy	5,660	6,167	9,579	6,988	4,468	7,111	3,256
Belgium	4,160	7,739	9,675	15,393	16,230	20,650	10,151
Netherlands	12,445	12,325	17,882	18,316	15,385	18,440	11,470
Russia	1,379	1,575	1,638	2,138	8,357	—	—
Norway	465	1,608	2,828	4,482	6,172	8,901	4,561
Sweden	1,610	3,259	6,113	6,784	8,821	11,545	8,277
Spain	910	1,844	1,749	3,546	—	—	—
Turkey	5,964	2,431	2,194	3,241	—	—	2,659

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	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936	1937	1938
Denmark	1,412	1,412	1,262	1,359	—	—	1,361
Greece	330	1,095	1,059	1,128	—	—	507
Portugal	344	529	572	1,062	—	—	1,225
Palestine	—	—	6,412	8,400	5,377	5,745	3,087
Czechoslovakia	31	26	40	78	—	—	471
Others and total	125,748	182,078	227,772	262,705	307,718	356,299	261,018
AMERICA:							
United States	445,147	492,237	398,928	535,515	594,251	639,428	425,123
Canada	8,562	6,580	8,666	7,977	14,553	20,036	15,244
Mexico	638	1,491	4,009	5,464	7,190	13,622	3,317
Cuba	962	3,328	9,986	5,047	—	—	1,347
Salvador	394	684	2,289	71	—	—	—
Colombia	—	—	9,005	7,832	—	—	—
Panama	551	1,110	4,250	6,150	9,546	—	6,228
Peru	841	3,899	6,879	6,961	6,256	6,344	5,760
Chile	286	1,475	7,459	6,647	7,426	10,742	6,129
Argentina	7,553	12,261	20,013	28,603	22,712	42,481	19,607
Brazil	1,330	2,765	3,064	5,925	8,840	17,305	10,388
Uruguay	422	2,451	6,964	5,676	7,891	10,106	3,988
Haiti	—	—	8,493	6,803	—	—	—
Venezuela	—	—	1,970	3,565	7,814	9,139	5,480
Others and total	472,229	545,710	512,367	652,786	718,859	824,005	529,971
ALL OTHERS:							
Australia	36,895	51,416	64,461	74,793	68,763	72,080	69,388
Union of South Africa	16,418	26,740	29,539	32,769	41,534	53,749	35,289
Canea, Uganda and Tanganyika	—	—	22,329	25,083	30,602	40,122	22,504
Anglo Egyptian Sudan	—	—	9,429	13,034	11,915	15,811	11,695
Mozambique	—	—	8,822	10,752	10,860	16,055	9,830
Belgian Congo	—	—	—	1,720	7,649	16,474	6,927
Nigeria	—	—	2,430	4,737	7,011	14,683	4,084
Egypt	41,876	55,607	72,988	53,800	40,907	32,772	13,997
Hawaii	6,676	6,484	5,526	7,242	9,299	—	9,774
New Zealand	2,993	6,452	8,587	11,304	16,740	19,358	14,808
French Morocco	—	—	19,076	18,813	20,512	18,283	18,727
Others and Total	132,973	206,618	262,282	279,021	295,430	349,199	233,963
Optional cargo	1,428	—	—	—	—	—	—
Total Exports	1,409,992	1,861,045	2,171,924	2,499,072	2,692,976	3,175,418	2,689,677

AMOUNT OF IMPORTS FROM VARIOUS COUNTRIES

(In ¥ 1,000)

	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936	1937	1938
ASIA:							
Manchoukuo	25,999	147,897	164,211	191,005	205,567	249,071	339,217
China	102,746	113,357	119,573	133,817	154,838	143,636	164,611
Kwantung L. T.	76,719	20,161	27,279	25,517	33,848	45,188	60,323
British India	116,865	204,737	289,672	305,646	372,009	449,486	172,231
Hong-Kong	977	3,093	1,481	2,835	3,282	5,332	1,308
Straits Settlements	25,338	38,771	63,320	40,647	41,174	67,796	54,167
Asiatic Russia	31,078	31,042	32,753	3,401	6,808	3,902	380
French Indo-China	5,692	9,909	10,620	15,011	20,155	27,012	20,301
Dutch East Indies	40,409	55,709	63,464	78,186	113,546	153,450	88,249
Philippines	9,764	14,185	18,890	23,948	36,266	45,194	35,630
Siam	11,198	12,255	1,540	5,458	8,753	13,571	4,951
Aden	1	10	27	364	362	1,357	547
British Malaya	—	—	—	28,495	39,125	47,795	46,801
Others and total	450,911	658,557	812,090	869,871	1,060,189	1,295,114	1,023,532
EUROPE:							
Great Britain	78,760	82,558	70,036	82,160	72,942	105,772	63,157

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	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936	1937	1938
France	21,094	21,745	18,299	19,798	19,898	27,885	13,502
Germany	71,742	95,797	109,583	120,817	115,500	176,363	171,170
Italy	8,972	6,035	3,461	5,831	3,766	4,416	5,84ε
Belgium	6,133	14,693	17,226	24,562	16,019	41,059	15,441
Austria	1,549	2,473	3,542	4,409	4,263	9,104	10,271
Switzerland	12,105	9,185	10,925	13,455	14,000	19,239	30,198
Netherlands	3,879	3,717	3,652	5,873	4,556	7,030	3,938
Russia	1,357	5,717	8,055	14,503	14,526	9,642	—
Norway	5,956	11,624	14,279	19,940	17,853	24,033	15,719
Sweden	9,826	16,685	21,140	23,074	23,109	49,277	24,069
Spain	2,273	3,629	2,851	4,548	2,147	2,432	—
Turkey	139	976	1,973	1,036	4,475	2,818	3,712
Iraq	—	—	—	1,258	2,882	9,028	6,114
Finland	—	—	—	5,053	6,576	9,643	3,472
Portugal	1,303	1,515	1,448	1,474	1,680	2,429	1,865
Poland	1,636	947	267	1,287	3,824	4,640	2,671
Czechoslovakia	1,454	1,702	1,755	2,331	2,929	5,508	3,413
Others and total	225,261	282,812	295,623	352,276	330,123	504,001	376,266
AMERICA:							
United States	509,873	620,778	769,359	809,644	847,496	1,269,542	915,354
Canada	39,504	46,891	54,093	52,531	73,179	104,692	91,260
Mexico	319	188	189	6,443	18,680	14,262	4,518
Peru	41	1,553	1,822	11,414	13,000	6,277	1,975
Chile	761	2,962	3,438	4,472	9,953	14,719	11,152
Argentina	2,719	6,738	12,128	16,370	29,989	42,018	24,356
Brazil	754	1,008	3,291	4,006	47,352	62,810	46,174
Uruguay	173	317	2,630	4,494	9,528	33,926	4,158
Others and total	554,738	681,012	848,295	913,124	1,054,765	1,555,628	1,105,167
ALL OTHERS:							
Australia	134,277	204,586	197,757	235,128	181,914	165,252	82,875
Union of South Africa	2,635	4,312	8,233	4,762	22,561	88,852	9,558
Canea, Uganda and Tanganyika	—	—	15,186	2,955	29,865	24,155	4,269
Italian Somaliland	—	—	—	2,357	2,879	2,608	3,216
Society Islands	—	—	—	3,279	3,444	3,239	—
Egypt	19,787	26,455	46,259	51,304	45,737	74,118	36,315
New Zealand	1,470	2,399	11,594	6,363	21,973	48,633	10,210
Others and total	167,372	259,797	293,869	318,103	318,641	428,434	158,472
Bonded	33,180	35,039	32,723	18,861	—	—	—
Total Imports	1,431,461	1,917,219	2,282,601	2,472,235	2,763,681	3,783,177	2,663,437

TRADE BY COUNTRIES

(In ¥ 1,000)

Manchoukuo

From Japan	Unit	Quantities 1938	1937	1936	Value 1938	1937	1936
Cotton tissues	(1,000 sq. yards)	136,157	212,210	223,775	38,060	55,748	47,221
Machinery and parts		—	—	—	30,384	14,835	6,370
Rayon tissues	(1,000 sq. yards)	17,029	7,188	2,189	17,029	2,574	842
Wheat flour	(100 kin)	1,198,597	231,900	736,426	15,748	2,560	9,013
Woollen tissues	(1,000 sq. yards)	6,115	2,609	991	11,651	3,800	1,052
Iron manufactures		—	—	—	10,413	5,288	2,699
Paper	(100 kin)	371,068	262,960	144,293	8,857	5,931	3,008
Scientific machinery		—	—	—	4,927	3,751	2,024
Lumber		—	—	—	4,299	1,536	1,313
Potteries		—	—	—	3,821	2,222	1,391
Soap		—	—	—	3,713	2,141	1,300
Knitted goods	(1,000 dozens)	643	634	449	3,441	3,363	1,813

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	Unit	Quantities 1938	1937	1936	Value 1938	1937	1936
Refined sugar	(100 kin)	293,775	216,087	193,222	3,259	1,715	1,361
Cotton yarn	(„)	32,569	82,727	74,863	3,232	8,334	6,391
Cotton blankets	(„)	35,277	12,055	12,841	2,547	821	693
Comestibles in tin and bottle	(„)	110,881	51,080	32,970	2,480	1,202	670
Electrical wires	(„)	20,400	12,118	7,839	2,124	936	472
Saké	(koku)	16,971	11,809	9,092	1,994	1,246	974
Leather	(100 kin)	4,866	2,028	3,443	1,831	348	477
Glass and glass manufactures		—	—	—	1,820	1,370	822
Wooden goods		—	—	—	1,580	1,015	612
Dyes	(100 kin)	30,279	19,753	16,455	1,578	565	454
Silk tissues	(1,000 sq. yards)	1,690	322	555	1,494	393	681
Books and journals		—	—	—	1,433	911	761
Rubber tires	(100 kin)	12,149	11,861	5,653	1,323	1,052	478
Oranges	(„)	213,231	170,212	141,192	1,232	771	743
Lamps and parts thereof		—	—	—	1,191	592	389
Cotton threads	(„)	7,853	5,384	3,041	1,125	681	349
Aquatic products	(„)	66,663	59,114	27,869	978	578	334
Hats and caps	(1,000 dozens)	167	212	161	973	1,192	786
Total including others		—	—	—	316,323	216,092	150,859
To Japan							
Beans and peas	(100 kin)	13,498,756	11,229,037	10,948,910	98,641	84,708	73,043
Oil cake	(„)	9,445,028	5,810,438	4,851,231	49,946	29,662	20,137
Coal	(1,000 gr. tons)	1,440	2,241	2,237	27,951	29,958	26,660
Oil yielding seeds	(100 kin)	1,659,893	1,809,472	2,602,951	17,069	19,206	23,508
Wheat bran	(„)	1,538,458	1,528,111	539,706	6,678	6,004	1,733
Paper and papar manufactures		—	—	—	6,480	69	27
Chemicals		—	—	—	5,782	4,511	5,916
Hemp, jute, etc.	(100 kin)	170,171	60,945	26,297	5,587	1,273	298
Wheat	(„)	298,172	205,988	236,149	3,191	1,961	1,759
Wool	(„)	21,458	2,969	4,578	2,478	527	269
Hides and skins	(„)	13,727	14,682	16,530	1,564	1,039	926
Lumber		—	—	—	1,294	660	298
Animal hair	(„)	5,124	2,806	2,656	1,264	1,502	846
Total including others		—	—	—	339,217	246,071	205,567

Kwantung Leased Territory

From Japan							
Machinery and parts		—	—	—	75,807	46,584	41,166
Iron manufactures		—	—	—	22,786	12,590	6,718
Wheat flour	(100 kin)	1,679,180	1,047,577	1,065,858	21,901	11,669	8,832
Rayon tissues	(1,000 sq. yards)	49,553	39,334	56,630	20,243	15,612	21,494
Papers	(100 kin)	1,004,831	846,708	684,844	19,393	13,814	9,699
Scientific machinery		—	—	—	18,808	9,041	9,922
Cotton tissues	(1,000 sq. yards)	58,328	117,609	127,097	17,389	29,426	28,331
Lumber		—	—	—	15,168	6,122	3,856
Electrical wires	(100 kin)	141,808	132,664	99,726	13,636	10,112	5,975
Refined sugar	(„)	1,271,668	1,001,814	1,790,225	13,168	7,770	13,226
Woollen tissues	(1,000 sq. yards)	5,530	7,262	9,999	11,529	11,903	13,187
Aquatic products	(100 kin)	542,082	674,339	221,153	9,230	7,402	4,402
Comestibles in tin and bottle	(„)	255,560	151,884	76,663	7,228	3,902	1,916
Potteries		—	—	—	4,643	2,353	1,859
Silk tissues	(1,000 sq. yards)	2,907	1,853	3,107	4,049	2,839	3,474
Saké	(koku)	28,456	25,503	17,794	3,026	2,575	1,975
Lamps and parts		—	—	—	2,949	1,916	1,116
Rubber tires	(100 kin)	28,489	31,801	18,187	2,853	3,449	1,601
Wooden goods		—	—	—	2,764	1,746	1,331
Copper	(„)	300,968	113,431	54,978	2,701	8,309	2,786

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	Unit	Quantities 1938	1937	1936	Value 1938	1937	1936
Knitted goods	(dozen)	489,626	481,725	445,201	2,332	2,018	1,600
Soap		—	—	—	2,090	1,154	1,138
Beer	(koku)	41,481	52,680	41,466	1,646	1,980	1,750
Glass and glass manufactures		—	—	—	1,635	1,180	799
Oranges		283,034	249,848	377,044	1,591	1,500	2,123
Drugs		—	—	—	1,587	1,242	1,495
Cakes	(100 kin)	46,287	47,850	35,897	1,324	1,234	1,036
Brass	(„)	10,632	9,320	6,394	1,223	666	349
Cotton blankets	(„)	9,229	3,605	2,806	957	235	161
Cement	(„)	763,186	220,465	1,786,646	904	286	1,874
Total including others		—	—	—	538,317	385,916	347,165
To Japan							
Chemicals		—	—	—	14,897	6,701	6,397
Salphate of ammonium, crude	(100 kin)	1 968,443	1,256,909	976,733	12,298	7,315	5,718
Oil cake	(„)	1,382,337	1,276,743	1,595,716	8,056	6,870	6,975
Salt	(„)	5,250,455	7,671,933	7,177,932	7,241	6,902	3,714
Potteries		—	—	—	1,277	726	906
Beans and peas	(„)	90,392	44,077	28,762	918	435	304
Total including others		—	—	—	60,323	45,198	33,848

China

From Japan							
Machinery and parts		—	—	—	35,925	24,152	16,936
Cotton tissues	(1,000 sq. yards)	110,644	44,900	37,330	23,911	11,296	7,861
Wheat flour	(100 kin)	1,880,771	1,283,384	89,965	23,062	15,249	620
Paper	(„)	729,946	302,009	409,329	16,149	6,940	7,413
Lumber		—	—	—	13,839	2,951	2,460
Comestibles in tin and bottle	(„)	348,322	31,027	8,844	9,865	854	338
Woollen tissues	(1,000 sq. yards)	5,547	2,780	2,915	9,508	3,823	3,616
Saké	(koku)	81,574	19,785	3,245	8,730	1,980	339
Rayon	(100 kin)	64,305	41,113	22,230	7,487	4,629	2,002
Refined sugar	(„)	701,882	1,159,358	905,175	7,309	8,298	5,826
Rayon tissues	(1,000 sq. yards)	20,861	5,164	1,690	6,883	1,334	492
Aquatic products	(100 kin)	368,832	280,479	692,489	6,552	3,418	7,219
Iron manufactures		—	—	—	6,357	2,668	2,967
Beer	(„)	149,011	23,523	12,679	6,034	944	555
Scientific machinery		—	—	—	4,224	1,870	2,234
Electric wires	(„)	38,436	37,597	37,044	3,599	2,267	1,619
Vegetables and fruits		—	—	—	2,814	1,103	1,211
Coal	(gram. ton)	164,086	34,820	106,968	2,514	290	828
Potteries		—	—	—	2,453	1,146	1,127
Dyes	(100 kin)	37,763	21,979	40,943	2,218	1,240	1,562
Matches	(„)	102,453	339	141	2,053	9	3
Cakes	(„)	69,245	40,253	5,088	2,050	1,373	110
Glass and glass manufactures		—	—	—	2,015	1,161	1,319
Lamps and parts		—	—	—	1,613	520	502
Soap		—	—	—	1,500	432	535
Rubber tires	(100 kin)	12,725	22,683	22,975	1,251	2,132	2,010
Drugs		—	—	—	1,154	502	456
Cement	(„)	1,260,996	220,827	375,846	911	138	251
Total including others		—	—	—	312,900	179,251	159,691
To Japan							
Cotton ginned	(100 kin)	1,432,414	400,824	463,944	71,790	23,610	22,778
Coal	(1,000 gram. ton)	1,621	1,287	1,018	26,877	16,279	12,595
Salt	(100 kin)	8,407,199	6,613,104	4,250,666	8,395	4,615	3,084
Oil-yielding seeds	(„)	846,651	1,884,510	1,955,637	6,963	14,093	14,332

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	Unit	Quantities 1938	1937	1936	Value 1938	1937	1936
Wool	(100 kin)	44,000	2,984	5,095	3,327	382	611
Waste fibres	(„)	146,418	86,235	155,712	3,211	2,654	4,058
Hemp and Vegetable fibres	(„)	117,648	215,738	387,876	3,116	5,127	7,556
Hides and skins	(„)	50,832	161,814	201,105	3,083	10,070	9,177
Beans and peas	(„)	221,372	441,354	653,049	2,184	3,635	4,593
Wheat bran	(„)	529,332	1,022,376	1,966,028	2,033	4,038	6,376
Oil cake	(„)	394,739	1,293,534	2,004,822	1,957	6,143	7,651
Animals hair	(„)	4,666	13,656	19,840	1,774	4,871	6,039
Cocoons	(„)	7,224	2,314	5,350	1,703	261	482
Beef	(„)	40,072	109,780	186,117	1,654	3,958	6,204
Total including others		—	—	—	164,611	143,636	154,838
Hong-Kong							
From Japan							
Cotton tissues	(1,000 sq. yards)	23,091	84,657	49,384	4,586	9,436	15,102
Coal	(gram. ton)	247,106	384,306	424,560	3,216	3,564	4,023
Rayon tissues	(1,000 sq. yards)	8,704	27,253	26,987	2,150	7,673	7,509
Total including others		—	—	—	16,754	49,150	58,445
To Japan							
Total		—	—	—	1,308	5,332	3,282
French Indo-China							
From Japan							
Total		—	—	—	3,082	4,624	4,697
To Japan							
Coal	(gram. ton)	607,633	819,330	869,394	12,108	12,832	11,656
India Rubber	(100 kin)	20,666	91,277	59,988	1,364	8,371	4,075
Total including others		—	—	—	20,301	27,012	20,152
Siam							
From Japan							
Cotton tissues	(1,000 sq. yards)	79,946	71,411	72,186	14,905	10,089	13,620
Rayon tissues	(„)	5,984	12,079	16,768	1,569	3,522	4,440
Total including others		—	—	—	39,269	49,382	43,021
To Japan							
Rice and paddy	(100 kin)	377,287	520,590	882,218	2,800	3,757	4,820
Lumber		—	—	—	1,236	3,102	1,773
Total including others		—	—	—	4,951	13,571	8,757
Straits Settlements							
From Japan							
Cotton tissues	(1,000 sq. yards)	26,294	51,785	48,367	5,053	12,231	9,188
Rayon tissues	(„)	7,775	11,258	9,683	2,207	3,632	2,848
Tin ore	(100 kin)	14,737	14,303	12,944	2,049	1,577	1,362
Coal	(gram. ton)	151,449	322,181	270,632	1,948	3,388	2,806
Silk tissues	(1,000 sq. yards)	1,812	7,195	5,954	1,122	4,597	3,613
Total including others		—	—	—	20,696	67,433	58,770
To Japan							
India rubber	(100 kin)	386,422	433,938	346,425	25,184	41,566	23,662
Phosphorite	(„)	1,574,747	1,738,087	1,640,451	4,148	4,186	3,290
Total including others		—	—	—	54,168	67,796	41,174

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British India

		Quantities			Value		
From Japan	Unit	1938	1937	1936	1938	1937	1936
Cotton tissues	(1,000 sq. yards)	469,880	331,191	479,677	67,879	63,041	72,517
Cotton yarns	(100 kin)	141,201	110,657	126,528	20,502	19,846	18,051
Rayon tissues	(1,000 sq. yards)	32,448	94,854	92,081	11,627	32,466	26,221
Silk tissues	(„)	17,755	25,707	24,413	7,896	13,838	13,203
Machinery and their manufactures		—	—	—	5,794	6,443	2,969
Glass and glass manufactures		—	—	—	5,492	7,215	5,817
Rayon yarns	(100 kin)	42,802	231,858	106,686	4,274	23,154	8,747
Woollen yarns	(„)	12,534	18,478	15,561	3,673	6,870	4,409
Jewelry for personal adornment		—	—	—	3,515	4,048	3,202
Woollen tissues	(1,000 sq. yards)	3,479	8,554	5,569	3,460	9,884	5,254
Iron manufactures		—	—	—	2,728	6,221	4,309
Potteries		—	—	—	2,580	4,240	3,696
Knitted goods	(1,000 dozens)	1,314	2,311	2,028	2,366	4,560	4,256
Toys		—	—	—	1,715	2,784	2,751
Raw silk	(100 kin)	2,358	10,993	7,281	1,520	8,460	3,872
Spun silk yarns	(„)	2,997	11,716	10,461	1,465	3,885	4,492
Camphor	(„)	7,460	7,207	7,391	1,405	1,447	1,415
Lumber		—	—	—	1,242	1,533	1,123
Papers	(„)	177,366	198,445	144,005	1,123	1,613	1,025
Total including others		—	—	—	188,040	299,367	259,108
To Japan							
Cotton and ginned cotton	(100 kin)	3,096,085	7,016,238	6,726,944	113,331	363,635	315,061
Hemp and other vegetable fibres	(„)	202,476	449,591	443,633	3,769	8,344	7,342
Leathers	(„)	3,362	8,714	7,638	1,088	3,436	2,346
Total including others		—	—	—	172,231	449,486	372,009

Philippine Islands

From Japan							
Cotton tissues	(1,000 sq. yards)	32,677	44,174	44,314	6,053	12,057	7,680
Knitted goods	(1,000 dozens)	1,595	1,676	2,296	4,024	5,015	5,475
Rayon tissues	(1,000 sq. yards)	10,610	25,303	35,443	2,096	5,500	8,674
Coal	(1,000 gram. ton)	151	246	268	1,953	2,373	2,448
Cotton yarns	(100 kin)	13,147	17,925	13,938	1,134	1,761	1,259
Glass and glass manufactures		—	—	—	1,130	1,991	1,330
Total including others		—	—	—	32,599	60,348	51,840
To Japan							
Hemp and other vegetable fibres	(100 kin)	647,689	967,854	1,203,173	11,889	23,224	20,680
Lumber		—	—	—	6,695	11,260	7,330
Leaf tobacco	(„)	17,230	17,605	12,394	915	959	709
Total including others		—	—	—	35,630	45,194	36,266

British Borneo

To Japan							
Oils, fats, waxes and manufactures thereof		—	—	—	9,173	11,969	9,279
Lumber		—	—	—	1,980	3,198	4,306
India rubber	(100 kin)	28,804	31,955	20,681	1,553	2,334	1,283
Total including others		—	—	—	13,832	18,776	15,753

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British Malay Peninsula

From Japan	Unit	Quantities 1938	1937	1936	Value 1938	1937	1936
Total		—	—	—	2,181	3,866	2,441
To Japan							
India rubber	(100 kin)	159,512	194,861	280,738	10,700	18,144	19,386
Total including others		—	—	—	46,801	47,795	39,125

Dutch East Indies

From Japan							
Cotton tissues	(1,000 sq. yards)	206,436	434,392	351,718	31,486	85,703	55,391
Cotton yarns	(100 kin)	66,296	92,138	46,147	7,419	13,790	5,489
Rayon tissues	(1,000 sq. yards)	26,688	46,780	51,556	7,202	11,490	11,633
Knitted goods	(1,000 dozens)	2,190	2,694	1,990	6,086	7,602	4,426
Iron manufactures		—	—	—	2,857	7,774	4,181
Potteries		—	—	—	2,714	3,109	2,388
Glass and glass manufactures		—	—	—	2,676	3,436	2,206
Lumber		—	—	—	1,636	1,687	1,082
Comestibles in tin and bottle	(100 kin)	95,778	148,301	104,574	1,584	2,285	1,530
Cement	(„)	1,480,284	1,408,005	816,301	1,150	1,046	607
Machinery and parts		—	—	—	1,038	2,113	968
Total including others		—	—	—	104,145	200,051	129,495
To Japan							
India rubber	(100 kin)	181,653	276,419	331,207	12,080	25,775	22,878
Indian corns	(„)	979,224	3,036,711	1,785,613	5,234	15,440	6,981
Sugar	(„)	635,183	2,698,347	3,396,964	5,189	17,724	19,767
Lumber		—	—	—	2,282	2,477	2,012
Oil-yielding seeds	(„)	287,294	613,692	519,982	2,268	5,062	3,765
Table-salt	(„)	977,630	410,695	—	1,410	569	—
Copra	(„)	87,618	98,347	106,136	909	1,595	1,152
Total including others		—	—	—	88,249	153,450	113,546

Iraq

From Japan							
Cotton tissues	(1,000 sq. yards)	53,613	47,623	55,438	9,797	10,875	10,449
Rayon tissues	(„)	8,662	22,126	16,161	2,260	5,906	3,923
Total including others		—	—	—	17,082	23,644	19,019
To Japan							
Cotton	(100 kin)	60,838	32,909	1,051	3,324	2,373	75
Wheat	(„)	188,609	283,489	133,531	1,423	2,214	880
Total including others		—	—	—	6,114	9,028	2,882

Great Britain

From Japan							
Comestibles in tin and bottle	(100 kin)	923,153	654,349	650,919	40,832	29,122	32,384
Raw silk	(„)	33,609	34,674	28,938	26,175	31,430	23,628
Silk tissues	(1,000 sq. yards)	15,286	13,491	13,156	9,023	9,518	8,306
Toys		—	—	—	5,504	7,036	5,816
Lumber		—	—	—	4,962	12,141	3,301
Shawls	(100 kin)	9,224	2,982	1,314	4,251	1,784	818
Knitted goods	(1,000 dozens)	1,200	2,066	2,072	3,203	5,967	5,206

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	Unit	Quantities 1938	1937	1936	Value 1938	1937	1936
Beans and peas	(100 kin)	205,523	293,605	327,713	2,706	4,739	4,463
Cotton tissues	(1,000 sq. yards)	16,587	24,155	19,059	2,677	4,775	2,985
Buttons	(1,000 gross)	3,860	7,573	6,762	1,837	3,047	2,566
Lamps and parts		—	—	—	1,453	2,895	2,459
Rags	(100 kin)	65,401	179,867	138,677	1,256	2,978	2,250
Tea	(,,)	29,347	80,157	32,170	1,147	4,156	1,561
Fish and whale oils	(,,)	53,156	106,946	72,864	1,116	1,531	922
Glass and glass manufactures		—	—	—	963	890	488
Celluloid	(,,)	7,079	10,267	11,867	940	1,197	1,212
Total including others		—	—	—	134,972	168,297	147,309
To Japan							
Watches, scientific machinery and others		—	—	—	38,849	31,058	20,783
Ores and metals		—	—	—	11,295	33,969	14,386
Woollen tissues		—	—	—	2,613	8,971	9,389
Hemp and other vegetable fibres	(100 kin)	6,453	296	—	973	46	—
Total including others		—	—	—	63,157	105,772	72,942

France

From Japan							
Raw silk	(100 kin)	31,308	30,262	27,702	24,631	26,111	21,772
Comestibles in tin and bottle	(,,)	46,988	60,919	61,978	1,675	2,722	2,472
Silk tissues	(1,000 sq. yards)	3,169	2,612	2,736	1,515	1,673	1,443
Total including others		—	—	—	36,814	47,208	43,475
To Japan							
Ores and metals		—	—	—	2,987	7,887	1,297
Sulphate of potash, crude	(100 kin)	227,554	205,854	201,526	2,047	1,725	1,607
Total including others		—	—	—	13,502	27,885	19,898

Germany

From Japan							
Cotton tissues	(1,000 sq. yards)	20,003	20,269	26,846	3,115	4,048	4,086
Raw silk	(100 kin)	3,319	2,537	2,258	2,903	2,430	1,797
Fish and whale oils	(,,)	180,018	407,007	274,721	1,857	6,314	3,931
Beans and peas	(,,)	190,171	152,503	57,810	1,808	1,700	589
Silk tissues	(1,000 sq. yards)	2,268	2,614	1,711	1,449	1,464	851
Fish flour	(100 kin)	172,589	285,582	280,347	1,246	2,291	1,975
Isinglass	(,,)	4,483	3,949	2,571	1,201	1,060	542
Peppermint oil	(,,)	2,284	2,567	1,718	981	1,133	919
Waste silk, floss silk and dupion	(,,)	2,019	1,889	2,949	934	694	830
Total including others		—	—	—	33,015	43,261	35,065
To Japan							
Sulphate of ammonium	(100 kin)	2,337	1,218	2,290	14,639	6,349	15,607
Sulphate of potash, crude	(,,)	1,602,795	2,125,063	977,166	14,522	17,891	7,673
Hops	(,,)	10,571	9,220	11,036	2,814	2,351	2,478
Synthetic colours	(,,)	2,250	27,014	18,818	1,711	12,313	6,983
Chloride of potash, crude	(,,)	182,504	579,860	103,037	1,348	4,837	826
Coal-tar distillates	(,,)	7,093	25,830	14,144	1,153	4,788	2,399
Total including others		—	—	—	171,170	176,363	115,500

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		Quantities			Value		
	Unit	1938	1937	1936	1938	1937	1936
Italy							
From Japan							
Total		—	—	—	3,256	7,111	4,468
To Japan							
Ores and metals		—	—	—	2,069	1,582	1,846
Total including others		—	—	—	5,843	4,416	3,766
Switzerland							
From Japan							
Total		—	—	—	1,200	2,149	839
To Japan							
Ores and metals		—	—	—	11,273	842	2,030
Chemicals		—	—	—	6,447	1,733	1,596
Watches and parts thereof		—	—	—	2,443	4,319	2,761
Total including others		—	—	—	30,198	19,239	14,000
Belgium							
From Japan							
Comestibles in tin and bottle	(100 kin)	72,450	130,934	76,745	2,337	3,903	2,465
Total including others		—	—	—	10,151	20,650	16,230
To Japan							
Ores and metals		—	—	—	11,843	31,812	9,171
Sulphate of ammonium, crude	(100 kin)	145,224	189,536	16,933	998	941	117
Total including others		—	—	—	15,441	41,059	16,019
Holland							
From Japan							
Comestibles in tin and bottle	(100 kin)	42,394	63,586	41,334	1,072	1,635	1,040
Total including others		—	—	—	11,456	18,440	15,385
To Japan							
Sulphate of ammonium, crude	(100 kin)	329,898	275,390	—	2,179	1,182	—
Total including others		—	—	—	3,938	7,300	4,556
Sweden							
From Japan							
Cotton tissues	(1,000 sq. yards)	14,808	14,720	9,527	2,716	2,034	1,415
Buttons	(1,000 gross)	669	1,082	960	318	528	477
Total including others		—	—	—	8,277	11,545	8,821
To Japan							
Scientific machinery		—	—	—	8,663	9,402	5,772
Total including others		—	—	—	24,069	49,277	23,109
Norway							
From Japan							
Cotton tissues	(1,000 sq. yards)	5,826	6,680	7,258	1,149	1,567	1,416
Total including others		—	—	—	4,561	8,901	6,172

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To Japan	Unit	Quantities 1938	1937	1936	Value 1938	1937	1936
Ores and metals		—	—	—	8,596	4,425	2,172
Pulp	(100 kin)	307,269	1,052,406	944,566	5,400	17,071	14,621
Total including others		—	—	—	15,719	24,033	17,853

Turkey

From Japan							
Cotton tissues	(1,000 sq. yards)	12,716	14,451	26,521	2,081	2,496	4,074
Total including others		—	—	—	2,659	2,753	4,293
To Japan							
Cotton and ginned cotton	(100 kin)	39,854	5,467	48,945	1,478	291	2,439
Table salt	(„)	960,320	1,234,897	1,767,268	1,247	1,731	1,368
Total including others		—	—	—	3,712	2,818	4,475

The U. S. A.

From Japan							
Raw silk	(100 kin)	293,274	379,977	427,624	297,882	325,225	333,949
Comestibles in tin and bottle	(„)	161,192	322,326	294,551	12,212	21,940	15,458
Potteries		—	—	—	8,696	19,460	15,530
Silk tissues	(1,000 sq. yards)	21,122	27,444	19,339	7,402	11,531	7,544
Toys		—	—	—	6,093	16,521	13,689
Vegetable oil	(100 kin)	273,978	667,739	1,155,621	5,638	18,956	31,663
Insecticide	(„)	66,419	131,739	84,346	5,275	6,879	2,885
Tea	(„)	92,152	126,728	110,745	4,316	7,750	5,548
Rags	(„)	260,449	844,978	984,816	4,015	9,512	9,723
Plaits for hat making	(1,000 bundle)	10,681	15,204	12,149	3,640	4,780	3,593
Aquatic products	(100 kin)	103,434	156,806	106,673	3,370	3,972	2,811
Rugs	(1,000 sq. yards)	5,202	13,529	16,104	3,291	8,950	8,073
Hats and caps	(1,000 dozens)	639	1,666	1,180	3,081	8,979	5,233
Menthol	(100 kin)	2,382	3,632	2,325	2,688	3,271	2,406
Fish flour	(„)	332,415	904,406	779,694	2,590	7,068	5,027
Cotton tissues	(1,000 sq. yards)	16,115	123,776	73,444	2,407	22,138	13,780
Table clothes	(100 kin)	1,112	78,355	55,874	1,902	11,982	7,678
Fish and whale oils	(„)	41,125	33,866	27,596	1,886	1,486	864
Glass and glass manufactures		—	—	—	1,857	4,543	3,259
Lily Bulbs	(1,000 pieces)	20,861	23,650	21,638	1,828	1,990	1,751
Lamps and accessories		—	—	—	1,737	4,238	4,931
Papers	(100 kin)	8,418	16,734	15,349	1,497	1,773	1,116
Creosote	(„)	317,899	411,437	—	1,492	1,985	—
Knitted goods	(1,000 dozens)	745	3,087	3,833	1,462	6,849	6,784
Jewelry for personal adornment		—	—	—	1,369	3,132	1,116
Isinglass	(100 kin)	4,465	5,061	4,928	1,152	1,236	998
Camphor	(„)	5,624	6,735	8,585	1,040	1,490	1,736
Total including others		—	—	—	425,123	639,428	594,251
To Japan							
Ores and metals		—	—	—	262,866	472,417	121,919
Oils, fats, waxes & manufactures thereof		—	—	—	240,143	185,025	120,927
Cotton and ginned cotton	(100 kin)	3,248,976	4,223,964	5,928,746	166,414	306,388	372,145
Scientific machinery		—	—	—	158,110	126,647	79,505
Electric motors and transformers	(„)	5,097	2,683	1,508	1,869	980	557
Telephonic instruments and parts thereof	(„)	—	—	—	1,504	1,074	515
Pulp for fibres	(„)	872,310	3,185,610	2,603,407	15,111	49,181	31,758
Hides and skins	(„)	201,113	112,301	72,301	10,954	9,396	3,972

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	Unit	Quantities 1938	1937	1936	Value 1938	1937	1936
Lumber		—	—	—	9,770	30,077	32,184
Chloride of potash, crude	(,,)	652,548	819,009	898,631	5,950	7,055	7,326
Phosphorite	(,,)	2,438,450	4,290,491	3,648,966	4,725	7,760	5,499
Rosin	(,,)	149,723	404,887	430,483	1,988	7,067	4,427
Carbon black	(,,)	63,274	99,192	75,919	1,753	2,914	2,157
Waste fibres	(,,)	80,307	147,224	118,745	1,475	3,524	2,829
Leaf tobaccos	(,,)	9,489	15,192	41,879	1,442	3,226	7,394
Total including others		—	—	—	915,354	1,269,542	847,453
Canada							
From Japan							
Toys		—	—	—	1,262	1,669	1,081
Potteries		—	—	—	1,235	2,038	2,025
Rayon tissues	(1,000 sq. yards)	2,424	3,044	3,039	911	997	725
Total including others		—	—	—	15,244	20,036	14,554
To Japan							
Ores and metals		—	—	—	54,112	51,405	30,289
Pulp for fibre	(100 kin)	284,278	879,390	469,888	5,046	12,619	4,150
Asbestos and manufactures	(,,)	363,104	503,997	248,975	5,028	5,956	3,005
Lumber		—	—	—	3,803	11,517	6,217
Total including others		—	—	—	91,260	104,692	73,179
Chile							
From Japan							
Cotton tissues	(1,000 sq. yards)	21,036	36,403	32,845	4,289	7,951	6,021
Total including others		—	—	—	6,129	10,742	7,426
To Japan							
Ores and metals		—	—	—	7,777	8,643	2,285
Nitrate of soda, crude	(100 kin)	389,754	596,108	807,622	2,272	3,032	4,398
Total including others		—	—	—	11,152	14,719	9,953
Argentine							
From Japan							
Cotton tissues	(1,000 sq. yards)	66,544	131,010	82,169	13,130	29,196	14,780
Total including others		—	—	—	19,607	42,481	22,712
To Japan							
Hides and skins	(100 kin)	117,551	80,886	27,678	6,883	5,871	1,391
Wool	(,,)	55,265	126,548	56,773	5,946	17,713	6,562
Tanning extracts	(,,)	214,578	207,680	149,361	4,425	4,078	2,817
Indian corn	(,,)	415,968	873,219	3,141,976	2,657	4,626	12,414
Ores and metals		—	—	—	1,121	1,484	519
Total including others		—	—	—	24,356	42,018	29,988
Brazil							
From Japan							
Woollen yarns	(100 kin)	6,914	7,533	5,038	2,358	3,013	1,644
Raw silk	(,,)	1,971	3,359	1,316	1,977	2,918	1,120
Spun silk yarns	(,,)	930	379	977	937	232	594
Total including others		—	—	—	10,388	17,305	8,840
To Japan							
Ginned cotton	(100 kin)	833,254	838,580	707,526	41,365	56,488	44,764
Coffee	(,,)	74,479	72,323	42,409	2,763	3,438	1,373
Total including others		—	—	—	46,174	62,810	47,352

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Egypt

		Quantities			Value		
From Japan	**Unit**	**1938**	**1937**	**1936**	**1938**	**1937**	**1936**
Cotton tissues	(1,000 sq. yards)	21,417	49,687	106,147	2,347	10,510	20,525
Leaf tobaccos	(100 kin)	30,564	28,406	20,188	2,069	1,913	1,393
Silk tissues	(1,000 sq. yards)	3,391	5,774	5,074	1,772	3,158	2,333
Woollen tissues	(„)	950	2,823	3,167	1,458	4,671	4,051
Total including others		—	—	—	13,997	32,772	40,907
To Japan							
Seed cotton and ginned cotton	(100 kin)	404,720	670,390	445,463	27,529	58,759	36,415
Phosphorite	(„)	3,391,839	5,477,085	5,024,161	5,879	10,022	7,044
Total including others		—	—	—	36,315	74,118	45,737

Canea, Uganda & Tanganyka

From Japan							
Cotton tissues	(1,000 sq. yards)	85,071	103,098	100,386	15,882	23,003	18,724
Sarong	(100 kin)	8,376	22,890	13,218	1,082	3,262	1,503
Total including others		—	—	—	22,504	40,122	30,602
To Japan							
Seed cotton and ginned cotton	(100 kin)	63,844	275,902	396,732	3,467	21,529	27,500
Total including others		—	—	—	4,269	24,155	29,865

Union of South Africa

From Japan							
Cotton tissues	(1,000 sq. yards)	26,169	32,811	29,714	7,124	10,214	7,358
Woollen tissues	(„)	2,674	2,647	2,691	4,283	5,584	3,440
Rayon tissues	(„)	8,603	16,903	14,320	3,475	7,168	5,838
Knitted goods	(1,000 dozens)	564	729	844	2,579	3,180	2,711
Silk tissues	(1,000 sq. yards)	1,994	4,958	6,368	1,454	3,531	4,005
Potteries		—	—	—	1,009	1,259	1,144
Cotton towels	(1,000 dozens)	285	300	208	985	872	634
Total including others		—	—	—	35,289	53,749	41,534
To Japan							
Wool	(100 kin)	39,666	559,015	140,780	4,266	82,763	17,389
Tanning materials	(„)	190,765	189,287	151,792	1,806	1,673	1,075
Cotton	(„)	32,151	—	783	1,750	—	55
Total including others		—	—	—	9,558	88,852	22,561

Australia

From Japan							
Rayon tissues	(1,000 sq. yards)	40,657	42,344	58,061	17,303	16,667	18,415
Cotton tissues	(„)	64,394	52,569	70,058	15,070	13,527	13,986
Raw silk	(100 kin)	7,840	8,630	6,402	6,461	8,132	5,231
Potteries		—	—	—	2,915	2,599	2,291
Comestibles in tin and bottle	(„)	46,775	55,142	20,713	2,464	2,489	946
Toys		—	—	—	2,187	2,276	2,137
Silk tissues	(1,000 sq. yards)	2,404	3,228	5,830	1,923	2,664	4,076
Glass and glass manufactures		—	—	—	1,367	1,412	1,114
Total including others		—	—	—	69,388	72,080	68,763

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To Japan	Unit	Quantities 1938	1937	1936	Value 1938	1937	1936
Wool	(100 kin)	591,136	737,195	1,169,468	64,882	42,822	18,316
Ores and metals		—	—	—	7,933	18,833	10,163
Wheat	(„)	510,235	1,679,998	2,810,246	4,008	15,623	17,392
Hides and skins	(„)	42,551	73,128	23,525	2,265	5,023	1,124
Total including others		—	—	—	82,875	165,252	181,914

New Zealand

From Japan							
Rayon tissues	(1,000 sq. yards)	8,988	13,117	14,210	3,318	4,621	4,151
Cotton tissues	(„)	9,590	11,209	12,287	2,493	3,044	2,838
Total including others		—	—	—	14,808	19,358	16,740
To Japan							
Wool	(100 kin)	85,671	296,050	179,455	8,272	42,822	18,316
Casein	(,)	31,596	42,529	42,595	920	2,344	1,738
Total including others		—	—	—	10,210	48,633	21,973

The Invisible Trade

The invisible foreign trade of Japan for 1936 showed an excess of payments as in the previous year according to the report of the Finance Ministry, but the excess payments amounted only to ¥36,397,000 as compared with ¥193,326,000 in the previous year.

INVISIBLE FOREIGN TRADE OF JAPAN

(Compiled by the Ministry of Finance)

(In ¥1,000)

	Items	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936
I	Assets (Invisible Exports):					
(a)	Ordinary receipts:					
	Interest and dividends on foreign securities	19,362	23,806	22,517	26,509	34,425
	Profit from undertakings abroad and remunerations for services rendered abroad	157,244	167,378	186,913	213,512	212,353
	Receipts in connection with shipping	181,843	227,930	251,520	303,180	334,612
	Insurance	117,258	117,570	138,518	128,629	137,476
	Receipts from foreign nationals in Japan, tourists, missionaries, etc.	55,478	69,458	89,232	95,266	107,688
	Government receipts from abroad	4,964	7,218	5,800	18,253	34,894
	Others	41,267	51,120	93,730	35,204	26,612
	Total	577,416	664,480	788,230	820,553	888,060
(b)	Extraordinary receipts.					
	Foreign capital invested in Japan	84,475	119,556	93,317	159,437	193,014
	Collection of capital invested abroad	105,988	174,287	218,635	225,688	484,934
	Total	190,463	293,843	312,006	385,125	677,948
	Grand total	767,879	958,323	1,100,236	1,205,678	1,566,008
II	Liabilities (Invisible Imports):					
(a)	Ordinary Payments:					
	Interest and dividends on Japanese securities possessed by foreign nationals	108,330	138,914	124,632	134,781	121,070
	Profit of foreign undertakings and remunerations for foreign services in Japan	19,857	9,466	9,621	11,298	15,325

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Payments in connection with shipping	82,142	101,868	106,906	125,520	140,750
Payments in connection with insurance	108,359	108,876	115,080	118,222	121,971
Expenditures abroad of Japanese tourists and travellers	39,852	68,462	65,791	68,942	70,507
Government expenditures abroad	89,182	128,008	141,696	159,975	164,526
Others	14,440	21,677	32,312	23,602	21,056
Total	462,162	577,271	596,042	642,340	655,205
(b) Extraordinary Payments:					
Investment abroad of Japanese capital	100,954	215,775	398,537	579,990	652,378
Collection of foreign capital invested in Japan	189,645	99,044	96,910	176,674	294,822
	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936
Total	290,599	314,819	495,447	756,664	947,200
Grand total	752,761	892,090	1,091,489	1,399,004	1,602,405
III Balance:					
(a) Excess of ordinary receipts	115,254	87,209	192,188	178,213	232,855
(b) Excess of extraordinary payments	100,136	20,976	183,411	371,539	269,252
Excess of receipts (+) or payments (−)	+15,118	+66,233	+8,747	−193,326	−36,397

Balance of International Payments

This table is based on the form required by the League of Nations and includes the figures for the foreign trade of Chōsen and Taiwan.

BALANCE OF INTERNATIONAL PAYMENTS

(In Million yen)

CURRENT ITEMS.

INWARD OR CREDIT MOVEMENTS (Exports)

I. Merchandise.	1936	1935
1. Merchandise, including silver bullion and coins other than gold, exported	2,871.9	2,874.5
2. Adjustment of 1 in order to arrive at the commercial value f. o. b.	—	—
3. Contraband exports	—	—
Total	2,871.9	2,874.5
II. Interest and dividends.		
4. Interest received on intergovernmental debts n. e. i. (Inter-allied debts, etc.)	—	—
5. Interest received on other foreign Government and municipal loans	17.3	15.8
6. Yield of other long-term capital investments abroad:		
a. interest	12.1	5.9
b. dividends, profits, etc.	125.7	106.2
7. Interest received from short-term capital invested abroad	0.7	0.9
Total	155.8	128.8
III. Other services.		
8. Income of national ships on account of all foreign traffic (a):		
a. ordinary freights	279.0	247.8
b. charter money	0.2	0.5
c. passage money	26.7	26.3
9. Port receipts from foreign shipping in national ports	9.2	8.6

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OUTWARD OR DEBIT CAPITAL MOVEMENT

	I. Long-term operations.	1936	1935
12.	Payments on account of amortisation of intergovernmental debts, n. e. i. (Inter-allied debts, etc.)	—	—
13.	Payments on account of amortisation of other government and municipal foreign debt	44.0	89.5
14.	Payments on account of amortisation of other loans raised abroad	19.7	28.0
15.	Repurchase of national securities formerly held abroad	40.5	43.0
16.	Purchase of existing foreign securities issued abroad	42.9	40.2
17.	Real estate purchased from foreigners abroad { a. abroad	—	—
	{ b. in Japan	—	—
18.	New foreign capital issues subscribed in Japan:		
	a. on account of foreign government and municipal loans	76.6	90.3
	b. other capital issues	—	—
19.	Participation of domestic capital in foreign capital issues	(b) —	(b) —
20.	Other long-term capital investments made abroad	532.9	449.5
	Total	756.6	740.6
	II. Short-term operations.		
21.	Net decrease in foreign short-term debts on account of credits raised and repaid	42.6	—
22.	Net increase in foreign floating assets on account of short-term credits granted and repaid	—	—
	Total	42.6	—
	Grand Total	799.2	740.6
	Net inward (+) or outward (-) movement of capital	(-) 174.9	(-) 281.4
	Difference between the balances obtained for goods, services and gold on the one hand and the capital items on the other, due to errors and omissions	(+) 45.7	(-) 28.4

Note:—(1) "n. e. i." means "not elsewhere indicated." (2) (a) Included in item 4. (3) (b) Included in item 16.

Trade Ports

On June 2 in the sixth year of Ansei, 1859, in the latter part of the Tokugawa Shogunate régime, Yokohama, Nagasaki and Hakodaté were opened to foreign trade. On December 7 in the 3rd year of the Keio Era (1867), Kobé was similarly opened and in the first year of the Meiji Era (1868) Osaka and Niigata were opened to international trade and commerce.

In 1936 the total number of open ports in the Empire was 62, of which 44 were in Japan proper, 4 in Formosa, 11 in Korea, 2 in Karafuto and one in the Kwantung Leased Territory. They are :

IN JAPAN PROPER : Yokohama, Nagasaki and Hakodaté (all opened in 1859), Kobé (1867), Osaka and Niigata (1868), Ebisu (Sado Island) (1869), Misumi (1890), Shimizu, Taketoyo, Yokkaichi, Shimonoseki, Moji, Hakata, Karatsu, Kuchinotsu, Izuhara, Sasuna, Shishimi, Naha, Hamada, Sakai (Tottori prefecture), Miyazu, Tsuruga, Nanao, Fushiki, Otaru, Kushiro and Muroran (all in 1899), Onomichi-Itozaki (1900), Wakamatsu (Fukuoka prefecture) (1902), Suminoé and Aomori (1904), Nagoya (1905), Miike (1906), Nemuro (1910), Kagoshima (1919), Imabari and Tokuyama (1922), Hagi (1928), Uno (1930), Funakawa (1932), and Shiogama and Kamaishi (1934).

IN KARAFUTO : Otomari (1907) and Maoka (1922).

IN FORMOSA : Keelung, Tamsui, Anping and Takao (all in 1895).

IN KOREA : Jinsen, Kunsan, Moppo, Fusan, Chinnampo, Shingishu, Ryugampo, Genzan, Seishin, Joshin and Yuki (all in 1910).

IN KWANTUNG LEASED TERRITORY : Dairen (1906).

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VESSELS ENTERED AT FIVE PRINCIPAL PORTS

(Unit: Ton)

	Yokohama	Kobé	Nagasaki	Moji	Osaka
1929	22,361,753	41,206,119	4,166,665	21,596,141	16,548,746
1930	22,359,290	42,579,369	3,772,707	21,141,985	17,131,553
1931	22,373,155	42,723,674	3,502,425	19.965,693	18,842,627
1932	22,207,385	43,033,220	3,348,239	20,538,484	19,539,931
1933	23,114,760	46,382,542	3,567,460	22,282,866	23,099,688
1934	24,269,857	49,481,808	3,843,000	23,605,000	32,546,000
1935	26,785,289	52,359,980	3,775,000	26,387,000	35,822,282
1936	18,554,055	32,389,306	2,535,469	44,496,853	27,038,531

FOREIGN TRADE VESSELS ENTERED JAPANESE PORTS

(Steamers only)

Year	Japanese		Chinese		British	
	No.	Tons	No.	Tons	No.	Tons
1932	12,714	36,406,061	57	53,969	1,470	7,481,516
1933	13,464	39,694,785	155	328,199	1,633	8,068,360
1934	13,267	40,689,352	606	1,146,871	2,015	9,470,345
1935	13,935	43,932,000	920	1,806,000	2,359	10,656,000
1936	14,317	45,573,000	1,635	3,340,000	2,338	10,497,000
1937	12,668	41,161,000	1,873	3,933,000	2,505	11,053,000
1938	11,456	36,659,000	1,110	2,311,000	2,198	9,943,000

Year	French		German		Italian	
	No.	Tons	No.	Tons	No.	Tons
1932	70	551,684	212	944,703	28	106,962
1933	4	36,545	334	1,482,957	32	106,350
1934	46	364,149	374	1,667,367	39	139,350
1935	52	298,000	422	1,927,000	42	147,000
1936	56	310,000	357	1,687,000	28	105,000
1937	63	323,000	344	1,637,000	66	227,000
1938	44	282,000	310	1,460,000	69	222,000

Year	Russian		Danish		Swedish		Norwegian	
	No.	Tons	No.	Tons	No.	Tons	No.	Tons
1932	15	42,489	87	335,316	49	190,519	341	1,130,881
1933	19	47,578	100	387,136	67	249,336	417	1,360,714
1934	7	12,264	152	601,567	115	415,262	599	1,883,055
1935	1	2,254	167	647,485	113	403,821	876	2,875,804
1936	3	7,368	146	552,455	122	434,238	946	3,138,316
1637	—	—	197	738,000	135	498,000	1,052	3,646,000
1938	—	—	211	748,000	153	563,000	966	3,377,000

Year	United States of America		Other Countries		Total	
	No.	Tons	No.	Tons	No.	Tons
1932	511	3,363,520	1,816	5,427,306	17,370	56,034,926
1933	534	3,443,765	2,068	6,421,570	18,827	61,627,290
1934	541	3,317,351	2,014	6,272,707	19,775	65,979,640
1935	611	3,750,000	2,427	7,524,000	21,904	73,804,000
1936	479	3,080,000	2,540	7,948,000	22,978	76,643,000
1937	362	2,419,000	2,415	7,247,000	21,680	72,882,000
1938	144	1,162,000	1,829	5,504,000	18,490	62,231,000

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Customs Duties

It was in 1859, at the time when most of the early commercial treaties with the Western powers had been concluded, that custom-houses were for the first time established and customs duties were levied at a few open ports selected for the purpose. The customs tariff of that time was entirely determined by treaty; but the term of its operation was exceedingly short and the whole tariff was revised by treaty in 1866. This revised tariff kept our customs duties unchanged until 1899 when the treaties of commerce and navigation with the foreign powers came into operation.

The coming into effect from 1899 of the revised commercial treaties with the foreign powers made it possible to bring into operation the general tariff which, combined with the conventional tariffs newly concluded, formed the customs tariff of our country. At the same time the export duties were entirely abolished.

In 1904 the urgent needs of the extraordinary fund in connection with the war with Russia led to the imposition of a special surtax on the customs duties as well as on the other taxes, and soon after the restoration of peace the entire customs tariff was revised and came into operation on October 1, 1906.

The Tariff Revision The Import Tariff Revision Bill passed the Imperial Diet in 1910 and was promulgated by Law No. 54 in April of the same year. The new tariff came into operation on July 17, 1911, but since then the tariff has been revised several times.

A new tariff convention was also concluded with Italy in June, 1913.

Tariff in Korea In conformity with the Imperial Declaration concerning the Annexation of Chosen in 1910, the tariff system of the former Korean Empire was left in force in the territory for ten years after the event. On expiration of the term of ten years on August 28, 1920, the tariff in force in Japan proper was applied to Chosen.

The Luxury Duties Under Law No. 24, promulgated on July 31, 1924, which regulates import duties on certain luxuries, a hundred per cent ad valorem import duty was imposed for the time being on about one hundred and twenty kinds of goods which were designated as luxuries.

A partial amendment of the import duties on luxuries was made on April 1, 1925, exempting articles imported for industrial use, materials for re-export and certain other materials from the 100% duties.

Kwantung L. T. With the object of encouraging the industries in Kwantung Leased Territory and of promoting exports to the home country, portland cement and twenty-nine other articles produced in the province were exempted from import duties by the Act of June 18, 1925.

The Revision of 1926 Although several amendments in minor details had been made from time to time, the customs tariff of the country remained practically unchanged from 1910 to 1926 when the Government introduced into the Imperial Diet a Bill proposing a general amendment embodying the following principles:

(a) Raw materials which are not produced or are scarce in this country are to be free of duties.

(b) Necessary protection is to be given to staple industries that have bright prospects for the future.

(c) Import duties are to be left untouched or are to be reduced with respect to foreign articles with which home produce is able to compete.

(d) Duties on the necessaries of daily life are to be reduced.

(e) In order to discourage consumption, high duties are to be imposed upon articles other than necessaries of daily life.

(f) The number of specific duties are to be increased and more minute classification of articles is to be made for convenience in the imposition of duties.

The Bill was passed by both Houses of the Imperial Diet without amendment, excepting the proposal concerning wheat, flour and eggs, and was put into effect on March 29, 1926.

Although not the direct object of the amendment, an increase in the customs revenue was expected as a result of the change in the rates of duties and the adjustment of the relation between specific duties and ad valorem duties in accordance with the rise of commodity prices.

Amendments During 1927 (a) Change of duties on sugar, etc.

The duties on sugar were amended on April 1, 1927. The duties on starch, butter, oxidized cobalt, oleine and cassava-root were also altered at the same time.

(b) Revision of the preferential tariff for Kwantung Leased Territory.

An amendment was made as to the articles exempted from import duties under the preference given to Kwantung L. T. by adding soy-bean oil and certain kinds of manufactured cloths to the free list. This amendment was put into effect on April 1, 1927.

Amendments During 1929 (a) Tea and

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twenty other luxury articles have been exempt from the luxury import duty since March 30, 1929.

(b) Import duties on wool and liquid gold were amended, and this amendment was put into effect on March 30, 1929.

(c) Cotton yarns and other goods manufactured in Kwantung L. T. have been exempt from import duties since May 1, 1929.

(d) Abolition of exceptions in import duties applicable in Chosen.

Although the import tariff of Chosen is generally the same as that of Japan proper, there existed certain exceptions in the case of import duties on horses and four other articles. The exceptions in the case of import duties on horses and two other articles were, however, abolished on and after March 30, 1929. The exceptions in the case of salt and wood were also amended, the former being abolished on and after April 1, 1930 and the latter on and after April 1, 1932.

Amendments During 1930 A. Millet, "Kao-liang" (Andropogon vulgaris), were exempted from import duties.

B. Of cotton yarns :

(a) Special cotton yarns were exempted from import duties.

(b) The rate of import duties on cotton yarns gray, single or two fold, with the exception of special cotton yarns, was reduced per 100 kin as follows :

Not exceeding No. 24 English	from ¥ 5.80 to ¥ 3.75
Not exceeding No. 42 English	from 6.40 to 4.15
Not exceeding No. 60 English	from 9.50 to 6.15
Not exceeding No. 80 English	from 11.00 to 7.15
Others	from 11.30 to 7.35

C. The rate on cement was reduced to ¥0.15 or 50% per 100 kin.

D. Certain kinds of iron pipes and tubes were exempted from import duties.

The above amendments were effective from May 17, 1930.

Amendments During 1931 A. Of import duties on wood, those on Momi (Abies), Tauhi (Picea), Matsu (Pinus) and Karamatsu (Larix) were amended as follows :

(a) Formerly, the import duty on wood not exceeding 200 millimetres in thickness was ¥1.10 per cubic metre, but it was raised to ¥4.45 per cubic metre.

(b) An import duty was newly imposed at the rate of ¥2.70 per cubic metre on other woods (including logs and cants) which were formerly exempt from the duty.

B. Import duty on rayon was reduced from ¥125 to ¥75 per 100 kin.

The above amendments were effective from April 1, 1931.

Amendments During 1932 (1) An increase in import duties was effected as from June 16, 1932 in respect of 29 articles in the case of which circumstances either at home or in the countries of export demanded it. The principal articles, the rates on which were increased, were as follows :

Agricultural products and foodstuffs	Wheat, millet (Andropogon vulgaris), Indian corn, wheat flour, butter, and condensed milk.
Industrial products	Pig iron, wire, reed wires, barbed twisted wires, parts of watches, parts of automobiles, and internal combustion engines.
Forestry products	Certain kinds of wood.

(2) In view of the decline in exchange rates, it was decided to increase, for the time being, the specific duties as provided in the Import Tariff annexed to the Customs Tariff Law to 135 per cent. This increased rate was put into effect on and after June 16, 1932, but is not applicable to the articles mentioned in (1) above.

Amendments During 1933 A. Ephedra herbs, argol, amorphophallus tubers, and bone ashes were newly provided for in the Import Tariff. These articles, except amorphophallus tubers, had been exempt from import duties. In the case of amorphophallus tubers, the import duty was imposed on those in meal at the rate of ¥16 per 100 kin and on others at the rate of ¥5.50 per 100 kin.

B. The following amendments were made in import duties on wood on which no labour was expended after cutting, sawing or splitting :

(a) With respect to logs and cants of douglas fir, etc. under the head of conifers :

1. Those exceeding 18 metres in length and not exceeding 30 centimetres in diametre at the top end were exempted from import duties ;

2. On those exceeding 10 metres in length and not exceeding 30 centimetres in diameter at the top end duty was imposed at the rate of ¥2 per cubic metre ;

3. On others duty was imposed at the

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rate of ¥2.5 per cubic metre.

(b) With respect to timber of broad-leafed trees, but not provided for in the Import Tariff.

1. On those not exceeding 200 millimetres in thickness duty was imposed at the rate of ¥5.5 per cubic metre.

2. On others, including logs and cants, duty was imposed at the rate of ¥2 per cubic metre.

These amendments were made by Law No. 26 of March, 1933, and put into effect as from March 29. It should, however, be noted that the provisions of Law No. 4 of 1932 are not applicable to the above articles on which specific duties are imposed.

Amendments from January to July, 1935 A. Luxuries and similar articles.

(a) The import duty on precious stones has been reduced from an ad varolem duty of 100 per cent to 10 per cent.

(b) With the abolition of an ad valorem duty of 100 per cent on "shochu" included in the item of alcoholic liquors, such "shochu" has been subject to the General Tariff.

B. Articles in general.

(a) On musk xylol under the heading of artificial musks the duty has been imposed at the rate of ¥125 per 100 kin, and on others an ad valorem duty of 35 per cent has been imposed.

(b) Of bleached plain tissues of flax pure or mixed with cotton, articles which had hitherto been exempt from import duties became subject to the same duties as those on tissues of flax and tissues of flax mixed with cotton.

(c) On magnesium alloys the same duty as that on magnesium has been imposed.

(d) Catalyzers containing vanadium have been exempted from import duties.

(e) On vulcanized fibres the duty has been imposed at the rate of ¥26 per 100 kin.

These amendments were put into effect as from April 4, 1935.

C. In answer to the customs measures taken by Canada against our merchandise, ad valorem duties of 50 per cent are, for one year from July 20, 1935, imposed, in addition to the import duties enumerated in the Import Tariff annexed to the Customs Tariff Law, on the following articles produced in Canada or articles manufactured in bonded manufacturing warehouses from Canadian raw materials:

Wheat, wheat flour, wheat starch, gluten, pulp for paper making (including that for rayon making), packing paper, match paper, endless felts for paper making, and wood under the heading of conifers.

Amendments during 1936 A. Law concerning Adjustment of Trade and Safe-guarding of Commerce (Law No. 45 of 1934).

(a) It was provided that this Law should remain in force until April 30, 1937, but this period has been prolonged till April 30, 1940 by Law No. 1 of 1936.

(b) The Canadian Government, complying with Japan's demands, decided to withdraw the customs measures hitherto taken in regard to Japanese merchandise, and consequently, the Japanese Government abolished, as from January 1, 1936, ad valorem duties of 50 per cent imposed since July 20, 1935 on certain categories of Canadian commodities.

(c) In the course of the negotiations between Japan and Australia, the Australian Government, aiming mainly at Japanese merchandise, has suddenly taken the step of raising customs tariffs or adopting the import licence system. In retaliation for the measures, the Japanese Government was obliged to introduce, as from June 25, 1936, the import licence system for Australian wheat, wool and other commodities by Imperial Ordinance No. 124 of 1936 issued in accordance with Article 1 of the Law concerning Adjustment of Trade and Safeguarding of Commerce, and imposed, in addition to the import duties enumerated in the Import Tariff annexed to the Customs Tariff Law, ad valorem duties of 50 per cent on the following commodities produced in Australia or manufactured from Australian raw materials:

Beef, butter, condensed milk, leather, beef tallow, and casein.

B. The following amendments have been made in the import duties enumerated in the Import Tariff annexed to the Customs Tariff Law:

(a) The duty has been imposed on citronella oil at the rate of ¥41 per 100 kin, and on lemongrass oil at the rate of ¥72 per 100 kin.

(b) On crude oil (including topping) and heavy oil the following duties have been imposed according to the percentage by volume of distillates up to 275° C. by the fractional distillation:

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1. Not exceeding 20%	¥ 6.05	per kilolitre
2. Not exceeding 25%	7.40	,, ,,
3. Not exceeding 30%	8.80	,, ,,
4. Not exceeding 35%	10.25	,, ,,
5. Not exceeding 40%	11.75	,, ,,
6. Others	13.25	,, ,,

Note : Those containing more than 45% are subject to an additional duty at the rate of 30 sen per 1 kilolitre for every additional 1%.

(c) On mineral oils (including lubricating oils which contain animal and vegetable oils or fats, soap, etc.) other than those mentioned in (b) above, the following duties have been imposed according to specific gravity at 15° C. :

1. Not exceeding 0.8017	¥33.0	per kilolitre
2. Not exceeding 0.8498	28.5	,, ,,
3. Other		
a. Having melting point up to 15°C.	43.0	,, ,,
b. Other	4.6	,, 100 kg.

(d) No duty has been imposed on paraffin wax in crude form, separated from shale oil. On paraffin wax having a melting point up to 45° C. the duty has been imposed at the rate of ¥6 per 100 kin, and on others at the rate of ¥12 per 100 kin.

(e) Acetyl-salicylic acid has been displaced by aspirin on which the duty has been imposed at the rate of ¥112 per 100 kin.

(f) The duty has been imposed on antipyrine at the rate of ¥258 per 100 kin.

(g) Pyramidon has been displaced by dimethylaminoantipyrine on which the duty has been imposed at the rate of ¥437 per 100 kin.

(h) The duty has been imposed on carbonate of guaiacol at the rate of ¥316 per 100 kin.

(i) The duty has been imposed on ionone at the rate of ¥3.5 per kin.

(j) The ad valorem duty of 10% has been imposed on iron bands, cold rolled, containing not less than 0.75% by weight of carbon.

(k) On iron bands other than those mentioned in (j) above, the following duties have been imposed :

1. Cold rolled	25% ad valorem
2. Other	
a. Not exceeding 50 mm. in width	¥1.7 per 100 kin
b. Other	1.5 ,, ,, ,,

(l) On ingots, slabs and grains of aluminium and aluminium alloys, the duty has been imposed at the rate of ¥17.7 per 100 kin ; on bars or rods or plates and sheets at the rate of ¥38.3 per 100 kin ; on wires and tubes 25% ad valorem ; on foils (including inner packings) at the rate of ¥55.8 per 100 kin ; and on waste or old, fit only for remanufacturing, at the rate of ¥17.7 per 100 kin.

These amendments were made by Law No. 38 of 1936, and were effective as from June 1 of the same year.

C. Amendments have been made in the Law relating to Specific Duties in Import Tariff (Law No. 4 of 1932) to include in the list annexed to the Law mineral oils and nine other articles the duties on which were revised by Law No. 38 of 1936 (Law No. 39 of 1936).

D. Amendments have been made in the Law relating to Import Duties on Luxuries and Similar Articles (Law No. 24 of 1924) to eliminate from the list annexed to the Law citronella oil, lemongrass oil and ionone the duties on which were revised by Law No. 38 of 1936 (Law No. 40 of 1936).

E. By Imperial Ordinance No. 237 of 1936 issued in accordance with Article 3 of the Customs Tariff Law, the conventional rates have been applicable to the articles produced in Syria and Lebanon, French mandated territories, except in cases where the rates as provided for in the Import Tariff annexed to the Customs Tariff Law are lower than the conventional rates.

Amendments during 1937 A. Abolition of additional duties on Australian commodities imposed under the Law concerning Adjustment of Trade and Safeguarding of Commerce.

In consequence of the Trade Arrangement concluded between the Japanese

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and Australian Governments, ad valorem duties of 50% imposed, from June 25, 1936 onward, on certain categories of Australian commodities were abolished as from January 1, 1937.

B. Imperial Ordinance No. 130 of 1937 concerning the Exemption of Import Duty on Iron was put into operation as from April 15, 1937. It should, however, be noted that said Ordinance was abrogated by Law No. 57 of 1937 having nearly the same contents as the aforesaid Ordinance. The provisions of Law No. 57 are summarised as follows:

(a) Iron shall be exempted from the import duty up to June 30, 1939.

(b) In cases where the Government deems it necessary, the period mentioned above may be shortened by specifying articles by means of Imperial Ordinance.

C. The preferential tariffs for Kwantung Province have been amended by Law No. 58 of 1937 as follows:

(a) Hardened oil, made in Kwantung Province of soya bean oil produced in the province, has been exempted from the import duty.

(b) Ammonium nitrate produced in Kwantung Province has been exempted from the import duty.

D. The following amendments have been made by Law No. 55 of 1937 in the Customs Tariff Law and the import tariff annexed to the Law:

(a) Mineral oils for fuel imported by the Government have been exempted from the import duty.

(b) Articles of Government monopoly or materials to be used for the manufacture of alcohol imported by the Government, and aircraft, or motors or propellers for aircraft imported with Government permission in accordance with the provisions of Ordinance have been exempted from the import duty.

(c) Import duties on materials to be used for the manufacture of cellulose pulp may be exempted or refunded in whole or in part in accordance with the provisions of Ordinance.

(d) Mineral oils manufactured from coal or oil shale have been exempted from the import duty. On other mineral oils the following duties have been imposed according to the specific gravity at 15°C.:

1. Crude oil and heavy oil:

(1) Exceeding 0.934	¥ 6.75 per kilolitre
(2) Exceeding 0.904	10.30 „ „
(3) Exceeding 0.860	18.00 „ „
(4) Other	23.40 „ „

Note : Those containing more than 40% by volume of distillates to 215°C. by distillation are subject to an additional duty at the rate of 30 sen per kilolitre for every additional 1%.

2. Other (including those containing animal and vegetable oils or fats, soap, alcohol, etc.) :

(1) Not exceeding 0.8017	¥46.20 per kilolitre
(2) Not exceeding 0.8498	41.00 „ „
(3) Other :	
Having melting point up to 15°C.	71.20 „ „
Other	8.30 „ 100 kg.

(e) Coal gas has been included in the Import Tariff and exempted from the import duty.

(f) "Pulp for paper making" included in Group XI of the Import Tariff has been changed to "Cellulose pulp."

(g) Of the printing paper other than art paper, paper weighing not more than 58 grammes per square metre (excluding that coloured in the paste) has been exempt from the import duty.

(h) Bearing balls given in Group XV of the Import Tariff have been eliminated.

(i) Ad valorem duties on automobiles have been increased to 70%.

(j) On parts of automobiles (excluding motive machinery) the following duties have been imposed.

1. Chassis :	
(1) Not exceeding 250 centimetres in wheel base	¥154.15 per 100 kin
(2) Other	44.42 „ „ „
2. Frames, wheels, front springs and rear springs	14.17 „ „ „
3. Engine hoods, fuel-tanks, running boards (including those with aprons) and bumpers	24.61 „ „ „

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4.	Front axles (including those with wheel hubs), mufflers, and rims for tyres	¥30.26 per 100 kin
5.	Rear axles (including those with wheel hubs), press worked steel panels for bodies, front doors and rear doors	41.30 „ „ „
6.	Transmissions, steering wheels, steering gears, and instrument panels (excluding those with instruments)	63.99 „ „ „
7.	Universal joints and shock absorbers	86.08 „ „ „
8.	Differential gears and pinions	92.92 „ „ „
9.	Transmission gears	138.30 „ „ „
10.	Other	60% ad valorem duty

(k) On internal combustion engines for automobiles duties have been imposed at the rate of ¥48 per 100 kin, and on those for cycles a 35% ad valorem duty has been imposed.

(l) Of parts of machinery (not otherwise provided for), on card clothing combined with leather the duty has been imposed at the rate of ¥120 per 100 kin, and on others at the rate of ¥60.6 per 100 kin. On bearings ad valorem duty of 30% has been imposed; on bearing balls at the rate of ¥37 per 100 kin, and on others ad valorem duty of 30%.

(m) On cassava-root the duty has been imposed at the rate of ¥1.65 per 100 kin.

(n) Ad valorem duties of 5% have been imposed on denatured molasses.

Of the above amendments, those coming under B, C, and D were effected as from August 11, 1937.

E. Amendment of the Law relating to Specific Duties in Import Tariff (Law No. 4 of 1932).

(a) By Law No. 56 of 1937, the following articles have been provided for in the list annexed to Law No. 4 of 1932, and have been exempted from the application of the specific duties of 135%:

Sugar (excluding sugar under No. 11 Dutch standard), rock candy sugar, cube sugar, loaf sugar, and similar sugar, caustic soda (excluding the refined), cotton yarns (excluding special cotton yarns, otherwise provided for), woollen yarns, mixed yarns of cotton and wool, artificial silk (excluding that made from acetyl-cellulose), cellulose pulp, packing paper and match paper (excluding tissue paper), copper (excluding twisted wires and pipes and tubes coated with base metals), lead (ingots, slabs and tubes), tin (ingots, slabs, and foils), zinc (excluding wires, tubes, plates and sheets nickeled, and other plates and sheets not exceeding 0.17 millimetres in thickness), brass and bronze, parts of automobiles (excluding motive machinery), internal combustion engines for automobiles, and card clothing, reeds of metal and bearing balls of parts of machinery (not otherwise provided for).

(b) The following amendments have been made in the list annexed to Law No. 4 of 1932:

1. Of mineral oils:

Those manufactured from coal or oil shale have been eliminated from the list.

2. Of printing paper other than art paper:

(1) Paper weighing not more than 58 grammes per square metre has been eliminated from the list.

(2) Paper (excluding that coloured in the paste and that weighing not more than 58 grammes per square metre) has newly been provided for in the list.

These amendments were effected as from August 11, 1937, except those for sugar and fourteen other articles which were put into operation as from October 1 of the same year.

Amendments during 1938 A. The following amendments have been made in the Customs Tariff Law and the Import Tariff annexed to the Law by Law No. 63 of 1938:

(a) Hatter's fur has newly been provided for in Article 9, clause 1 of the Customs Tariff Law, and import duties on materials to be used for the manufacture of this article may be exempted or refunded in whole or in part.

(b) The ad valorem duty of 50% has been imposed on cash-registers, calculating machines, and the like, and parts thereof.

(c) Import duties on wood have been amended as follows:

Of Abies (todomatsu, etc.), Picea (ezomatsu, spruce, etc.), Pinus (benimatsu, etc.) and Larix (karamatsu, etc.):

(1) Pinus (benimatsu, etc.) has been exempted from the import duty.

(2) Others:

On those not exceeding 200 millimetres in thickness the duty has been imposed at the rate of ¥6 per cubic

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metre, and on others, including logs and cants, at the rate of ¥3.64 per cubic metre.

B. The following amendments have been made in Imperial Ordinance No. 238 of 1921 by Imperial Ordinance No. 201 of 1938:

(a) As Abies (benimatsu, etc.) has been exempted from the import duty in the Import Tariff annexed to the Customs Tariff Law, it has been eliminated from the articles mentioned in Imperial Ordinance No. 238 of 1921.

(b) Rabbit and hare furs, materials for hatter's furs, have been exempted from the ad valorem duty of 40%.

The above amendments were effected as from April 1, 1938.

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CHAPTER XII

INSURANCE

General Survey

Marine Insurance Comes First In Japan, as in most maritime countries, marine insurance preceded life insurance, but the margin of time separating the two was much narrower in Japan, for there was a difference of two years only. Following the Restoration in 1868, the feudal lords or daimyo were dispossessed of their domains, but the Meiji Government undertook to compensate them for the lands confiscated. The condition of Government finance, however, did not permit of the payment of large sums of cash to the daimyo and pension bonds were issued to them instead. Hachisuka, Ikeda, Daté and other powerful and rich lords searched for an outlet for their energies and surplus funds and, deciding on insurance, advanced a plan to form a marine and fire insurance business after the British system. A company was incorporated in Tokyo in January 1879, with Eiichi Shibusawa as the person most intimately concerned with the consummation of the plan, and Yataro Iwasaki, the founder of the Mitsubishi interest, as his able lieutenant. The initial capital was ¥650,000. Marquis Hachisuka was president and Shibusawa and Iwasaki advisers.

Life Insurance Follows The late Taizo Abé was the originator of life insurance in Japan. Two years after the introduction of marine insurance he founded the Meiji Life Insurance Company in September, 1881, with a capital of ¥150,000. The promoters of this company were mostly graduates of the Keio Gijuku (present Keio University). In 1888 the Teikoku Life insurance Company was founded, and the Nippon Life Insurance Company was incorporated in Osaka in the following year. Zenjiro Yasuda was the founder of the Meiji Fire Insurance Company, the first of the kind in Japan.

The Present Status The home insurance business at present consists of 13 kinds, namely, life, life annuities, military conscription, accident, marine, fire including forest fire, transportation, automobile, burglary, glass, fidelity, engine and boiler and air insurance. Conscription insurance is interesting as it cannot be considered as pure insurance. The idea is to provide relief to the parents of young men who are called up to serve their time in the army. The insurance is taken out at any time from birth to 15 years of age, then, when the boy is conscripted at 20 years of age, the sum contracted for is paid to his parents. In case the boy is not called upon to serve his time in the army the premium only is repaid, and the assured persons who are enrolled in the army and participate in the forfeited and accrued interest of those not called up together with that of those who have died before being conscripted. It is 40 years since the business was first commenced and four companies engage in it.

INSURANCE COMPANIES

(Compiled by the Ministry of Commerce and Industry)

Business Year	Number of Concerns	Paid-up Capital and Funds	Liability Reserves at End of Year	Contracts in Force at End of Year	
				No.	Amount
		(In ¥1,000 and 1,000 contracts)			
1922-23	95	118,043	591,350	11,121	13,699,379
1923-24	96	119,043	670,003	11,467	13,971,965
1924-25	95	119,043	780,115	13,633	16,704,023
1925-26	95	122,018	890,457	15,876	19,269,426
1926-27	95	124,062	1,016,929	16,029	20,651,623
1927-28	93	123,757	1,130,869	17,517	22,268,970
1928-29	94	123,585	1,253,062	19,086	23,752,130
1929-30	93	124,335	1,408,520	22,199	25,949,943
1930-31	92	123,229	1,519,352	23,097	27,490,657

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Business Year	Number of Concerns	Paid-up Capital and Funds	Liability Reserves at End of Year	Contracts in Force at End of Year	
				No.	Amount
1931-32	91	122,,170	1,637,178	22,693	27,469,633
1932-33	89	122,570	1,831,610	23,123	29,427,346
1933-34	84	150,925	1,985,929	25,443	33,108,786
1934-35	84	151,275	2,350,077	26,480	34,902,161
1935-36	83	150,273	2,442,402	28,599	37,480,869
1936-37	81	149,335	2,788,621	30,802	39,877,588
1937-38	81	149,735	3,093,085	31,917	43,170,731

INSURANCE COMPANIES BY KINDS

1933-1938

(Amount in yen)

Kind of Insurance	Business Year	Number of Companies	Capital or Fund		Reserve Found	
			Authorized	Paid-up	Liability and Current	Others
Accident	1933-34				945,927	57,815,170
	1934-35				1,045,697	61,589,100
	1935-36				1,167,232	65,156,500
	1936-37				1,289,332	71,707,000
	1937-38				1,397,569	83,300,100
Fire	1933-34				114,713,943	71,726,746
	1934-35				116,393,087	76,173,940
	1935-36				121,867,964	80,393,011
	1936-37				130,542,194	87,911,669
	1937-38				139,004,327	95,814,154
Marine	1933-34				76,628,071	67,553,842
	1934-35				80,132,896	72,028,475
	1935-36				82,256,323	75,960,050
	1936-37				87,131,618	82,933,553
	1937-38				95,933,136	90,448,180
Transportation	1933-34				2,043,729	66,808,842
	1934-35				2,176,179	71,174,239
	1935-36				2,207,836	75,006,785
	1936-37				2,403,721	82,177,828
	1937-38				2,707,573	89,365,455
Fidelity	1933-34				95,000	18,118,800
	1934-35	1933-34	51	329,900,000	128,088,645	93,000	18,514,800
	1935-36					94,000	23,568,500
	1936-37					112,400	25,159,000
	1937-38					137,800	26,431,100
Engine and Boiler	1933-34	1934-35	51	329,900,000	128,762,500	39,031	60,560
	1934-35					44,096	63,560
	1935-36					52,363	66,585
	1936-37					65,662	68,655
	1937-38					71,960	72,055
Automobile	1933-34	1935-36	49	323,500,000	126,110,000	2,274,918	49,950,200
	1934-35					2,530,498	53,494,800
	1935-36	1936-37	48	323,000,000	126,772,500	3,002,076	57,226,800
	1936-37					3,195,539	60,919,500
	1937-38					3,434,369	72,220,900
Burglary	1933-34	1937-38	48	323,000,000	126,772,500	249,745	44,050,000
	1934-35					242,784	42,291,000
	1935-36					259,932	44,906,000
	1936-37					265,598	48,691,000
	1937-38					261,799	58,542,000
Glass	1933-34					58,199	32,600,000
	1934-35					62,398	34,385,000
	1935-36					57,091	36,590,000
	1936-37					72,185	39,560,000
	1937-38					72,805	43,160,000
Air	1937-38					106,500	28,786,000

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Kind of Insurance	Business Year	Number of Companies	Capital or Fund Authorized	Capital or Fund Paid-up	Reserve Found Liability and Current	Reserve Found Others
Life	1933-34	1933-34 34	42,650,000	23,437,000	1,609,662,549	147,526,178
	1934-35	1934-35 33	45,800,000	22,512,500	1,798,822,750	146,785,642
	1935-36	1935-36 33	45,750,000	22,462,500	2,004,828,537	169,450,016
	1936-37	1936-37 34	45,700,000	22,412,500	2,255,641,110	192,540,062
	1937-38	1937-38 33	46,050,000	22,962,500	2,480,308,044	218,246,750
Conscription	1933-34				179,217,142	4,722,361
	1934-35				201,530,031	6,126,596
	1935-36				226,582,775	7,748,113
	1936-37				307,867,211	9,374,577
	1937-38				369,609,679	11,781,641
Life Annuity	1933-34				1,628	—
	1934-35				14,551	—
	1935-36				25,511	—
	1936-37				34,194	—
	1937-38				39,157	—

Kind of Insurance	Business Year	Conditions of Business Earnings Premiums	Interest	Others	Total
Accident	1933-34	952,702	—	111,581	1,064,283
	1934-35	855,662	—	49,505	905,167
	1935-36	1,043,317	—	76,915	1,120,232
	1936-37	1,038,688	—	51,050	1,089,738
	1937-38	1,041,747	—	90,040	1,131,787
Fire	1933-34	94,082,693	8,053,153	21,222,340	123,358,186
	1934-35	96,531,623	7,967,747	21,669,574	126,168,944
	1935-36	100,063,769	8,036,951	22,484,902	130,585,622
	1936-37	101,790,013	8,288,298	22,747,727	132,826,038
	1937-38	108,963,127	8,776,802	24,226,522	141,966,451
Marine	1933-34	31,101,512	13,786,286	8,257,452	53,145,250
	1934-35	33,155,472	15,100,000	9,193,843	57,449,315
	1935-36	34,768,345	16,186,182	7,484,636	58,439,163
	1936-37	36,865,247	17,048,146	7,099,840	61,013,233
	1937-38	45,628,323	17,961,332	6,292,636	69,882,291
Transportation	1933-34	1,021,082	—	25,243	1,046,325
	1934-35	1,170,622	—	41,704	1,212,326
	1935-36	1,303,614	—	41,368	1,344,982
	1936-37	1,412,688	484	24,791	1,437,963
	1937-38	1,561,817	527	37,505	1,599,849
Fidelity	1933-34	83,719	—	6,112	89,831
	1934-35	86,218	—	4,592	90,810
	1935-36	99,712	—	4,162	103,874
	1936-37	106,875	—	5,778	112,653
	1937-38	119,186	—	6,175	125,361
Engine and Boiler	1933-34	80,542	11,385	9,848	101,775
	1934-35	88,116	10,107	10,680	108,903
	1935-36	99,458	10,952	8,480	118,890
	1936-37	114,608	13,506	42,654	170,768
	1937-88	125,768	11,865	14,039	151,672
Automobile	1933-34	1,749,665	5,778	41,344	1,796,787
	1934-35	1,984,624	5,791	24,221	2,014 636
	1935-36	2,675,503	60	35,198	2,710,761
	1936-37	3,030,928	—	35,416	3,066,344
	1937-38	3,446,369	—	38,084	3,484,453
Burglary	1933-34	59,158	—	1,332	60,490
	1934-35	60,119	—	3,031	63,150
	1935-36	73,219	—	1,303	74,522
	1936-37	65,215	—	2,149	67,364
	1937-38	46,088	—	2,412	48,500
Glass	1933-34	7,680	—	460	8,140
	1934-35	11,825	—	877	12,702
	1935-36	12,925	—	1,371	14,296
	1936-37	11,295	—	1,480	12,775
	1937-38	15,906	—	2,058	17,964
Air	1937-38	10,250	—	58	10,308

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Kind of Insurance	Business Year	Premiums	Interest	Others	Total
Life	1933-34	350,372,780	99,973,149	26,522,160	476,868,089
	1934-35	419,803,582	101,842,188	31,067,876	553,713,646
	1935-36	449,716,033	110,642,695	27,523,541	587,864,269
	1936-37	519,508,056	120,886,258	40,677,759	681,072,073
	1937-38	594,410,101	136,185,764	39,875,260	770,471,125
Conscription	1933-34	25,939,982	11,057,417	5,254,869	42,252,268
	1934-35	30,471,839	12,283,255	8,145,974	50,851,068
	1935-36	34,503,310	14,379,890	7,205,263	56,088,463
	1936-37	41,712,449	15,772,258	6,229,088	63,713,795
	1937-38	49,779,269	18,399,985	6,831,729	75,010,983
Life Annuity	1933-34	2,000	—	—	2,000
	1934-35	14,140	—	—	14,140
	1935-36	13,626	—	—	13,626
	1936-37	12,646	—	—	12,646
	1937-38	9,173	—	—	9,173

Conditions of Business

Kind of Insurance	Business Year	Claims Paid	Expenses: Payment by Contract Other than Claims	Expenses: Business Expenses	Expenses: Others	Total
Accident	1933-34	538,176	11,392	381,344	14,823	945,735
	1934-35	547,659	80,880	337,063	64,459	1,030,061
	1935-36	613,722	28,527	391,090	29,474	1,062,813
	1936-37	596,722	76,218	370,327	22,784	1,066,051
	1937-38	566,156	53,599	371,145	37,921	1,028,821
Fire	1933-34	34,704,434	12,259,579	55,594,541	6,660,150	109,218,704
	1934-35	41,534,912	11,834,873	57,592,514	5,862,325	116,824,624
	1935-36	32,184,327	13,709,218	61,210,976	5,999,436	113,103,957
	1936-37	30,073,003	14,276,932	63,721,188	6,334,542	114,405,665
	1937-38	25,944,771	15,592,563	69,082,276	7,426,040	118,045,590
Marine	1933-34	19,602,005	2,317,516	6,823,090	7,605,849	36,348,460
	1934-35	24,243,554	2,360,659	7,497,025	5,596,146	39,697,384
	1935-36	23,137,480	2,676,831	8,497,886	5,841,181	40,153,378
	1936-37	20,402,964	2,538,977	8,852,945	7,031,607	38,826,493
	1937-38	21,576,081	3,785,595	10,241,525	11,074,666	46,677,867
Transportation	1933-34	100,487	99,038	215,810	7,894	423,229
	1934-35	336,789	118,777	241,623	8,572	705,761
	1935-36	254,156	121,637	279,620	4,958	660,371
	1936-37	180,859	142,133	303,106	31,830	657,928
	1937-38	254,329	165,385	331,166	8,893	760,773
Fidelity	1933-34	26,820	2,078	26,111	105	55,114
	1934-35	21,600	976	26,256	128	48,960
	1935-36	28,382	1,100	29,601	173	59,256
	1936-37	25,091	4,837	34,583	194	64,705
	1937-38	15,062	8,053	38,750	577	62,442
Engine and Boiler	1933-34	—	664	78,199	7,162	86,025
	1834-35	—	390	80,905	5,720	87,015
	1935-36	—	735	84,428	7,446	92,609
	1936-37	525	530	90,057	42,960	134,072
	1937-38	1,550	1,174	100,193	18,112	121,029
Automobile	1933-34	866,525	275,363	540,735	74,302	1,756,925
	1934-35	877,095	293,041	554,454	20,751	1,745,341
	1935-36	983,425	393,349	781,127	59,058	2,216,959
	1936-37	1,076,838	473,007	876,753	50,505	2,477,153
	1937-38	1,376,661	551,583	1,007,451	13,394	2,949,089
Burglary	1933-34	22,836	1,339	22,151	511	46,837
	1934-35	18,176	1,299	24,185	169	43,829
	1935-36	29,814	2,737	28,952	1,685	63,138
	1936-37	17,988	4,721	23,579	3,332	49,620
	1937-38	14,007	11,938	14,862	593	41,400
Glass	1933-34	5,339	559	1,826	13	7,737
	1934-35	5,139	561	2,929	15	8,644
	1935-36	5,111	929	4,076	40	10,156
	1936-37	6,430	493	3,441	39	10,403
	1937-38	6,217	1,611	4,584	22	12,434
Air	1937-38	21,901	31	1,109	2	23,243

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Kind of Insurance	Business Year	Payment by Claims Paid	Payment by Contract other than Claims	Business Expenses	Others	Total
Life	1933-34	124,659,486	78,516,055	83,935,600	22,959,150	310,070,291
	1934-35	139,890,791	91,552,425	96,970,690	27,910,235	356,324,141
	1935-36	143,817,994	68,480,705	102,427,574	30,667,198	345,393,471
	1936-37	167,531,843	71,344,489	108,933,815	38,718,528	386,528,675
	1937-38	192,705,499	75,855,960	122,001,416	40,212,825	430,775,700
Conscription	1933-34	1,681,245	5,831,146	11,618,262	2,753,896	21,884,549
	1934-35	2,283,129	6,684,205	13,547,886	5,028,983	27,544,203
	1935-36	2,802,208	7,024,635	13,409,799	6,985,070	30,221,712
	1936-37	4,058,583	7,826,972	15,945,841	4,515,734	32,347,130
	1937-38	4,262,315	7,700,177	17,713,749	6,426,046	36,102,287
Life Annuity	1933-34	432	—	—	—	432
	1934-35	1,432	28	—	—	1,460
	1935-36	3,480	—	—	—	3,480
	1936-37	4,476	—	—	—	4,476
	1937-38	6,391	—	—	—	6,391

Conditions of Business

Kind of Insurance	Business Year	New Contracts Number	New Contracts Amount	Contracts in Force at the End of Business Year Number	Contracts in Force at the End of Business Year Amount
Accident	1933-34	224,595	199,925,000	206,709	172,879,000
	1934-35	186,198	204,813,000	174,057	160,728,000
	1935-36	178,675	243,433,000	162,173	182,989,000
	1936-37	165,477	263,794,000	134,696	179,284,000
	1937-38	141,686	276,290,000	119,073	194,971,000
Fire	1933-34	20,377,560	27,593,329,000	16,943,563	21,119,623,000
	1934-35	20,856,048	28,678,717,000	17,064,927	21,321,758,000
	1935-36	21,314,830	29,742,490,000	18,023,182	22,223,679,000
	1936-37	21,301,471	30,041,467,000	18,305,746	22,286,504,000
	1937-38	21,378,750	31,860,709,000	18,042,103	22,790,755,000
Marine	1933-34	5,140,252	7,874,981,000	884,104	1,796,231,000
	1934-35	5,983,524	9,676,112,000	975,081	2,056,947,000
	1935-36	6,470,590	10,543,046,000	1,088,088	2,079,711,000
	1936-37	6,838,623	10,906,507,000	1,270,885	2,387,322,000
	1937-38	6,793,531	13,326,855,000	1,284,529	2,865,262,000
Transportation	1933-34	1,744,067	5,521,416,000	82,913	334,900,000
	1934-35	1,921,886	6,067,066,000	96,020	295,399,000
	1935-36	2,068,014	6,688,453,000	99,010	347,746,000
	1936-37	2,228,642	7,506,516,000	119,224	438,599,000
	1937-38	2,484,973	7,774,507,000	116,442	476,016,000
Fidelity	1933-34	3,407	5,976,000	3,179	5,097,000
	1934-35	4,123	6,734,000	3,883	6,124,000
	1935-36	4,416	7,385,000	4,285	7,126,000
	1936-37	4,323	8,545,000	4,125	7,855,000
	1937-38	4,671	9,404,000	4,371	8,478,000
Engine and Boiler	1933-34	1,251	4,236,000	1,233	4,182,000
	1934-35	1,302	4,455,000	1,288	4,313,000
	1935-36	1,534	4,770,000	1,502	4,713,000
	1936-37	1,848	5,643,000	1,786	5,353,000
	1937-38	2,091	6,135,000	2,060	6,064,000
Automobile	1933-34	87,525	70,868,000	59,481	53,186,000
	1934-35	100,792	95,712,000	60,474	63,088,000
	1935-36	271,115	128,996,000	184,896	85,428,000
	1936-37	164,382	142,758,000	120,243	98,440,000
	1937-38	179,741	153,713,000	138,996	110,464,000
Burglary	1933-34	4,230	11,461,000	3,546	9,314,000
	1934-35	4,596	12,100,000	3,829	9,537,000
	1935-36	5,588	15,793,000	4,852	13,518,000
	1936-37	7,421	22,580,000	6,412	19,262,000
	1937-38	3,546	9,572,000	2,761	6,348,000
Glass	1933-34	345	129,000	326	120,000
	1934-35	397	199,000	391	192,000
	1935-36	471	236,000	443	219,000
	1936-37	509	225,000	472	213,000
	1937-38	546	750,000	501	280,000
Air	1937-38	25	328,000	15	253,000

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Kind of Insurance	Business Year	Number	Amount	Number	Amount
Life	1933-34	1,056,220	1,756,493,000	6,029,271	8,806,589,000
	1934-35	1,286,437	2,144,302,000	6,702,346	10,049,122,000
	1935-36	1,429,087	2,443,231,000	7,486,937	11,495,614,000
	1936-37	1,627,357	2,800,491,000	9,170,139	13,247,858,000
	1937-38	1,802,630	3,169,452,000	10,232,485	15,309,734,000
Conscription	1933-34	268,296	223,925,000	1,229,857	806,593,000
	1934-35	317,963	249,392,000	1,398,454	934,593,000
	1935-36	311,961	233,551,000	1,544,160	1,040,126,000
	1936-37	346,947	262,159,000	1,749,053	1,207,198,000
	1937-38	381,495	300,690,000	1,974,551	1,397,038,000
Life Annuity	1933-34	1	432	1	432
	1934-35	4	1,663	5	2,095
	1935-36	5	1,385	10	3,480
	1936-37	2	1,661	12	5,141
	1937-38	4	811	14	5,068

Note: Business year covers the period from April 1 to March 31 of the following year. Most companies have several kinds of insurance and accordingly capital is not given here separately.

FOREIGN INSURANCE COMPANIES IN JAPAN

(Compiled by the Ministry of Commerce and Industry)

(Amount in yen)

LIFE INSURANCE

Business Year	Number of Companies	Deposits with the Govt.	Premiums Received	Claims Paid	Business Conditions New Contracts No.	Business Conditions New Contracts Amount	Contracts in Force at the End of Business Year No.	Contracts in Force at the End of Business Year Amount
1932-33	3	31,708,560	12,256,409	6,065,434	3,528	17,698,000	38,957	220,780,000
1933-34	3	30,750,399	10,629,538	4,994,645	2,177	11,260,000	34,822	189,614,000
1934-35	3	30 013,250	9,367,042	4,863,891	1,919	8,960,000	31,253	162,849,000
1935-36	3	29,775,751	8,174,748	3,934,567	1,407	7,594,000	28,371	145,743,000
1936-37	3	27,832,074	7,430,965	5,590,660	1,189	5,882,000	25,840	129,688,000
1937-38	3	—	—	—	—	—	—	—

FIRE INSURANCE

Business Year	Number of Companies	Deposits with the Govt.	Premiums Received	Claims Paid	Business Conditions New Contracts No.	Business Conditions New Contracts Amount	Contracts in Force at the End of Business Year No.	Contracts in Force at the End of Business Year Amount
1932-33	26	5,126,901	4,438,087	2,519,249	201,824	1,473,093,000	143,650	918,122,000
1933-34	26	4,978,522	5,164,637	1,944,304	291,280	1,648,619,000	197,786	1,009,489,000
1934-35	26	5,240,905	6,167,260	6,879,393	363,519	2,010,920,000	237,731	1,271,407,000
1935-36	25	6,152,652	7,193,832	3,330,935	499,065	2,251,013,000	325,706	1,434,902,000
1936-37	25	6,317,095	7,081,046	4,104,787	557,341	2,404,350,000	305,216	1,307,478,000
1937-38	26	6,537,485	7,449,305	2,869,413	546,817	2,541,963,000	310,035	1,372,823,000

MARINE INSURANCE

Business Year	Number of Companies	Deposits with the Gov.	Premiums Received	Claims Paid	Business Conditions New Contracts No.	Business Conditions New Contracts Amount	Contracts in Force at the End of Business Year No.	Contracts in Force at the End of Business Year Amount
1932-33	16	3,757,780	1,052,831	575,059	107,901	316,005,000	16,452	46,737,000
1933-34	16	3,740,557	1,474,722	807,466	137,684	386,125,000	20,883	76,146,000
1934-35	16	4,002,939	1,833,343	2,155,218	155,613	467,512,000	22,549	92,191,000
1935-36	17	4,673,264	1,886,593	1,206,433	155,151	463,060,000	17,105	90,711,000
1936-37	17	4,796,107	1,761,142	1,028,326	169,316	445,115,000	22,346	61,183,000
1937-38	17	4,947,405	2,341,266	1,178,579	180,616	570,128,000	15,610	51,038,000

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AUTOMOBILE INSURANCE

Business year	Number of Companies	Deposits with the Gov.	Premiums Received	Claims Paid	Business Conditions: New Contracts No.	New Contracts Amount	Contracts in Force at the End of Business Year No.	Contracts in Force at the End of Business Year Amount
1934-35	3	701,638	63,905	19,782	644	24,438,000	571	19,926,000
1935-36	3	877,952	80,502	29,844	753	27,488,000	580	21,461,000
1936-37	3	997,628	76,125	18,443	719	25,399,000	572	19,206,000
1937-38	3	1,333,508	74,975	21,372	646	23,724,000	561	18,996,000

INVESTMENTS OF HOME INSURANCE COMPANIES

(The Insurance Year Book by the Ministry of Commerce and Industry)

(Amount in ¥1,000)

Advances

Year	Number of Companies	Mortgages on Real Estate	Mortgages on Factories, etc.	Mortgages on Vessels	Loans on Securities	Loans on Companies' Policies	Loans to Public Bodies	Other	Total
1932-33	89	82,070	118,836	12,288	126,151	220,418	64,964	3,842	628,572
1933-34	84	78,344	87,287	11,354	118,216	230,438	58,305	7,003	590,950
1934-35	84	77,377	76,675	10,900	105,885	242,695	54,676	4,180	572,386
1935-36	82	70,819	83,037	10,152	112,583	257,602	109,071	7,338	650,602
1936-37	81	66,838	84,331	11,092	109,876	280,644	131,262	4,667	688,710
1937-38	81	69,714	83,703	14,641	155,124	307,969	156,621	4,008	791,781

Securities

	Government Bonds	Local Governments Bond	Debentures	Shares	Foreign Bonds, etc.	Total	Deposits with Banks	Grand Total
1932-33	114,238	98,489	482,828	332,179	43,839	1,071,575	271,129	1,971,277
1933-34	128,469	130,871	513,100	441,031	49,197	1,262,669	335,077	2,188,696
1934-35	177,674	101,904	564,989	594,279	49,529	1,488,375	340,372	2,401,133
1935-36	218,694	87,537	600,732	696,931	53,850	1,657,744	360,320	2,668,666
1936-37	238,291	88,375	667,748	887,565	56,412	1,938,391	350,743	2,977,844
1937-38	293,412	79,564	676,828	1,081,530	86,381	2,217,714	321,780	3,331,275

IMPORTANT INSURANCE COMPANIES

	Est'd.
Teikoku Life	1888
Meiji Life	1893
Yasuda Life	1894
Aikoku Life	1896
×Dai-ichi Life	1902
Taihei Life	1909
Nisshin Life	1907
Nippon Conscription	1911
Nikka Life	1914
×Fukoku Conscription	1923
Taiyo Life	1896
Taisho Life	1913
Nomura Life	1895
Nippon Kyoritsu Life	1894
Fukutoku Life	1912
Yurin Life	1894
Tokiwa Life	1913
Daido Life	1902

	Est'd.
Katakura Life	1921
Nippon Dantai Life	1934
Fukuju Life	1908
×Showa Life	1931
Fuji Life	1909
Tokyo Marine and Fire	1878
Meiji Fire	1891
Teikoku Morine and Fire	1893
Nippon Marine	1896
Nippon Movables Fire	1898
Tomei Fire and Insurance	1907
Toho Fire	1911
Chiyoda Fire	1913
Taisho Marine and Fire	1918
Nippon Life	1889
Jinju Life	1894
Dai-ichi Conscription	1898
×Chiyoda Life	1904

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	Est'd.
Sumitomo Life	1907
Mitsui Life	1914
×Japan Physicians' Mutual Relief	1919
Tokyo Fire	1887
Nippon Fire	1892
Osaka Marine and Fire	1883
Yokohama Fire and Marine	1897
Kobé Marine and Fire	1907
Teikoku Fire	1912
Fuso Marine and Fire	1917
Mitsubishi Marine and Fire	1919
Taihei Fire and Marine	1919
Toyo Fire	1920
Tokyo Movables Fire	1917
Kyodo Fire	1906
Nissan Fire and Marine	1911

× Represents companies on a mutual basis.

Post Office Life Insurance

With a view to promoting the welfare of the middle and lower classes of the community, the Post Office Life Insurance Law (Law No. 42) and the Post Office Life Insurance Special Account Law (Law No. 43) were promulgated on July 8, 1916, the former being put into effect on October 1 and the latter on August 20 of the same year. The main features of the life insurance schemes may be summarized as follows :

1. This insurance is the work of the Government and is to be dealt with at the post offices.

2. The amount of insurance for a person will be from ¥20 up to ¥700.

3. The insured need not be subjected to any physical examination.

4. If the insured die within one and a half years from the conclusion of the insurance contract by some causes other than the calamities or the infectious diseases specified in law, a portion of the amount insured will not be paid.

5. This insurance is divided into Whole Life, Endowment and Infantile. Endowment policies are divided into seven kinds of the terms of 10 years, 15 years, 20 years, 25 years, 30 years, 35 years and 40 years. Infantile policies are, at present, either 15 years or 20 years endowment.

6. The age of a person to be newly insured must be between 1 and 60 years.

7. The Mortality Table constituting a basis for the computation of premium was compiled by adding 20% to the Male Mortality-Rates of the Japanese Population Table No. 2 published in 1912 by the Government Statistics Bureau. The rate of interest assumed is 3½% per annum.

8. The premiums are to be paid monthly. Reduced premiums are prescribed for the cases in which monthly premiums are paid in a lump sum in advance.

9. The period within which premiums should be paid is fixed at one month. Two months' grace is allowed.

10. Within one year after the lapse of the policy, it may be revived.

11. When, after the conclusion of the contract, the insured either loses one or both of his limbs or becomes blind of both eyes, future premiums need not be paid.

Whenever a policy has been in force for a period of thirty years and the insured person has reached the age of 70, the policy holder concerned may propose to have his future premiums paid up.

12. When, after the lapse of five years from the conclusion of the contract, the payment of the insured sum or the repayment of the paid-in premium is made, the beneficiary shall receive an additional sum as a dividend.

13. A loan may, on the application of the policy-holder, be granted within the limits of the amount which is to be paid back on the cancellation of the insurance contract, provided, however, that such loan shall not exceed 50/100 of the amount of insurance.

14. In order to maintain and promote the health of the insured, 230 Health Consultation Stations have been established so far in pursuance of the Health Consultation Service Regulation, 1922, in the principal cities.

15. Beneficiaries or policy-holders are required to ask the judgment of the Post Office Life Insurance Committee of Inquiry prior to legal action against the Government for their contracts.

Post Office Life Annuities While the history of the Post Office Life Annuities may be traced to as far back as 1897, the authorities concerned thought it wise to introduce Post Office Life Insurance first and see how this would work. In 1926, changed social conditions and with the maturing of the first Post Office Life Insurance Endowment Policies gave favourable indications that the Annuity business would be successful, and a bill was introduced into and approved by the Diet in March.

The main features of the system which came into operation on October 1 of the same year may be summarized as follows :—

1. The annuity business is to be administered on the same system as that of the Post Office Life Insurance.

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2. Annuities that may be purchased are divided into :

(1) Immediate Life Annuities.

(2) Deferred Life Annuities.

(a) Annuities commencing at the age of 50.
(b) Annuities commencing at the age of 55.
(c) Annuities commencing at the age of 60.
(d) Annuities commencing at the age of 65.

3. Post Office Life Annuities may be purchased either with or without provision for the return of the purchase money, and purchasers must select one of these two plans when they make their application.

4. The ages of persons entitled to become annuitants under this system must fall, in the case of Immediate Life Annuities between 40 and 80 inclusive and in the case of Deferred Life Annuities between 12 and 60 both inclusive.

5. The premium rates are calculated on the mortality rates by deducting 20 per cent for males and 30 per cent for females from the general mortality rate of the Japanese population.

The rate of interest allowed in the calculation of the value of annuities under the instalment payment plan is 3.5 per cent. And under the single payment plan, the rate shall be determined, from time to time, by the Minister of Communications upon the basis of the current market price of public bonds. The rate is fixed at 3.7 per cent for the present.

The reserves to be maintained against policies are worked out by the net premium method.

6. The maximum annuity that can be purchased on the life of any one person is ¥2,400, and the minimum is ¥120 under the instalment premium plan or ¥12 under the single premium plan.

7. Premiums are payable either in a single sum or by instalments; in the latter case, the premium payment is divided into four periods, namely, 10 year payment, 15 year payment, 20 year payment and ordinary payment, and the premium may also be paid yearly, half yearly or quarterly. All premiums are payable at any post office designated by the purchaser or at his residence to the collector.

8. In the case of an Immediate Annuity, the payment of annuity will begin on the date of application and continue until the death of the annuitant. In the case of a Deferred Annuity, the payment of annuity will begin on the date the annuitant reaches a specified age and continue until the death of the annuitant.

9. Annuitants are given the right, subject to certain conditions, to claim change in their contracts.

10. Should events stipulated as reasons for the return of purchase money actually occur, such return is to be made according to prescribed conditions.

11. Provided a contract reserves the right for the purchaser or the annuitant to claim refund of premiums paid, such person may avail himself of a cash loan of not more than 50% of the premiums paid, provided that the sum is not less than ¥20 per cotract or, if the proceeds are to be applied to the payment of the premium, a sum equal to one year's premiums.

12. Annuitants or purchasers are requested, before bringing a civil action against the Government in respect of their contracts, to submit their cases to the Post Office Life Insurance Committee of Inquiry.

13. A special account is established for this business.

Improvements in 1939 I. Guaranteed Period System

(A) A Guaranteed Life Annuities plan is newly added to the kinds of the old system. According to the contract of the new Guaranteed Life Annuities, the annuity shall be paid to the annuitant, as usual, as long as he lives and when he dies after the annuity began within the period specifically fixed as the guaranteed period of annuity the same amount of annuity shall be paid, during the lest of the guaranteed period, to the bereaved who is given with the right of receiving the annuity continuously, or in case the annuitant dies before the annuity begins or at the cancellation of contract the purchase money shall be returned to the policyholder with the additional sum of compound interest at the rate of 2 per cent per annum. The new policy will protect the right of the policy-holder much further than in the cases of the old policies. The widows or the disabled men above 20 years of age may specially be benefited by the new plan.

(B) Kinds of the New Policy

There are two kinds of the Guaranteed Life Annuities; one is Guranteed Immediate Life Annuities the guaranteed period of which begins on the date on which the contract becomes effective and continues either for the following 15 years or 20 years or 30 years; the other is Guaranteed Deferred Life Annuities, the guaranteed period

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begins on the date of the commencement of annuity and continues for the following 20 years, provided that the year of age in which annuity begins is fixed either at 50 or 55 or 65.

(C) Eligible Years of Age

The years of age eligible for contracting Guaranteed Immediate Life Annuities are from 40 to 75 both inclusive in the case of the guaranteed period the duration of which extends over 15 years or 20 years, and widows or a certain disabled men of the age from 20 to 40 only are eligible to such annuities in the case of the guaranteed period the duration of which extends over 30 years.

The years of age eligible for contracting Guaranteed Deferred Life Annuities are from 12 to 60 both inclusive.

(D) Amount to be Returned

The return of the purchase money may be claimed only before the date of the commencement of annuity. The return shall be made as follows:

a. At the death of the annuitant the total amount of the purchase money may be returned with the additional sum of compound interest at the rate of 2 per cent per annum.

b. In the case of the surrender of or change in contract the same amount or 90 per cent of the amount mentioned in (a) above may be returned.

II. Special Returns of the Purchase Money to the Bereaved Family of the Annuitant Soldiers or Men Who were Killed or Died at Battles

According to the provisions of the old Post Office Life Annuities Law annuities were paid regardless of the causes of death, i.e., whether or not the annuitants die either because of wounds or diceases at the time of services in war or emergency or on other occasions. The new revised law gives a special privilege of receiving the return of the purchase money to the bereaved families of the annuitants who died in battles or in other services for national defence on or after July 7, 1937, as follows:

a. In the Case of the Contract with Provision for the Return of the Purchase Money; 90 per cent of the remaining sum of money, after the deduction of the amount receivable at the death of the annuitant according to the provision for the return of the purchase money, may specially be refunded.

b. In the Case of the Contract without Provision for the Return of the Purchase Money; 80 per cent of the amount of the purchase money may specially be returned. But, in the cases of the Guaranteed Immediate Life Annuity and the Guaranteed Deferred Life Annuity the annuity for which has already begun, 90 per cent of the remaining sum of the purchase money, after the deduction of the unpaid annuities due to the guaranteed period culculated according to the current value, may specially be returned.

III. Payment of Premiums at the Annuitant's Option

Premiums are payable, as mentioned above, either in a single sum or by instalments. But, in the latter case, the years of payment extend for so long a period that a person may hesitate to enter the contract because of the uncertainty of his capacity of instalments in the coming years, whereas he is able to pay at once the amount corresponding to the instalments for some years, yet, at the same time, the money in hand is short for the single sum payment. To go between the two old ways of paying premiums, therefore, the new revised Law prescribes for a free-time payment of premiums "payable not at call but at any time when he has money," so that the annuitant may be able to pay any sum of money at convenient time on his policy and may at the same time increase the amount of annuity at his option.

Minor Points of Improvement

(A) On the Restrictions of the Receiver of the Return of the Purchase Money

The right for the purchaser or the annuitant to claim refund of premiums paid was extended to a person designated as "the receiver of the refund" other than the contractor or the annuitant to whom the right was exclusively reserved according to the old law.

(B) Abrogation of one of the Contracts without Provision for the Return of the Purchase Money

The contract of the Deferred Life Annuities without Provision for the Return of the Purchase Money has been rarely made, and the new contract of this kind was thought advisable not to be allowed any more.

(C) Refund of Premiums Paid on the Occasion of the Cancellation of Contract by Statute

The cancellation of contract by statute was effected according to a similler principle with that of the Post Office Life Insurance. But the revised Law prescribes for refunding the total amount of premiums paid even on such

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occasion, provided that there was no important falt or ill-will on the part of the contractor.

(D) Surrender of the Right of Cancelling a Contract

The number of the contractors who surrender the right of cancelling a contract for the purpose of protecting the annuitant is considerable. The heart of such action is by no means condemnable in view of the main principle of the life annuity system. And the revised Law recognises such action by a clear statement on the subject.

(E) Refund of Loan from Annuity and the Return of the Purchase Money

Provided a contract reserves the right for the contractor to claim refund of premiums paid, such person may avail himself of a cash loan of not more than a fixed percentage of the premiums paid. But when the refund of the loan is delayed for many years the result may be detrimental to the benefit of both the annuitant and the Government. The revised Law, therefore, prescribes for refunding the loan by a deduction from the annuity to be paid and the return of the purchase money on the expiration of a fixed period of grace.

(F) Besides, further improvements are contemplated which are to be effected by the revisions in the associated Imperial Ordinance and Departmental Orders, especially by introducing a collective life annuity system on small instalments of premiums to provide for an easier contract for the operatives in factories and mines and lower clerks in commercial companies or shops.

POST OFFICE LIFE INSURANCE.

Compiled by the Bureau of the Post Office Life Insurance, the Department of Welfare

Financial Year	New Contracts			Revivals			Death		
	Number	Premiums	Sums insured	Number	Premiums	Sums insured	Number	Premiums	Sums insured
			(In yen)						
1930-31	2,434,292	2,308,475	357,792,091	131,351	103,096	17,871,493	186,446	153,736	25,691,415
1931-32	2,800,819	2,453,427	388,633,808	166,531	129,941	22,318,260	200,888	168,270	27,915,317
1932-33	2,883,356	2,412,635	371,027,797	177,317	139,218	23,617,173	213,314	178,651	29,538,679
1933-34	3,096,872	2,647,667	417,989,686	114,736	93,231	15,618,365	238,634	201,423	33,086,754
1934-35	3,150,881	2,827,243	453,306,719	78,796	65,403	10,842,614	257,899	216,506	35,608,107
1935-36	2,939,911	2,777,355	479,154,048	61,723	52,211	8,583,431	288,684	243,699	40,123,337
1936-37	3,189,259	3,051,579	597,497,484	58,028	51,028	8,472,011	298,928	254,410	42,604,374
1937-38	3,597,328	3,554,071	748,573,890	46,616	41,383	7,073,416	349,208	299,826	51,925,011

Financial Year	Expirations			Surrenders, Lapses and from Other Causes		
	Number	Premiums	Sums Insured	Number	Premiums	Sums Insured
				(In yen)		
1930-31	25,413	19,962	1,918,265	1,255,103	1,194,688	196,626,198
1931-32	55,302	43,466	4,487,420	1,544,375	1,362,097	221,778,654
1932-33	113,022	105,125	10,719,540	1,344,635	1,174,803	194,729,177
1933-34	133,608	144,528	14,808,962	964,867	869,666	144,322,939
1934-35	202,282	249,120	25,283,853	804,643	762,455	129,779,382
1935-36	283,968	313,664	31,894,568	685,812	692,006	120,202,203
1936-37	329,062	318,499	33,960,055	620,786	639,997	118,416,447
1937-38	353,632	315,919	35,201,978	505,104	549,325	106,588,529

Financial Year	Net Increase			Contracts in Force at the End of the Financial Year		
	Number	Premiums	Sums Insured	Number	Premiums	Sums Insured
				(In yen)		
1930-31	1,098,681	1,043,185	151,427,706	15,626,700	12,623,224	2,101,365,710
1931-32	1,166,785	1,009,535	151,770,677	16,793,485	13,632,759	2,253,136,387
1932-33	1,389,702	1,093,274	159,657,564	18,183,187	14,726,033	2,412,793,951
1933-34	1,874,499	1,525,281	241,389,396	20,057,686	16,251,314	2,654,183,347
1934-35	1,964,853	1,664,565	273,477,991	22,022,539	17,915,879	2,927,661,338
1935-36	1,743,170	1,580,197	295,517,371	23,765,709	19,496,076	3,223,178,709
1936-37	1,999,434	1,889,701	410,988,619	25,765,143	21,385,777	3,634,167,328
1937-38	2,436,000	2,430,385	561,931,788	28,201,142	23,816,167	4,196,083,346

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POST OFFICE LIFE ANNUITIES

Compiled by the Bureau of the Post Office Life Insurance, the Department of Welfare

Financial Year	Kind of Annuities	New Contracts No.	New Contracts Premiums	New Contracts Amt. of Annuities	Deaths No.	Deaths Premiums	Deaths Amt. of Annuities
				(In yen)			
1933-34	Immediate Annuities	5,413	6,536,965	501,012	560	628,061	56,891
	Deferred Annuities under the Single Premium Plan	16,587	4,771,335	1,327,205	1,148	124,324	51,645
	Deferred Annuities under the Instalment Premium Plan	19,642	827,549	2,751,437	551	21,118	66,900
1934-35	Immediate Annuities	4,718	5,089,198	358,611	725	725,571	65,443
	Deferred Annuities under the Single Premium Plan	11,825	3,370,317	684,037	1,213	152,323	56,722
	Deferred Annuities under the Instalment Premium Plan	28,215	1,577,225	4,212,438	634	22,454	75,795
1935-36	Immediate Annuities	5,868	5,435,903	383,765	851	788,337	71,509
	Deferred Annuities under the Single Premium Plan	15,467	4,179,067	864,840	1,414	217,169	73,493
	Deferred Annuities under the Instalment Premium Plan	18,364	962,777	2,491,939	710	27,488	86,496
1936-37	Immediate Annuities	8,644	9,202,862	627,763	917	957,483	82,572
	Deferred Annuities under the Single Premium Plan	17,939	6,694,375	1,243,077	1,424	208,922	68,343
	Deferred Annuities under the Instalment Premium Plan	18,948	1,199,319	2,682,482	756	33,354	97,018
1937-38	Immediate Annuities	7,711	6,797,075	448,230	1,213	1,184,345	102,935
	Deferred Annuities under the Single Premium Plan	15,298	5,088,666	839,190	1,643	283,899	86,038
	Deferred Annuities under the Instalment Premium Plan	12,785	836,174	1,762,548	1,023	40,962	123,833

Financial Year	Kind of Annuities	Surrenders No.	Surrenders Premiums	Surrenders Amt. of Annuities	Cancellation of Contracts by Statutes No.	Cancellation of Contracts by Statutes Premiums	Cancellation of Contracts by Statutes Amt. of Annuities
				(In yen)			
1933-34	Immediate Annuities	—	—	—	—	—	—
	Deferred Annuities under the Single Premium Plan	2,132	239,415	86,066	—	—	—
	Deferred Annuities under the Instalment Premium Plan	5,929	155,830	700,918	2,821	49,845	348,06
1934-35	Immediate Annuities	—	—	—	—	—	—
	Deferred Annuities under the Single Premium Plan	1,889	257,792	87,122	—	—	—
	Deferred Annuities under the Instalment Premium Plan	5,804	178,479	696,713	2,887	59,464	357,193
1935-36	Immediate Annuities	—	—	—	—	—	—
	Deferred Annuities under the Single Premium Plan	1,630	266,116	81,672	—	—	—
	Deferred Annuities under the Instalment Premium Plan	5,246	175,965	617,640	2,727	53,671	335,142
1936-37	Immediate Annuities	—	—	—	—	—	—
	Deferred Annuities under the Single Premium Plan	1,430	214,907	60,388	—	—	—
	Deferred Annuities under the Instalment Premium Plan	4,814	157,546	531,296	2,375	70,777	291,746
1937-38	Immediate Annuities	—	—	—	—	—	—
	Deferred Annuities under the Single Premium Plan	1,072	232,837	54,717	—	—	—
	Deferred Annuities under the Instalment Premium Plan	3,591	116,415	373,215	1,846	58,785	228,159

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Financial Year	Kind of Annuities	Increase (+) or Decrease (−) from other Causes: No.	Premiums	Amt. of Annuities	Contracts in Force at the End of the Financial Year: No.	Premiums	Amt. of Annuities
					(In yen)		
1933-34	Immediate Annuities	+ 90	+ 65,371	+ 4,630	24,294	18,193,749	2,245,669
	Deferred Annuities under the Single Premium Plan	− 69	− 68,424	− 14,227	167,007	24,044,120	8,989,045
	Deferred Annuities under the Instalment Premium Plan	− 55	− 71,131	−228,148	85,363	2,940,178	10,698,043
1934-35	Immediate Annuities	+186	+145,119	+ 10,681	28,473	32,702,495	2,549,518
	Deferred Annuities under the Single Premium Plan	− 79	−119,445	− 19,838	175,651	26,884,877	9,509,400
	Deferred Annuities under the Instalment Premium Plan	−152	−176,762	−342,460	104,101	4,080,244	13,438,320
1935-36	Immediate Annuities	+159	+117,048	+ 8,430	33,649	37,467,109	2,870,204
	Deferred Annuities under the Single Premium Plan	− 88	−148,081	− 21,859	187,986	30,432,578	10,197,216
	Deferred Annuities under the Instalment Premium Plan	−104	−222,721	−489,983	113,678	4,563,176	14,400,998
1936-37	Immediate Annuities	+214	+158,711	+ 11,446	41,590	45,871,199	3,426,841
	Deferred Annuities under the Single Premium Plan	−123	−152,189	− 23,784	202,947	36,550,934	11,287,778
	Deferred Annuities under the Instalment Premium Plan	−138	−191,429	−462,428	124,543	5,299,320	15,700,872
1937-38	Immediate Annuities	+248	+233,075	+ 16,462	48,336	51,717,005	3,788,598
	Deferred Annuities under the Single Premium Plan	−124	−216,153	− 32,094	215,398	40,906,265	11,953,159
	Deferred Annuities under the Instalment Premium Plan	−144	−221,230	−457,541	130,732	5,676,556	16,280,552

Note: Premiums for the Deferred Annuitites under the Instalment Premium Plan indicate the amount of yearly payment.

LOANS AND INVESTMENTS OF THE P.O.L.I. FUND

At the end of March, each year

(In yen)

	1933	1934	1935	1936	1937
Free lodging houses	571,561	538,941	409,657	392,888	342,000
Cheap eating houses	133,668	128,414	32,608	—	27,000
Public markets	5,274,586	5,031,142	4,928,921	4,891,584	5,115,000
Services for lowering cost of living	23,297	18,014	332,281	324,537	—
Medical service work	2,356,453	2,230,100	1,105,803	1,184,925	1,253,000
Maternity hospitals	248,309	242,554	228,152	210,292	199,000
Public tuberculosis Sanatoriums	941,557				
Redemption of old debts incurred for the running of public tuberculosis sanatoniums	172,987	1,643,152	922,710	880,623	828,000
Labour exchanges	242,211	225,549	206,314	166,095	151,000
Public pawn shops	1,530,751				
Loans for the public pawnshop funds	120,172	1,582,612	1,231,910	1,055,682	888,000
Day nurseries	240,959	222,123	193,680	25,489	1,000
Public bath-houses	101,030	90,983	101,760	48,449	69,000
Establishment and maintenance of peasant farmers	97,407,642	110,788,262	124,294,493	138,838,315	147,658,000
Local improvement & adjustment of boundaries	1,594,312	1,943,123	1,852,775	1,082,016	1,051,000
Petty amount industrial fund	933,324	133,306	127,561	146,926	167,000
Building schemes and private dwelling-houses	9,390,534				
Redemption of old debts incurred for the building of dwelling houses	10,388	8,424,216	6,303,541	5,874,791	5,030,000

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	1933	1934	1935	1936	1937
Epidemic hospitals	2,827,729				
Redemption of old debts incurred for the building of epidemic hospitals	453,578	2,214,257	1,754,615	1,554,199	1,701,000
Sewerage	12,951,452				
Redemption of old debts incurred for the aforesaid purpose	8,524,231	14,905,991	11,347,278	12,483,7591	11,748,000
Garbage equipment	1,477,951	613,968	446,484	366,163	266,000
Cooperative use of farm tools	2,127,529	2,124,705	1,244,861	874,265	650,000
Primary schools	33,886,447				
Redemption of old debts incurred for the aforesaid purpose	3,316,921	20,959,879	13,914,558	18,185,328	31,404,000
Young People's schools	48,666	42,843	76,308	49,148	198,000
Public hospitals	523,749				
Redemption of old debts incurred for the aforesaid purpose	196,029	558,163	549,348	889,955	1,010,000
Water-works	33,914,413				
Redemption of old debts incurred for the aforesaid purpose	18,724,771	16,818,483	8,421,714	18,400,387	23,144,000
Cooperative equipment for aquatic industry	1,339,670	1,525,936	1,179,282	1,552,721	1,059,000
Adjustment of arable lands	70,161	79,506	122,369	658,703	658,000
Office buildings in cities, towns and villages	404,822	378,094	246,682	935,171	1,530,000
Advance against the insurance policies	85,452,269	97,525,839	107,977,639	120,798,612	136,277,000
Total including others	333,173,405	295,139,511	294,944,061	363,980,582	422,108,000
Investments in Government bonds	105,700,088	116,480,821	140,585,131	161,422,150	205,086,000
Investments against other securities	142,200,252	265,581,610	406,895,647	460,311,791	508,320,000
Deposits at the Deposits Bureau	74,245,436	80,832,164	37,315,003	13,123,503	925,000
Cash on hand	1,121,700	370,000	475,000	1,480,600	1,253,000
Grand total including others	656,440,881	758,413,106	881,076,864	1,006,138,063	1,142,178,000

State Live-Stock Insurance

The live stock insurance business is making steady progress. In March, 1930 there were only 6 societies engaged in the live stock insurance business, and only 1,304 head were insured for an aggregate amount of ¥127,622. The amount had increased to ¥19,491,871 in March, 1934 and to ¥39,790,494 in March, 1937. The following shows the business results of the last 5 years :

LIVE-STOCK INSURANCE

March of	Insurance Societies	Insured Animals	Insured Amount	Premiums Received (In yen)	Claims Paid
1933	209	173,450	13,024,819	279,630	167,002
1934	234	263,550	19,491,871	424,650	278,808
1935	241	367,542	27,542,940	642,962	365,603
1936	—	419,951	32,146,253	767,501	436,071
1937	—	503,959	39,790,494	935,107	582,154

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LIVE-STOCK INSURANCE CLASSIFIED BETWEEN HORSES AND CATTLE

March of		Insured Number of Animals	Insured Amount	Premiums
1933	Cattle	109,338	8,049,332	130,292
	Horses	65,738	5,071,505	151,804
1934	Cattle	166,148	12,372,551	204,467
	Horses	99,360	7,276,531	224,621
1935	Cattle	238,990	18,174,512	323,922
	Horses	130,602	9,417,976	323,620
1936	Cattle	279,693	22,134,347	404,189
	Horses	142,601	10,206,922	369,187
1937	Cattle	353,324	28,795,083	530,530
	Horses	153,772	11,272,220	412,891

State Health Insurance

On March 31, 1936, the number of labourers holding policies in the State Health Insurance was 3,043,934, an increase of 717,240 as compared with the previous year. Of the total, 3,026,650, were compulsorily insured; the number of contracts under Government control was 2,096,657 as against 947,277 of contracts under the control of 370 health insurance associations.

In 1936-37, the amount paid out to the beneficiaries reached ¥45,882,742 for 10,848,429 cases. For full particulars figures follow:

HEALTH INSURANCE

March of	Total	Persons Insured Compulsorily	Persons Insured Voluntarily	Persons Insured in Continuation Voluntarily
1933	1,720,199	1,684,509	35,530	160
1934	2,001,481	1,965,026	36,333	122
1935	2,326,694	2,306,322	20,247	125
1936	3,043,934	3,026,650	17,098	186
1937	3,451,470	3,446,696	4,652	122

Under Government Control

March of	Total	Persons Insured Compulsorily	Persons Insured Voluntarily	Persons Insured in Continuation Voluntarily
1933	1,122,141	1,117,478	4,503	160
1934	1,294,926	1,290,439	4,365	122
1935	1,503,550	1,497,075	6,350	125
1936	2,096,657	2,092,697	3,774	186
1937	2,346,637	2,341,863	4,652	122

Under Control of Health Insurance Associations

March of	Number of Associations	Total	Persons Insured Compulsorily	Persons Insured Voluntarily	Persons Insured in Continuation Voluntarily
1933	347	598,058	567,031	31,027	—
1934	345	706,555	674,587	31,968	—
1935	349	823,144	809,247	13,897	—
1936	370	947,277	933,953	13,324	—
1937	379	1,104,833	1,104,833	—	—

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Premiums Collected & Insured Money Paid Out
(In yen)

During	Total		Under Government Control		Under Control of Health Insurance Associations	
	Premium	Insured Money Paid Out	Premium	Insured Money Paid Out	Premium	Insured Money Paid Out
1932-33	26,119,521	23,764,305	15,177,291	13,648,413	10,942,230	10,115,892
1933-34	29,304,218	26,636,928	17,370,322	15,218,077	11,933,896	11,418,851
1934-35	34,849,101	31,185,992	20,421,257	17,697,443	14,427,844	13,818,780
1935-36	46,588,307	41,633,545	29,119,041	24,814,765	17,469,266	16,818,780
1936-37	54,260,945	45,882,742	33,455.029	26,868,160	20,805,916	19,014,582

Health Insurance for the Salaried Classes

A health insurance system for salaried employees has at last been enacted into law. The bill approved at the recent session of the Diet proposes to answer the urgent need for the maintenance and promotion of the health of the nation. The present insurance scheme aims to do for salaried employees exactly what the National Health Insurance and other forms of social insurance undertake to do for the protection of persons living in rural districts and fishery villages, workers in factories and mines, and small and medium-sized tradespeople.

The present health insurance is made compulsory for the purpose of rendering the insurance facilities accessible to as many persons as possible and also in order to reduce as far as feasible the contribution by each insured person. For one thing, if the insurance is left voluntary, there is strong likelihood that weak and ailing persons only will be induced to become the insured which, of course, is not a desirable thing for the system. The operation of the present health insurance system will be limited to the cities and such towns and villages as are specially designated by the competent Minister of State.

In the second place, the scheme will be applicable to the offices or places of business having not less than ten persons constantly in their employ. A business office or a group of stores having not less than 300 employees may, with the approval of a majority of the insured persons, organize an Association for Health Insurance for the Salaried Classes. Although it is often in small offices and stores that health protection is more urgently needed, they must of necessity be excluded for the present from the application of this insurance system.

Thirdly, the scope of business offices or stores to which the system is applicable is for practical purposes limited to the following:

(a) trading and commerce, (b) finance and insurance, (c) custody and leasing of property, (d) commission agencies, (e) collection of money, information, and advertising, and (f) other business to be designated by Imperial Ordinances. It may be added in this connection that persons with incomes of not less than ¥1,200 a year may not receive the insurance protection.

The present health insurance system provides for various benefits for the insured person in cases of illness, accidents, burial, childbirth and maternity. It is the purpose of the scheme gradually to extend its benefits and protection to members of the families of the insured persons. Below is a brief account of the insurance benefits provided for by the system.

(A) Medical Expense In case an insured person receives medical care for illness or accidents, 80 per cent of the expenses is paid by the System. This aid extends beyond the ordinary medical care to hospital, operation and nursing expenses and is granted for a period of six months in the same case. In special instances designated by the competent Minister of State where prolonged medical care is needed, the period of the aid may be extended for not more than one year. Where, again, an employee is under medical treatment when the person loses qualification to be insured by reason of retirement or otherwise, the aid may be continued as prescribed, provided that the same person shall have previously been in the employ for a stated period.

(B) Allowance in case of Illness or Accident Where an insured person is compelled, on account of illness or accident, to rest from work for any length of time, the person will receive an allowance in addition to the aid mentioned above. The allowance will in ordinary cases amount to 50 per cent of the regular pay, and will be given

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after three months of absence in the case of those who receive monthly pay and after a period of ten days in the case of those who receive daily pay; for in both cases the regular pay is continued during the respective periods.

(C) Burial Allowance In case of the death of an insured person and where the burial is effected by the bereaved family whom the deceased had been supporting, a grant of money corresponding to one month's pay but not less than thirty yen will be made in aid of burial expenses. Where there is none left entitled to receive this award, the person effecting the burial will be compensated up to the extent given above. When a person dies within three months after the loss of the qualifications for the insurance protection or when any person dies who had been receiving the insurance protection after having been disqualified for the insurance or when such person dies within three months after ceasing to receive the benefits, the same burial allowance or expense will be paid likewise.

(D) Childbirth When an insured person is delivered of a child, a sum of twenty yen will be awarded towards the necessary expenses. In such cases, it may be feasible to send the person to a maternity hospital or otherwise give the needful assistance. In this instance the awrad mentioned above will be ten yen instead of twenty yen. The benefits in connection with childbirth will be available where the person had been insured at least for a stated period during one year previous to the event. Where, again, the childbirth occurs within six months after the person had been disqualified, she may receive the benefits as well as the maternity allowance mentioned below.

(E) Maternity Allowance In addition to the foregoing award at childbirth, the insurer will grant for a stated period immediately before and after the childbirth an allowance corresponding to 50 per cent of a day's earnings. The recipient of the allowance may not receive any illness or accident allowance simultaneously.

The foregoing description roughly covers the work of the health insurance system for the salaried classes. Not content with the protection of the sick and weak, the scheme plans to take more fundamental measures calculated to promote the health of the salaried classes.

Lastly, as regards the premiums, the contributions are, as in the case of other social insurances, made half and half between the employers and the employees; the rate is fixed generally at about 2.5 per cent of the monthly income. At this rate, where a person has an income of sixty yen a month the premium will be ¥1.50, for which ¥0.75 each will be contributed by the employer and the employee. Under this arrangement, the cost of the system to the Treasury will practically correspond to the administrative expenses of the institution.

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CHAPTER XIII

AGRICULTURE

Farm Households and Arable Land

Farm Households Number of farm households totalled 5,574,879 at the end of 1937, which is 42% of the total number of households in Japan proper. Comparison with that of the previous year indicates a decrease of 22,584 or 0.4 per cent.

As classified into those engaged wholly or in part in agriculture, the figure consists of 4,180,672 of the former, and 1,394,207 of the latter.

Farm households cultivating their own lands numbered 1,733,997; the number of tenant-farmers and households cultivating their own lands together with those leased being 1,500,994 and 2,339,888 respectively.

Classified by size of area cultivated, farm-households cultivating less than 0.50 cho number 1,884,575, a decrease of 11,282 from the previous year, those between 0.50 and 0.99 cho, 1,914,018, a decrease of 8,592, between 0.99 and 1.99 cho 1,262,814, an increase of 708 over the previous year, and those over 1.99 cho, 522,065, a decrease of 2,919.

Owners of Arable-lands The number of owners of arable-lands totalled 5,141,968 at the end of 1937 decreasing from that of the previous year by 8,252. When classified according to area owned, those who own less than 0.50 cho number 2,550,259, and those owing from 0.50 cho to under 0.99 cho number 1,304,924. In this way the greater the areas, the less number of owners, and so those owing 50 cho and over are only 3,252 (or 0.1 per cent) in number. In the light of the tendency during the previous ten years general increase was traceable in the total number, but it turned to decrease in 1937, while by reference to the tendency of number fluctuation according to area owned, those under 3 cho are pursuing a steady upward course, those owning more than 3 cho showing the reverse trend.

Area of Arable-lands Area of arable-lands at the end of 1937 was computed at 6,098,435 cho, occupying 15% of the total area of Japan proper. This figure consists of 3,217,928 cho (53%) of rice-fields and 2,860,506 cho (47%) of upland-farms. Comparison of these figures with those of the previous year indicates a slight increase on the part of the former and increase of 12,305.4 cho (0.4%) in the latter.

Classified into those cultivated by owners of lands and those by tenant-farmers, area cultivated by the former was 3,266,045 cho (54%), increasing by 12,325.9 cho (0.4%), the latter being 2,832,389 cho (46%), increase by 222.6 cho (0.01), both as against the figures of the previous year.

FARM HOUSEHOLDS AND ARABLE LANDS IN JAPAN PROPER

(Compiled by the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry)

FARM HOUSEHOLDS

Year (At the Year End)	1933	1934	1935	1936	1937
Total	5,621,535	5,617,486	5,610,607	5,597,465	5,574,879
Households principally engaged in agriculture	4,126,052	4,144,218	4,164,035	4,176,422	4,180,672
Households partly engaged in agriculture	1,495,483	1,473,268	1,446,572	1,421,043	1,394,207
Classified by the mode of tenure of the lands					
Households cultivating their own lands	1,745,847	1,740,219	1,732,086	1,731,139	1,733,997
Tenant-farmers	1,499,855	1,508,319	1,518 181	1,517,701	1,500,994
Households cultivating their own lands together with leased land	2,375,833	2,368,948	2,360,340	2,348,625	2,339,888
Classified by the size of agricultural area under operation					
Under 0.5 cho	1,920,943	1,918,507	1,908,642	1,896,357	1,884,575

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Year (At the Year End)	1933	1934	1935	1936	1937
0.50 cho — 0.99 „	1,927,660	1,921,420	1,919,073	1,914,018	1,905,425
0.99 „ — 1.99 „	1,247,517	1,250,818	1,254,817	1,262,106	1,262,814
1.99 „ — 2.99 „	319,351	321,088	322,583	320,615	318,182
2.99 „ — 4.99 „	129,529	129,209	127,920	126,540	125,539
4.99 cho and over	76,835	76,444	77,572	77,829	78,344

Excluding owners of arable-lands not engaged in cultivation.

OWNERS OF ARABLE-LANDS

Year (At the Year End)	1933	1934	1935	1936	1937
Total	5,119,936	5,096,195	5,147,412	5,150,220	5,141,968
Under 0.50 cho	2,550,437	2,519,322	2,555,398	2,556,630	2,550,259
0.50 cho — 0.99 „	1,284,076	1,289,449	1,304,482	1,305,400	1,304,924
0.99 „ — 2.99 „	899,506	900,677	905,956	909,933	909,035
2.99 „ — 4.99 „	222,779	223,977	221,245	218,851	219,346
4.99 „ — 9.99 „	113,104	112,681	111,128	110,549	109,799
9.99 „ — 49.99 „	46,400	46,542	45,788	45,580	45,353
49.99 cho and over	3,634	3,547	3,415	3,277	3,252

ARABLE LANDS

(In cho)

Year (At the Year End)	1933	1934	1935	1936	1937
Total	6,028,764	6,037,645	6,058,753	6,085,887	6,098,435
Cultivated by owners of the lands	3,185,682	3,199,018	3,220,465	3,253,720	3,266,047
Cultivated by tenant-farmers	2,843,082	2,838,627	2,838,288	2,832,167	2,832,389
Rice-fields	3,225,628	3,218,440	3,219,326	3,217,686	3,217,929
Cultivated by owners of the lands	1,508,835	1,505,964	1,517,113	1,526,760	1,567,234
Cultivated by tenant farmers	1,716,793	1,712,476	1,702,213	1,690,926	1,650,695
Upland-farms	2,803,136	2,819,205	2,839,427	2,868,201	2,880,506
Cultivated by owners of the lands	1,676,847	1,693,054	1,703,352	1,726,960	1,698,812
Cultivated by tenant-farmers	1,126,289	1,126,151	1,136,075	1,141,242	1,181,694

Rise in Land Value

The value of arable lands generally went up in 1938, the average percentage of rise being 10 per cent, unprecedented since the years of the World War. The reasons for the rise are the rise in prices of agricultural products, the reduction of taxes on farm lands because of the revisions in the rates of rent, the decrease of tenant disputes on account of the emergency, and the increase of incomes of farmers.

PRICES OF FARM LANDS IN 1938

(In yen per tan)

	Average Price in Japan Proper	Rise over the Previous Year	Percentage of Rise
Rice field			
First class	656	54	9.0
Second class	519	49	10.4
Third class	365	37	11.3
Up-land farm			
First class	420	31	8.0
Second class	304	26	9.4
Third class	192	21	12.3

Value of Production

The total value of production by 5,574,879 farm-households in 1936 amounted to ¥4,328,173,551 (¥776 per household) including farm products, minor industries, live stock, cocoons, raw silk and forestry production. (For details of the last three items see following chapters.)

PRODUCTION BY FARMERS IN 1937

(In yen)

Rice	2,071,889,318
Barley and Wheet	403,613,540
Vegetables	259,306,238
Fruits	92,114,502
Sweet potatoes	91,214,087
Other agricultural products	325,515,912
Live stock production	261,595,010
Cocoons	419,609,741
Wood and bamboo	403,315,203
Total	4,328,173,551

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VALUE OF PRODUCTION BY FARMERS IN JAPAN PROPER

(as compared with that of factories)

(Compiled by the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry)

Year	Production by Farmers Amount (In ¥1,000)	Index No.	Production in Factories Amount (In ¥1,000)	Index No.
1925	5,030,767	100	6,924,911	100
1926	4,343,372	87	7,001,396	101
1927	4,075,237	81	6,745,861	97
1928	4,013,401	80	7,205,522	104
1929	3,996,374	80	7,716,798	111
1930	2,787,856	56	5,962,810	86
1931	2,373,369	47	5,174,579	75
1932	2,750,221	55	5,982,469	86
1933	3,390,178	68	7,871,364	114
1934	3,120,826	62	9,390,060	136
1935	3,589,188	71	10,836,894	156
1936	4,125,096	82	12,257,588	177
1937	4,670,066	93	16,412,452	237

Note: Production by farmers includes forestry and fishery products.

Rice Statistics

Supply and Demand of Rice The supply and demand of rice in Japan proper for the past 10 years were as follows :

SUPPLY

(In koku)

Rice Year	Brought over from the Previous Year	Production of the Year Before	Imports including those from Colonies	Total
1929	7,840,192	60,303,089	8,909,410	77,052,691
1930	7,027,557	59,557,694	8,602,411	75,187,662
1931	5,719,241	66,875,535	11,486,145	84,080,961
1932	9,140,247	55,215,263	11,602,116	75,957,626
1933	8,907,000	60,390,098	12,747,000	82,045,000
1934	9,007,000	70,829,000	13,744,000	93,582,000
1935	16,431,000	51,840,000	13,018,000	81,289,000
1936	9,936,000	57,457,000	14,194,000	81,587,000
1937	8,006,000	67,340,000	11,879,000	87,225,000
1938	7,512,000	66,320,000	15,271,000	89,103,000

DEMAND

	Exports including those to Colonies	Carried forward to Next Year	Consumption	Total Population in Japan Proper	Per capita Consumption
1929	539,307	7,027,557	69,485,827	63,078,000	1.102
1930	539,963	5,717,117	68,930,582	64,450,000	1.076
1931	1,963,389	9,140,247	72,977,325	64,366,000	1.124
1932	631,613	8,907,430	66,418,583	66,296,000	1.007
1933	623,000	9,007,000	72,413,000	67,238,000	1.090
1934	681,000	16,389,000	76,510,000	68,194,000	1.142
1935	790,000	9,936,000	70,538,000	69,251,000	1.042
1936	550,000	8,006,000	73,040,000	70,258,000	1.039
1937	648,000	7,512,000	79,066,000	71,252,000	1.110
1938	587,000	8,493,000	80,022,000	72,223,000	1.108

The rice year begins with November and ends with October of the following year, and hence the production of the year 1929 represents the crop in the autumn of 1928.

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RICE CONDITIONS IN KOREA

Year	Production	Exports to Japan Proper	Consumption
	(In 1,000 koku)		
1927	17,298	7,068	10,347
1928	13,511	5,377	8,583
1929	13,703	5,167	8,584
1930	19,183	7,929	10,537
1931	15,873	7,197	8,392
1932	16,346	7,100	8,508
1933	18,192	7,990	8,710
1934	16,554	8,955	8,134
1935	17,884	8,434	8,508
1936	19,410	8,970	12,579
1937	26,797	—	15,787
1938	24,139	—	—

RICE CONDITIONS IN FORMOSA

Year	Production	Exports to Japan Proper	Consumption
	(In 1,000 koku)		
1927	6,637	2,703	4,932
1928	6,841	2,387	4,793
1929	6,451	2,172	4,782
1930	7,111	2,071	4,988
1931	7,516	2,663	4,874
1932	8,072	3,338	4,676
1933	8,666	4,123	4,782
1934	9,088	5,123	4,270
1935	9,122	4,511	4,201
1936	9,558	4,823	4,634
1937	9,233	4,856	4,590
1938	9,707	—	—

CONSUMPTION OF RICE

According to Purposes, in Japan Proper
(From November 1, 1937 to October 31, 1938)
(In 1,000 koku)

Used for	Amount used	Percentage
Seeding	844	1.05
The table	69,679	87.07
Saké brewery	3,874	4.84
Making "mochi" (rice cake)	3,754	4.69
Making Japanese sauce etc.	554	0.69
Making Japanese confectionaries and jelly	1,032	1.29
Paste	58	0.07
Others	227	0.28
Total	80,022	100.00

Rice in 1938

Price of Rice The standard price for 1938, or for rice cropped in 1937, was fixed at ¥27.30 minimum and ¥35.40 maximum per koku of unhulled rice. The actual maximum quotation went up as high as ¥36.77 in December in the Tokyo exchange and the average for the year was ¥35.79, a rise of ¥2.60 as compared with the previous year. The standard price for 1939, or for rice cropped in 1938 is fixed at ¥29.90 minimum and ¥35.40 maximum, i.e. the minimum price is raised by ¥2.60 while the maximum price is left same with that of the previous year. The main reason for keeping the maximum price in the same standard with the previous year is to control the price of rice in accordance with the general national policy of price control for the wartime economy of the nation, because, in Japan, the price of rice is an important barometer of prices of other commodities.

The standard prices for the years since the enactment of the Rice Control Law in 1933 have been as follows:

STANDARD PRICES OF RICE

(In yen, per koku)

For the Year	Standard Price: Minimum	Standard Price: Maximum	Standard Price: Stretch	Price adjusted by the general prices of other Commodities
1934	22.70	30.50	7.80	25.26
1934	23.30	30.50	7.20	24.41
1935	24.30	31.50	7.20	24.88
1936	24.80	33.20	8.40	27.23
1937	24.90	33.90	9.00	29.09
1938	27.30	35.40	8.10	33.67
1939	29.90	35.40	5.50	38.26

Cost of Production of Rice According to the report of the Imperial Farm Association the cost of production of rice in 1938 was ¥28.45 per koku in the case of landed farmers, a rise of ¥2.58 (10 per cent) as compared with the previous year, and ¥30.77 in the case of tenants or a rise of ¥2.06 (7.2 per cent), making an average of ¥29.54 or a rise of ¥2.37 (8.7 per cent).

The wartime economy of the country increased expenses in almost all items of cost as shown in the fillowing table:

COST OF PRODUCTION OF RICE IN 1938

(In yen, per koku)

Items	Landed Farmer 1938	Landed Farmer Increase over the Previous Year	Tenant 1938	Tenant Increase over the Previous Year
Directly concerned				
Seeds	0.31	0.02	0.30	0.01

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Items	Landed Farmer 1938	Increase over the Previous Year	Tenant 1938	Increase over the Previous Year
Fertilizer	4.87	0.45	4.67	0.43
Labour	9.14	1.13	9.27	0.84
Animal power	1.13	0.17	1.01	0.12
Material	0.82	0.14	0.74	0.08
Total	16.28	1.91	15.99	1.48
Indirectly concerned				
Improvement in land	0.04	(−)0.02	0.01	0.00
Tools	0.92	0.12	0.84	0.02
Buildings	0.63	0.01	0.45	(−)0.01
Taxes	2.22	(−)0.21	0.40	(−)0.02
Interest on the investment on land	8.36	0.77	0.15	(−)0.13
Interest on tenant right	—	—	0.22	0.07
Rate of tenant	—	—	12.71	0.65
Total	12.17	0.67	14.78	0.58
Grand Total	28.45	2.58	30.77	2.06

Rice Crop in 1938 According to the report of the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry the rice crop in 1938 amounted to 65,869,092 koku, decreasing 450,672 koku or 0.7 per cent from the previous year, but showing an increase of 3,111,944 koku or 5.0 per cent over the average crop for the preceding 5 years. The area devoted to rice was 3,220,729 chobu and the average crop per tan (0.1 chobu or 0.245 acre) was 2.045 koku or 10.468 American bushels.

The growth of the rice plant was hindered by rainy weather conditions in the months right after its plantation in a part of the country, but later the weather was mostly favourable for the growth throughout the country, especially at the time of blooming, so that the last outcome showed a 2.7 per cent increase over the second forecast.

The comparison of the last 6 years is as follows:

RICE CROP IN 1933-1938
in Japan Proper

	Area Planted (In Chobu)	Rice Crop (In Koku)
1933	3,173,203.3	70,829,117
1934	3,172,610.6	51,840,182
1935	3,204,178.9	57,456,976
1936	3,206,963.0	67,339,699
1937	3,217,051.5	66,319,764
Average for 1933-1937	3,194,841.5	62,757,148
1938	3,220,729.4	65,869,092

VALUE OF CEREAL PRODUCTION IN JAPAN PROPER

(Area in cho, Value in yen)

	1933	1934	1935	1936	1937	1938
Total						
Area	4,977,524	4,935,421	5,051,136	5,092,713	5,095,489	—
Production (Value)	1,660,499,165	1,660,995,963	1,908,806,000	2,226,310,331	2,509,520,303	—
Rice						
Area	3,173,203	3,172,811	3,204,179	3,206,963	3,217,051	3,220,729
Production	1,433,590,419	1,384,621,927	1,611,431,932	1,865,268,551	2,071,889,318	—
Wheat						
Area	616,476	648,498	663,868	688,959	724,602	725,101
Production	114,032,716	121,743,980	131,115,603	173,215,048	210,937,714	202,001,262
Oats						
Area	128,215	120,402	122,297	125,557	122,594	137,371
Production	8,141,403	12,393,484	9,664,987	12,600,640	17,224,780	22,477,540
Barley						
Area	347,295	331,745	341,948	340,773	330,182	357,559
Production	44,127,198	51,164,562	57,100,667	60,871,161	75,185,874	87,017,259
Rye						
Area	437,659	424,385	439,714	439,570	429,494	414,823
Production	55,518,156	71,293,670	77,303,560	84,165,931	100,130,993	93,679,951
Other cereals						
Area	284,676	287,580	279,180	280,891	271,566	—
Production	25,089,273	19,778,340	22,189,000	30,189,000	34,151,624	—

Other Farm Productions

Leguminous Plants Area of leguminous plants in 1937 was 606,184 cho and the production was valued at ¥96,048,470. During the past decade the area planted has been pursuing a slow downward movement, while a sharp reduction experienced by production was more than made good by the increase

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of 1933. Soy-beans and azuki (red) beans are predominant both in area and production. The area of plantation and the amount of production of these two articles in 1937 were as follows:

	(In cho)	(In koku)	(In yen)
Soy-beans	331,572	2,842,543	50,848,576
Azuki beans	104,288	833,333	17,272,620

Tuber and Root Crops Area cultivated with tuber and root crops in 1937 was 664,268 cho and the value realized from their production was ¥243,066,285 and both showed an increase as compared with preceding years. From the standpoint of area and production, sweet potatoes, 'daikon' (giant radish), satoimo and potatoes are predominent.

	(In cho)	(In kan)	(In yen)
Sweet potatoes	288,776	1,030,115,309	91,214,087
Daikon	107,077	654,792,501	46,460,168
Potatoes	171,125	551,170,209	48,595,431

Industrial Crops Area cultivated with industrial crops in 1937 amounted to 294,079 cho and the production was valued at ¥140,291,145.

Chief products are summarized below:

Tobacco	17,049,810 kan	¥46,832,123
Sugar cane	1,693,358,599 kin	11,989,058
Rapeseed	1,102,630 koku	24,960,741
Rushes	17,288,674 kan	9,295,377
Insecticide flowers	2,549,592 kan	8,214,032
Arum	15,296,744 kan	9,563,757

Vegetables Area under vegetables in 1937 was 221,908 cho and the value of the production was estimated at ¥128,122,197.

Chief products are given below:

Water-melons	121,729,228 kan	¥20,878,955
Tsukena	192,156,031 ,,	20,616,731
Egg-plants	123,655,273 ,,	17,687,163
Cucumbers	78,863,260 ,,	12,674,690
Negi (onion)	67,255,839 ,,	12,363,085
Pumpkins	89,229,812 ,,	11,114,608
Tomatoes	43,663,258 ,,	7,397,441

Fruits The production of fruits in 1937 was valued at ¥92,114,502, having increased by ¥10,302,051 as against the figure of the previous year.

Predominant are the following:

	kan	¥
Mandarin oranges	117,018,552	25,357,178
Persimmons	61,528,088	13,092,734
Japanese Pears	42,743,403	11,776,705
Apples	41,572,442	14,884,442
Grapes	18,411,989	6,479,552

Tea Tea grown in 1937 was 14,376,762 kan in quantity and ¥34,356,516 in value. Review of the past decade indicates an unbroken rise in production as a whole, while fluctuations in values of production have been brought about by falling-off of prices.

Livestock and Poultry (1) Horses. Horses at the end of 1936 numbered 1,431,920, consisting of 816,599 female and 615,321 male. Foals and horses died to the number of 127,316 and 27,218 respectively. The increase in number during the past decade has been very slow, often tending towards decline.

(2) Cattle. Cattle at the end of 1936 numbered 1,770,938 (female, 1,327,872 male, 443,066). Calves and cattle died numbered 313,994 and 17,635 respectively. The tendency of the past ten years was a steadily increasing one.

(3) Swine. Number of swine at the end of 1936 totalled 1,110,000. During the year, swine died or killed numbered 113,000. The rising of swine has been showing a sharp advance during the past decade, the number at the beginning of the decade being nearly doubled by the close of the same period.

(4) Sheep and Goats. Sheep and goats at the end of 1937 numbered 89,815 and 293,302 respectively, both increasing as compared with the previous year, and the tendency during the past ten years has been towards increase.

Generally speaking, the raising of sheep and goats is still on quite a small scale in spite of this marked progress.

(5) Fowls. The total number of fowls at the end of June, 1937 was 51,266,000 (valued at ¥38,905,000). During the past ten years the number has increased by nearly 100 per cent.

Livestock Products (1) Milk. The quantity of milk obtained in 1937 amounted to 262,314,993 litres valued at ¥37,167,007. The number of cows milked was 107,878 at the year end.

(2) Meat and Animals Slaughtered. The number of slaughter-houses at the end of 1937 was 714 and number of animals slaughtered and the quantity of meant obtained were as follows:

Number of Animals Slaughtered	
Horses	71,427
Cattle	345,585
Calves	43,661
Swine	1,222,249
Sheep	2,534
Goats	4,207
Total	1,689,463

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Quantity of Meat Obtained

	kilogramme
Horses	10,497,131
Cattle	64,523,122
Calves	2,647,629
Swine	60,042,749
Sheep	46,927
Goats	43,654
Total	137,801,212

(3) Dairy and Meat Products. Dairy production in 1937 amounted to 58,687,560 kin valued at ¥29,077,079. Meat proructs totalled 7,818,065 kin valued at ¥4,813,533.

(4) Eggs. Number of eggs obtained during the year ending June, 1937 was as follows:

	July, 1936—June, 1937	
	Number	Value
Fowls'	3,642,988,779	¥100,129,706
Ducks'	14,757,849	441,573

During the past decade the production of eggs has shown a substantial increase especially as regards fowls' eggs of which production in 1931 more than doubled the figure of 1922.

Village Societies

The co-operative societies of this country have developed from the older credit societies. The business of granting credits still forms the most important of the activities of the co-operative societies. There are at present about 15,000 of these societies throughout the country, which have a total membership of over 6,000,000. Of these institutions 13,400 are loan associations which are mostly located in agricultural villages, accomodating their members with industrial and economic funds and accepting deposits from their members and public organizations.

Of the 13,400 loan associations more than 1,300 are engaged only in supplying loans to members; but their number is gradually decreasing because the Government is, in line with a five-year co-operative expansion programme, encouraging them to function as trading, purchasing and utilization associations as well.

Those which discount bills and accept deposits from non-members are called credit associations in the cities and are placed under the supervision of the Finance Ministry, while those in villages are controlled by the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry.

The latest statistics show that deposits with these credit associations throughout the whole country total approximately ¥1,500,000,000, and their loans amount in all to about ¥1,000,000,000. They are playing an important part as mutual credit associations for the masses, both in agricultural villages and towns.

As to the credit associations in cities, their number is 274, with a total of 310,000 members, having ¥277,000,000 in deposits and ¥190,000,000 in advances. Some of them have from ¥5,000,000 to ¥8,000,000 each in deposits but the average amount for one institution is ¥790,000 against some ¥630,000 in advances.

There are two central institutions designed to facilitate the activity of these associations. One is called the Shinyo Kumiai Rengokai or Federation of Credit Associations, which represents the credit associations of each Prefecture, and the other is the Sangyo Kumiai Chuo Kinko, or the Central Chest for Co-operative Associations, which was established for regulating the movement of funds of the Federation above mentioned and the industrial associations all over Japan. (See Chapter IX)

VILLAGE CO-OPERATIVE SOCIETIES

Number of Co-operative Societies

(At the year end)

	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936	1937
Total	14,352	14,651	14,815	15,028	15,460	14,512
Credit	2,051	1,756	1,511	1,313	1,117	895
Trading	325	311	332	301	300	297
Purchasing	336	332	332	314	301	270
Utilization	312	316	306	298	286	243
Trading and purchasing	307	292	263	258	239	170
Trading and utilization	267	268	264	256	247	201
Purchasing and utilization	116	131	144	152	162	174
Trading, purchasing and utilization	478	490	496	518	492	412
Credit and trading	196	175	166	157	140	71
Credit and purchasing	1,759	1,370	1,056	760	504	219

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	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936	1937
Credit and utilization	117	106	96	82	84	75
Credit, trading and purchasing	3,194	2,718	2,361	1,952	1,560	988
Credit, trading and utilization	42	38	32	33	37	34
Credit, purchasing and utilization	355	286	248	204	160	101
Credit, trading, purchasing and utilization	4,497	6,062	7,206	8,430	9,831	10,362
Classified by the organization						
Limited liability	12,968	8,363	5,973	4,499	3,062	724
Unlimited liability	990	1,182	971	934	934	830
Guaranteed liability	394	5,106	7,871	9,595	11,464	12,958

Operation of Co-operative Societies
(At the end of March)
(Amount in yen)

	1933	1934	1935	1936	1937
Number of societies investigated	13,106	13,446	13,616	13,864	14,140
Number of members	4,978,248	5,238,253	5,505,897	5,795,139	6,127,425
Capital					
Amount authorized	312,668,822	319,331,829	326,037,985	334,570,344	342,183,330
Amount paid up	239,725,266	243,968,997	250,856,520	259,996,044	263,540,430
Reserve fund	124,157,646	130,222,170	137,492,777	146,392,752	151,546,260
Loans	276,072,070	293,599,862	271,246,314	255,782,695	249,324,576
Deposits					
Number of societies investigated	11,290	11,617	11,812	12,094	12,437
Number of members	3,926,000	4,140,000	4,261,000	4,494,356	4,785,662
Amount of deposits	1,063,164,000	1,179,132,000	1,268,021,000	1,378,319,128	1,514,897,044
Total amount of funds	1,703,119,000	1,846,923,000	1,927,617,000	2,040,491,000	2,179,308,000
Balance	9,683,000	11,693,000	9,312,000	8,275,000	9,256,000
Credit societies					
Number of societies investigated	11,290	11,617	11,812	12,094	12,437
Number of members	3,925,801	4,140,448	4,261,000	4,494,000	4,785,662
Deposits	1,063,163,980	1,179,131,995	1,268,021,000	1,378,319,000	1,514,897,044
Advances	1,017,632,665	1,017,521,313	1,014,445,000	1,033,334,000	1,047,878,130
Trading societies					
Number of societies investigated	8,477	9,529	10,293	11,057	11,859
Number of members	3,151,868	3,536,261	3,857,000	4,199,000	4,624,881
Total amount of sales (for the year)	202,838,620	261,398,919	313,210,000	376,746,000	478,316,112
Purchasing societies					
Number of societies investigated	10,086	10,721	11,155	11,664	12,116
Number of members	3,498,860	3,811,395	4,108,000	4,374,000	4,879,540
Total amount of purchases (for the year)	129,110,813	155.991,976	196,126,000	249,296,000	281,541,238
Utilization societies					
Number of societies investigated	5,647	7,158	8,213	9,300	10,484
Number of members	2,281,068	2,835,943	3,308,000	3,822,000	4,378,065
Total amount of charges for utilization (for year)	5,731,098	6,816,995	8,054,000	9,465,000	10,948,498

Village Cereal Warehouses At the time of the great crop failure which resulted from the unseasonably cold weather in the Tohoku or North-Eastern District in 1934, the Imperial House granted a large sum of money, in November of that same year, for instituting some permanent system of mutual relief and rehabilitation for the farmers in the district.

Accordingly the Government, in order to comply with the Imperial wishes, decided upon establishing and popularizing 'Go-Kura' or village warehouses

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for storing cereals against emergencies in those parts. It distributed an aggregate sum of Yen 1,636,800 for the 1934 and 1935 financial years to the prefectures in the district, where 1209 old cereal warehouses were enlarged and renovated and as many as 4,921 new ones established, making a total of 6,130 at the end of March, 1936.

A warehouse association has been formed in each village and each farmer-member of the association is required to store his crop of any particular year by the end of December. The aim is to complete full stocks of cereals in about five years. There are many villages where special community farms for the purpose are cultivated either by members themselves or by tenants.

NUMBER OF VILLAGE WAREHOUSES

	Total	Owners		Capacity	
		Public bodies	Federation	For cereals	For cocoons
1933	6,416	6,348	68	20,716,000 (bales)	3,841,000 (kan)
1934	6,834	6,724	110	23,540,000 ,,	4,182,000 ,,
1935	7,939	7,779	160	27,992,000 ,,	4,107,000 ,,
1936	8,513	8,304	209	30,430,000 ,,	4,541,000 ,,
1937	8,811	8,518	293	31,712,958 ,,	4,352,784 ,,

Education of Farmers

At the end of 1937 the number of farmers educated on subjects relative to farming was 5,761,217, an increase of 178,879 or 3 per cent over the previous year. The results of investigation on their school education were as follows:

	Number	Percentage
Total number of farmers investigated	5,761,217	100.00
Educated in schools	4,374,391	75.93
Elementary	4,003,721	69.49
Middle	355,282	6.17
Higher	11,462	0.20
University	3,926	0.07
Educated in Agricultural Lecture Halls	1,386,826	24.07

Agriculture in 1938 and 1939

Law for Agrarian Adjustment Conditions of farming villages naturally differ according to localities, especially in regard to farm earnings, making it difficult to provide generalized and summarized rules governing detailed conditions in different farm villages. The provisions of the Law are confined to matters fundamental and common to different localities, leaving matters of detail to the commissions on farm land which are to be created in cities, towns, villages and prefectures and to a system of arbitration. These commissions and the arbitration system are to function, with mutual concessions and cooperation among the persons concerned, to adopt and carry out concrete and appropriate measures in strict consonance with actual conditions of the respective localities, for the adjustment of affairs related to farm land.

The principal points in the Law for Agrarian Adjustment, enacted in 1938, may be listed as follows:

First, the Law provides for a system under which cities, towns, villages or other appropriate public organizations may, on request, manage, protect or utilize farm land in behalf of farmers who, because of military service or other reasons, are unable to till or manage their own land or leased land. Or, these organizations may buy up such land and dispose of it in line with the purpose of creating independent farmers and other principles governing the plans for the adjustment of farm land.

Secondly, the Law provides that, when prefectures, cities, towns, villages or other appropriate organizations attempt to acquire or use land necessary for the purposes of creating independent farmers, or of possessing it for lending, with a view to attaining economic recovery of farming villages, they may negotiate, on approval by the competent administrative authorities, with owners of such land or those who possess the real rights over it, regarding transfer of the land or setting up of rights over earnings from the land. In case such negotiations fail to bring about an agreement, they may ask for legal arbitration. Furthermore, in case the above-mentioned organizations attempt to exploit undeveloped land, such land may be acquired for them by applying the Law of Expropriation of Land, after negotiations with the owners have failed.

Again, in view of the necessity of preventing tenant disputes and other

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undesirable developments arising out of the consolidation or disposal of land for the economic recovery of farm villages, the proposed Law provides that the competent administrative authorities, in case of necessity, may cause cities, towns, villages or other organizations to announce their plans in advance to the Commissions on Farm Land of their respective localities, so that the latter may have an opportunity of creating independent farmers or of making other feasible arrangements.

Thirdly, with respect to independent farm land created or maintained by Government subsidy or other aid, it is so provided that sales or transfer of the land and setting up of the real rights on it by the owner shall be legally invalid, unless approval has been given by the authorities, and the owner shall be required to register the land strictly in line with this particular provision. This arrangement serves to enable the land owner to protect himself against a third party regarding the land.

Fourthly, the Law provides the following means of insuring and stabilizing the livelihood of tenant farmers:

(1) Contract for lease of farm land entered into between two parties shall be valid against a third party even if such a contract is not registered. Hence, the contract of the lease shall not be affected by transfer of the ownership of the land due to sale or other reasons, or by mortgage rights or real rights that may be set up.

(2) The land owner may not cancel a contract of lease of that land without consent of the lessee or refuse to renew the contract at its expiry, except in cases when the lessee without good reason defaults in payment of the rent or commits perfidious acts, or when the land owner becomes obliged to cultivate the land himself or to use the land for building dwelling houses or for other justifiable purposes, or when the land owner, for good reasons, becomes unable to continue to keep the land under tenancy.

(3) When a contracting party intends to cancel the lease of the farm land or to refuse the renewal of it, he shall be required to notify the other contracting party of such intention six months or one year in advance. At the same time he shall notify the Commission on Farm Land of the respective city, town or village so that the matter may be arranged as smoothly as possible.

Even in normal times it is necessary to settle tenant disputes rationally and as swiftly as possible in accordance with actual conditions, but this is especially true in this time of emergency. The Law, therefore, provides the following measures:

(1) Officials in charge of tenant disputes shall be authorized to place disputes under arbitration in accordance with the Tenancy Arbitration Law whenever such action is deemed necessary for the public welfare. Law courts shall also be authorized to place under arbitration any judicial case relating to tenant farms.

(2) When the Court deems arbitration necessary, it may, after consulting the officials in charge of tenant disputes, issue orders requiring the parties involved to keep the crops on the disputed land unchanged or keep the land rentals in custody, or issue orders regarding cultivation of the land during the period of negotiation so that the arbitration may be successfully concluded.

(3) In case arbitration of a tenant dispute fails, the Court may, after due consideration based strictly on the actual circumstances and after consulting the officials in charge of tenant disputes and the commission on farm land, resort to juridical proceedings in order to achieve a fair solution of the dispute.

Fifthly, the Law also provides for the settlement of agrarian disputes other than those relating to tenancy. In regard to the utilization of farm land other than tenant farms, disputes may arise in connection with relations with adjoining land. It is necessary to settle such disputes rationally, smoothly, swiftly and in a simple manner on the basis of the actual conditions. For such purposes, the proposed Law provides for a system under which the commission on farm land may adjust matters as in cases of tenant land disputes while the Courts shall also be authorized to arbitrate the disputes according to the methods applied to tenant land.

Sixthly, the Law provides for the establishment in different cities, towns, villages and prefectures, of commissions on farm land, which, in addition to the affairs referred to above, shall deal with matters connected with the creation and maintenance of independent farmers, exploitation of uncultivated land, transfer and consolidation of farm land, tenant relationships and various other questions relating to farm land, on the basis of local governmental conditions.

Production and Distribution of Rice

As has been attested by experiences in

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past wars, the sending of the agrarian population and farm horses to the front and the transference of much of the remaining rural labour power to munitions and related industries has caused shortage in such power; while the reorganization of national economy on a wartime basis has inevitably brought about an insufficient supply of chemical fertilizers and agricultural implements. Prices of these materials have consequently gone up. In such circumstances, agriculture has been greatly hampered. This effect has been especially great in Japanese farming villages whose inhabitants mostly depend on their own labour and manage petty farms with small amounts of money.

While production is threatened with decline owing to these adverse causes, the consumption of rice is disproportionately on the increase not only in Japan proper but also in overseas territories, evidently because of the boom in munitions industries and the growing demands of the fighting services. In the face of these difficulties, the agricultural industry in Japan is being called on to ensure a sufficient supply of its most important article of food.

To meet the requirements, therefore, the agricultural population has spared no effort to maintain and increase, where possible, productive power, coping with altered conditions, while the Government has given necessary aid through various measures. As a result, a balance of approximately 9 million koku of rice may be brought over to the next year, according to the estimated supply and demand for the 1939 rice year.

A mere maintenance of output, however, at the level prior to the present Affair is insufficient to meet the ever-increasing consumption. It is of paramount necessity, particularly during prolonged hostilities, to ensure as much supply of rice as possible by the improvement and promotion of agricultural productive power, for the purpose of smooth operation of wartime economy; hence the necessity of the carrying out of a national programme with increased production as the definite objective. This transition to planned production has to be effected not only in Japan proper but also in overseas territories. A broad plan for the purpose has already been started.

The 1939 plan for increased production of rice in Japan proper has the objective of producing approximately 67 million koku. Success in carrying out this plan will leave a satisfactory amount of surplus to be brought over to the following rice year.

According to the plan, the total amount fixed as the objective shall be allotted to individual prefectures. Measures for the accomplishment of the aim include a proper distribution of fertilizers and other productive materials, the shifting and readjustment of labour, the establishment of the Commission for Production Planning in each prefecture, country, city, town or village, the function of which is to make investigation of and decisions on the standards of selection and improvement of species of rice, both paddy and upland, adaptable to each district, to encourage the operation of the fixed plan, to promote the cultivation of seedlings of paddy rice, and to effect the prevention of damages by noxious insects.

For general guidance there have been organized the Corps for Guiding and Promoting Production composed of officials in the Department of Agriculture and Forestry. These corps are sent to all the districts to lead local Commissions in the task of carrying out the programme, of encouraging local campaigns and movements for such purposes, and of giving practical guidance and courses and lectures on related subjects.

However, for the successful execution of the expansion plan under the current emergency in agrarian communities that are confronted with changing conditions of production, the first requisite is to effect rationalization of farm management, which is generally small-scaled and based on family labour. From this point of view, cooperative labour with the community as a unit is encouraged. In certain districts, farmers have already overcome their difficulties by the adoption of new cooperative farming methods, while the common use of agricultural machines and implements, in particular, that of the motor tiller which was thought unadoptable on small-scale farms such as those in Japan, has been considered as a practical question for the purpose of increasing productivity.

As governmental measures for control of rice in the realm of exchange, there have been in force the Rice Control Law and a set of regulations based thereon, the main objective of which has been to empower the authorities to purchase or deliver rice with official prices or to control its disposal in certain seasons by official operations so as to keep prices within the limits of the maximum and minimum prices fixed by the law. To date, these measures have operated satisfactorily. For the thor-

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oughgoing execution of the rice policy, however, systematization of the process and structure of exchange is now called for.

Since producers of rice are spread over the length and breadth of Japan, managing small-scale farms under the family labour system, this particular commodity is shipped out to the market through innumerable channels from the outset of the process of its circulation. It may fall first into the hands of brokers on the spot or merchants who buy rice from the farmers only to sell it to second traders, or it may be put on common sale through the farmers' cooperative sales societies and agricultural warehouses, and then go through still more complicated courses. Thus, producers and their organizations, traders and their organizations, rice exchanges and rice markets—all of them demand their share of profit according to their own calculations.

The Government had been fully aware of the necessity of reform of the existing rice distribution mechanism, and in July, 1937, it appointed the Commission for Investigation of a new Rice Distribution System. The Commission, after thoroughgoing studies of various aspects of the question for the purpose of rational improvement of existing conditions, succeeded in drafting a Bill which was approved by the 74th Diet, and which was promulgated on April 11th, 1939, as the Rice Distribution Control Law.

The purpose of the new legislation is to keep the price of rice at a reasonable point by controlling its distribution. To accomplish this aim, the existing rice exchanges will be reorganized according to its provisions. Speculation in rice exchange quickly reflects itself in the actual price of rice. This is especially the case in time of emergency when speculation gives rise to other speculation and actual prices soar under no pressure of real demand. Then, cornering or holding of rice naturally follows, with the result that the blind hunting for greater gains of profit dislocates the social function of rice exchanges as distributing agencies. In view of these disastrous social consequences and with a view to checking speculative transactions as much as possible and to changing the exchange structure to spot transactions based on supply and demand relations, the new Law provides for the establishment of a semi-official company, under the name of the Japan Rice Company,Limited, which will be invested in by the Government and all the rice interests.

All the rice markets in Japan proper will be monopolized by the new corporation which takes the place of the existing rice exchanges and spot rice markets. Speculation in transactions in rice at the new rice markets will be strictly prohibited, at which only spot transactions on actual demands will be allowed within the limits of the maximum and minimum official prices as stipulated in the Rice Control Law; any break of these stipulations shall be interdicted. By the operation of the new law, the rice policy will become strengthened and thus be much more effective in checking abnormal rise and fall in the prices of rice, in stabilizing and normalizing prices and in ensuring smooth distribution.

With regard to the rice markets to be operated by the new company, they will be established in all the places which have been recognized as important rice distributing centres, especially in the towns where rice exchanges or spot markets are already extant, with a view to making transactions in the new markets function as the centres of all rice transactions.

The nerve-centres of the rice distribution structure will thus be created. However, for the systematization of the process of exchange, the regulation of the nerve-ends should not be neglected. The Law provides, therefore, that the brokers and dealers in rice shall be placed gradually under a licensed system, beginning with localities where such a step is deemed necessary in order to control and, at the same time, protect or improve them in conformity with the main purpose of the legislation. The Law further authorizes the competent authorities to give the traders in rice or their agents orders necessary for the effective control of rice distribution, so that the limitation of sales prices, prohibition of forestalling or holding may be effected for the purpose of ensuring adequate prices and smooth distribution.

Readjustment of Rural Debts Measures for readjusting and refinancing rural debts in Japan have been functioning since August 1, 1933, when the Law Relating to the Rural Debts Readjustment Association came in force.

According to an investigation conducted by the Department of Finance in 1912, two years before the World War, rural debts in Japan totalled some ¥750,000,000. Of that amount some 40 per cent represented individual loans

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and some 20 per cent those of money lenders while 65 per cent were high-interest loans of 10 per cent and more. This shows that members of the rural population have unavoidably resorted to irrational methods of financing and consequently have suffered from the terms most unfavourable to themselves. This condition of rural debts, however, underwent a remarkable change with the outbreak of the World War which caused the national economic system of Japan to develop rapidly and her rural economic system to expand suddenly. This economic expansion, significant as it was, resulted in an accelerated increase in the amount of rural debts.

Then came the world-wide depression and the derivative panic in agriculture, following the close of the War. This slump, unprecedented in scope and intensity, broke down the economic life of Japan's rural population, leaving in consequence a huge amount of accumulated debts, estimated at between ¥5,000,000,000 and ¥6,000,000,000. Unquestionably, such a burden constitutes the cancer which not merely prevents the growth of the rural economic system but saps its strength.

Causes for accumulation of this stupendous debt may not be attributed only to the war boom and to the post-war slump; there have been major and minor causes and circumstances contributing in various ways and degrees to the creation of such a state of affairs. In order to plan for the prevention of further accumulation of debts, it is necessary that those causes and circumstances should be studied and analyzed and that preventive measures such as price policy directed at essential agricultural, forestry and aquatic products, adjustment of farm land, prevention of calamities, improvement of financial and medical facilities, and initiation of the insurance system should be carefully planned and efficiently carried out. As an immediate measure, however, the chronic cancer in Japanese agricultural economy must be operated on.

The Law Relating to the Rural Debts Readjustment Association is designed to encourage the organization of debt-readjustment associations on the basis of the principles of neighbourliness and mutual help, with a view to readjusting rural debts by carrying out plans for repayment of debts and economic regeneration worked out by the associations. The Law is not designed merely to give aid to debtors nor merely to protect creditors but to assist those who earnestly and sincerely strive to achieve economic regeneration. Creditors are therefore called upon to cooperate by making certain sacrifices and moderating original terms, in sympathetic consideration of the debtors' unfortunate circumstances, in appreciation of their sincerity, and above all in view of national purposes to reconstruct and strengthen rural communities.

Organization of the association on the geographical basis of a community where economic and other phases of everyday life are coherently interwoven is the step essential for maintaining the above-stated genius of the institution. The system of compensation for losses in connection with the special financing of the readjustment funds is a governmental measure for facilitating the operation of the undertaking. By this system the Government as well as municipalities are to share in bearing the losses which may be incurred. The Government is also providing funds at low interest for the undertaking.

A few years of operation of the Law Relating to the Rural Debts Readjustment Association showed that to employ municipalities alone as organs for financing funds was not meeting the actual needs of rural communities. The Law was therefore revised in part in 1937 and separate legislation concerning special financing of the readjustment of funds and compensation for losses was instituted. As a result, the Central Chest for Cooperative Societies, financing banks such as the Hypothec Bank of Japan, Agricultural and Industrial Banks, and the Hokkaido Colonial Bank have been designated, besides municipalities, as special financing organs. At the same time, the raising of the maximum amount to the individual beneficiary to between ¥3,000 and ¥5,000 and other improvements have been made in accordance with actual conditions in rural communities.

The revised and enlarged system, which has been in force since December 1, 1937, authorized the establishment of debt-readjustment associations, or judicial persons engaged in the undertaking of readjusting debts, for the period from the above date to November 30, 1947. Thus, it is designed that plans be worked out and carried out for readjusting debts amounting to ¥1,300,000,000 which have been contracted on irrational terms. With regard to subsidy for covering and indemnity against the losses the Government is authorized to disburse up to ¥120,000,000.

According to the data received up to

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June 30, 1938, the number of cities, towns and villages where debt-readjustment associations have been established amounted to 2,514; that of the associations, 7,072 (of which 5,130 are of unlimited liability, 1,933 of reserve liability, and 9 credit cooperatives functioning as substitutes); and that of members, 220,000. Furthermore, the associations that have already completed planning for repayment of debts and for economic regeneration with the funds financed through municipalities numbered 3,614, and the funds already supplied amounted approximately to ¥34,000,000, which has been supplied from the Government low interest funds. There were also six or seven associations that had been supplied with funds through the Central Chest for Cooperative Societies. These funds amounted approximately to ¥500,000. Financing through financing banks was started in 1938.

Another measure adopted to promote the economic reconstruction of rural communities is the Law for the Temporary Settlement of Rural Debts which has been in force since June 20, 1938. This is an emergency law facilitating settlement of debts and realization of economic regeneration on behalf of families of soldiers killed or wounded in the China Affair. Although this emergency measure is closely related to that for the readjustment of rural debts in general, it does not necessarily require the establishment of debt-readjustment associations as in the case of the other measure. In view of the purpose for which this emergency step has been taken, the new legislation provides that the moderating of terms of contracts of debts, the forming of settlement plans and other matters necessary for the economic regeneration of debtors shall be taken care of by Temporary Debt Settlement Commissions to be created by prefectures. With regard to subsidy for covering and indemnity against losses, their percentages are to be twice as large as those of the ordinary rural debts readjustment system.

According to an investigation conducted by the Bureau of Economic Regeneration, Department of Agriculture and Forestry, the debts contracted by middle- and small-scale farmers amounted, at the end of August, 1935, approximately to ¥4,100,000,000. Of these debts 30 per cent represents those contracted at the interest of 10 per cent or more. Thus they are disbursing a fabulous amount as interest on their debts, an amount of money exceeding the ¥300,000,000 which is being spent annually on chemical fertilizers by the whole agricultural population.

Temporary Planning Bureau In view of the urgent need of securing adequate supplies of the principal farm, forest and marine products, an Imperial Ordinance was issued on December 3, 1938, to provide for the creation in the Department of Agriculture and Forestry of a Temporary Planning Bureau, the duty of which is to formulate plans for the maintenance and expansion of agricultural industries, to attend to the supply of such goods as are needed in conducting those industries and to attend to the adjustment of labour. The Vice-Minister of the Department of Agriculture and Forestry will be ex officio chief of the Bureau and under him will be 3 secretaries, 2 technical experts, and 10 clerks.

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CHAPTER XIV

SERICULTURE AND RAW SILK

Sericulture

History

Historical records show that the raising of silkworms has been practised in Japan for more than two thousand years. It is surmised that the industry was first introduced into the country from Chosen or China, but for sometime it made but slow development, as the work was almost exclusively in the hands of the naturalized Koreans and Chinese. Following the introduction of Buddhism, and with the advance of civilization, the demand for silk gradually increased and the industry spread among Japanese farm households. After that, sericulture made steady growth until about 1,100 years ago, when, at the time of the Emperor Kammu, it made a sudden spurt and spread over half the Japan proper of those days, and in less than another century most of the remaining half of the country was engaged in silk production. Recent development made in the industry is outlined in the following table, showing the cocoon output for the past half a century.

Year	(In 1,000 kwan)	Index number
1880-1884	12,223	100
1885-1889	11,147	91
1890-1894	15,436	123
1895-1899	24,608	201
1900-1904	26,484	217
1905-1909	32,622	267
1910-1914	43,184	353
1915-1919	61,561	504
1920-1924	64,877	530
1925-1929	91,668	749
1930	106,469	871
1931	94,072	709
1932	89,550	732
1933	101,247	828
1934	87,199	713
1935	82,067	671
1936	82,892	675
1937	85,972	703
1938	75,256	615

The recent condition in the sericultural industry in Japan proper can roughly be explained as follows:

	1934	1935	1936	1937	1938
Number of agrarian families	5,617,486	5,610,607	5,597,465	5,574,879	—
Number of cocoon raising families	1,995,492	1,894,647	1,856,551	1,818,552	1,697,123
Percentage of cocoon raising families	35.5	33.7	33.1	32.6	—
Mulberry plantation area (chobu)	622,998	582,337	566,231	561,072	549,200
Egg-cards brushed (gramme)	160,829,333	151,176,726	145,651,630	143,839,117	128,071,425
Quantity of cocoon yield (1,000 kwan)	87,140	82,066	82,892	85,972	75,243
Value of cocoon yield (1,000 yen)	203,871	350,860	336,641	419,609	345,965

Cocoon-raising Industry

According to the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry statistics the raisers of silkworm cocoons numbered 1,697,123 in 1938. The number of these cocoon raising houses decreased by 121,429 or 6.7 per cent, from that for the previous year.

The quantity of cocoons produced in 1938 totalled 75,243,647 kwan and the value was estimated at ¥345,965,329 consisting of 40,863,284 kwan of spring cocoons valued at ¥177,477,319 and summer and autumn cocoons of 34,380,363 kwan valued at ¥168,488,010.

Egg-cards brushed during 1938 amounted to 128,071,425 grammes, falling 15,767,692 grammes, or 11.0 per cent, from 1937. As regards the cocoon production, the amount and value decreased by 10,728,716 kwan, or 12.5 per cent,

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and lost ¥73,644,412 or 17.6 per cent, in comparison with the year before.

Control of Egg-cards Production In view of the severe competition with rayon silk in recent years there is a sheer necessity of improvement in silk industry so as to produce silk of a more superior quality with a lower cost of production, and the question of better egg-cards comes first of all. There was no control of the preparation of egg-cards hitherto all the matter being altogether left to the hands of merchants. For long the request for an effective control on the egg-cards production by the authorities has been raised among the farmers and silk producers. Consequently, the National Original Silkworm Egg-card Control Law was promulgated in 1934. The purpose of the Law is to realize a thorough control of egg-card production by 1938 and cut down the excessive number of different kinds and squeeze out the best ten by a special committee which is to be organized by the Imperial ordinance. The original egg-cards of the best kinds thus selected and sanctioned by the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry shall be sent to local governments where they are multiplied and distributed among sericulturists. Private establishments may reproduce egg-cards out of the original ones, but the percentage is limited to 30% against the 70% of local governments' production. The price shall be fixed by the Imperial ordinance. The local governments are granted a delay of 10 years for the completion of facilities, but, as a matter of fact the control will be completed without delay because most of local governments can immediately respond while the vacancy left by backward prefectures will be filled up by private concerns for the time being. Encouragement shall be given to an invention of better egg-cards by individuals so as to prevent the abuse of a too-strict governmental control. An annual profit of at least ¥100,000,000 is estimated at as the result of the control.

PRODUCTION OF SILKWORM EGGS

(In kg.)

	1933	1934	1935	1936	1937
Number of producers	5,344	4,924	4,346	3,827	3,512
Total					
Production	289,185	288,940	256,522	213,891	235,501
Qualified by government test	280,490	281,613	252,870	211,992	233,592
Reproductive eggs					
Production	9,360	9,369	8,616	7,235	6,989
Qualified by government test	8,901	9,006	8,256	6,976	6,788
Industrial eggs					
Production	279,824	279,570	247,903	206,655	228,511
Qualified by government test	271,589	272,606	244,615	205,015	226,804

Mulberry Plantation The success of the silk-worm raising industry depends upon an adequate supply of suitable leaves on which to feed the worms.

In Japan there are as many as 276 varieties of mulberry tree, and from these, 71 are selected by local government authorities as model kinds, each having its own special characteristics.

The total mulberry plantation area at the end of June, 1937 was 561,072 chobu, representing a drop of 5,958 chobu or 0.9 per cent from 1937. This was due to progress of mulberry plantation readjustment all over the country. The number of mulberry saplings that were raised in 1937 counted 257,642,851 pieces valued at ¥4,300,028.

Cost According to the investigation made by the Imperial Farmers' Association, cost of spring production in 1938 was as follows:

COST OF COCOON PRODUCTION

(For 1 kwan of the first class cocoon)

Details	Spring Crop (In yen)
Mulberry leaves	2.42
Egg-card	0.24
Labour	1.70
Cocoonery room	0.20
Duties	0.16
Miscellaneous	0.39
Total	5.11

Educational Facilities There are in Japan three special colleges for the silk industry, namely, the Ueda Sanshi Semmon Gakko, Nagano prefecture; Tokyo Sanshi Gakko, Tokyo; and Kyoto Koto Sanshi Gakko, Kyoto; besides which, there are, in different parts of the country, 16 public schools of middle school grade. Some of the agricultural col-

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leges and middle grade schools also have classes dealing with silk industrial enterprises. In addition to these regular seats of learning there is a class for the practical training of silk-raisers at every sericultural experimental station established by the Government in each silk producing district, and a similar training is also given at a score of private institutes created for the purpose of diffusing knowledge on all phases of the silk industry.

The Cocoon Market The Numazu cocoon market for 1938 opened on May 28 for the first spring cocoon transactions in Japan. Usually at the Numazu market yellow cocoons are dealt in, but at the Hamamatsu market which was opened on the 27th, white cocoons were transacted. Prices of white cocoons were the highest for the last four years. High, low and average prices of the day, which formed the standard for the year's prices in this country, together with those for the preceding five years, were as follows:

		High	Low	Average
		(In yen per kwan)		
1934	white	3.09	2.59	2.92
	yellow	3.26	2.00	2.66
1935	white	4.91	4.36	4.85
	yellow	5.11	4.23	4.85
1936	white	5.30	4.28	4.68
	yellow	5.29	4.51	4.94
1937	white	5.03	5.03	5.03
	yellow	6.28	5.20	5.93
1938	white	5.17	4.98	5.06
	yellow	4.96	4.38	4.61

The Statistics Statistics on cocoon production by kind in Japan proper in the past 6 years are given below:

COCOON PRODUCTION BY KIND IN 1932-1937

(Japan Proper)

		1932	1933	1934	1935	1936	1937
Total production							
Quantity	kg.	335,771,254	379,676,366	326,742,555	307,747,699	310,886,235	322,394,862
Value	yen	296,791,026	500,129,171	203,849,178	350,860,428	386,632,753	419,609,741
Cocoons							
Quantity	kg.	297,237,229	339,646,136	292,851,645	275,129,036	277,511,824	289,168,890
Value	yen	280,910,829	477,690,472	192,143,243	330,510,891	365,304,203	397,419,066
Doupions							
Quantity	kg.	23,317,849	23,602,789	19,016,003	17,725,294	17,943,600	17,410,628
Value	yen	10,117,560	13,165,266	7,056,560	11,702,573	11,597,767	11,505,307
Waste cocoons							
Quantity	kg.	15,216,176	16,427,441	14,874,907	14,893,369	15,430,811	15,815,344
Value	yen	5,702,637	9,273,433	4,649,375	8,646,964	9,738,822	10,685,368

Cocoon Deals

Cocoon Deals The Produced Cocoon Disposal Law was first enforced in 1937. The results were not satisfactory. Out of 67,902 kwan of cocoons transacted, only 120 kwan was delivered as dry cocoons. An expediency by which cocoons will be dried and delivered after purchase contracts are concluded was established. The Government overlooks it, considering the transitory period of the new practise. In Nagano prefecture the dry cocoon transactions were totally ignored and this caused a great trouble among cocoon raisers. Reelers are raising a protest against this system. The greatest dissatisfaction is with cocoon drying techinique by a third party. The technique is said to damage the quality of raw silk and interfere with reeling operation. Another complaint is, since the quality of cocoons differs according to places of production, climate and species, a uniform drying method is not suitable. Cost of drying makes the price higher and this is still another complaint. If the drying method is conducted by themselves, this will not damage the quality of cocoons and the cost also will be cheaper. The distribution by dry cocoon distribution guilds will make the cost of silk reeling higher. Sericulturists, too, are against the system. The reason is cocoon prices fluctuate with a change of silk price, but to keep dry cocoons for a certain period without selling them as raw cocoons will cause sericulturists uneasiness over future cocoon price. Economic condition of sericulturists does not allow them to keep cocoons for a long time. They need ready cash. Dry cocoon expenses are now shifted to sericulturists under

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the law. The law thus met a severe opposition in the first year of enforcement, but with the lapse of time it is believed to be followed by all.

AVERAGE COCOON PRICE IN JAPAN PROPER PER KWAN

(In yen)

	Spring Cocoon	Summer-Autumn Cocoon	Average
1925	11.25	10.07	10.68
1926	9.28	7.33	8.35
1927	7.18	4.77	6.03
1928	6.88	6.02	6.48
1929	7.57	6.53	7.06
1930	4.00	2.04	3.10
1931	3.08	2.96	3.03
1932	2.54	4.70	3.53
1933	6.25	4.27	5.28
1934	2.52	2.38	2.45
1935	3.82	5.37	4.50
1936	5.06	4.81	4.94
1937	5.55	4.13	4.88
1938	4.26	4.93	4.60

Raw Silk

Soon after the country's entry into foreign trade, the Tokugawa Shogunate put a restraint on the exportation of silk on the ground of its scarcity and of its being a prized national production. Notwithstanding such a restrictive policy raw silk exports from Yokohama increased by leaps and bounds, as enormous profits could be made by the exporters.

With the Restoration came the encouragement of home industries, the first among them to arrest the attention of the Government authorities being the silk industry, and ever since special efforts have been made toward developing this national industry. Unfettered financial help was extended to filatures in 1915, 1920, and again in 1930, and the Government has established facilities for the promotion of all phases of silk activities, schools, silk conditioning houses and various experimental stations.

The silk reeling and sericultural industry is represented by Nagano prefecture. Suwa is located in the central part of the prefecture and Okaya (Hirano Village) in Suwa district is the most thriving and largest silk reeling centre. No other silk reeling district in the world can rival it, since Japan produces two-thirds of the world's entire silk production, and silk production in Nagano takes the foremost rank in Japan. Gumma prefecture is the next largest reeling centre with Fukushima, Aichi, Saitama, Gifu and Kyoto following.

Raw Silk in 1937

The raw silk industry in 1937 traced a stormy course on account of the business depression in America and the wartime control of commodities in Japan, although a hopeful atmosphere prevailed at the beginning of the year. The price of raw silk in the middle of January went up to ¥947.00 per picul reflecting the rising tendency of prices in the world and speculative purchases. In May, however, the price fell below ¥700.00, but with the beginning of the new silk year (July to June the following year) the price picked up again and in the beginning of July it had neared the ¥900 mark when the North China Incident occurred. The Sino-Japanese conflict and the delicate political situation in Europe greatly discouraged the raw silk markets and in November the raw silk price was put at its cheapest since June, 1936. Toward the end of the year it regained somewhat, but the cost of production had increased in the meanwhile so that the profit margin had become very slender.

Enactment of the Raw Silk Price Stabilization Law An epoch-making event in the annals of raw silk industry and trade was the promulgation of the Raw Silk Price Stabilization Law which came into force on April 1, 1937. The purpose of the law is to fix the maximum and minimum prices of raw silk in order to regulate the ups and downs in prices for the stabilization of the business. It is the last and most effective measure of all the measures employed in the past. By the proper application of the provisions of the law the future of raw silk industry and trade bids fair to become brighter. The standard price of purchase by the Government from the association of silk dealers specially organized in accordance with the provisions of the law was fixed at ¥520.00 per picul and that of sale by the Government to the association at ¥950.00 for the silk year, July 1937 to June 1938.

Production and Exports The production of raw silk of all kinds in 1936

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amounted to 11,287,000 kan valued at ¥517,244,000, showing a decrease of 356,000 kan and an increase of ¥17,477,000 as compared with the previous year. The exports during the silk year, July 1936 to June 1937, amounted 525,027 piculs valued at ¥429,768,000, recording an increase of 37,768 piculs and ¥51,662,000 over the previous silk year. Shipments during the 1937 calendar year amounted to ¥407,118,000 as against ¥392,809,000 in 1936, an increase of ¥14,309,000 or 3.6 per cent.

Silk Filatures

Silk Filatures The number of Japanese silk filatures has kept falling for many years, except in 1930. The 1937 number, however, increased 3.7 per cent to 43,422 over 1936. The Government was giving subsidy to filatures for encouragement of scrapping of surplus basins in accordance with the silk reeling industry law. Thus, readjustment of medium-sized filatures made headway. Division of this number for 1937 according to the number of basins used were as follows:

Those using less than		Drop from 1935
10 basins	41,408	(+)2,051
10-50	906	326
50-100	478	158
100-300	479	33
Over 300	151	3

Of the total, filature-using machines were 1,892, re-reeling filatures were 37,418 and dupion filatures 4,112. The total number of basins for 1937 was 265,115, falling 8.8 per cent from the year before.

The number of female operatives totalled 273,026, falling 7.9 per cent from 1936 and that of male operatives 22,122, decreasing 7.5 per cent. Production of raw silk totalled 11,166,553 kwan, falling 1.1 per cent from 1936, worth ¥527,320,631 gaining 1.9 per cent. Production of silk waste totalled 3,234,206 kwan, declining 5.7 per cent from 1936, worth ¥21,484,365, declining 0.8 per cent.

NUMBER OF FILATURES, BASINS AND OPERATIVES

(Silk Bureau, Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry)

Year	Establishments	Filature Worked by Machinery	Basins	Operatives
1919	234,992	4,311	610,032	—
1924	196,929	3,674	523,582	546,813
1926	91,751	3,768	428,174	488,342
1927	83,469	3,787	425,595	496,230
1928	76,090	3,509	435,735	515,504
1929	69,417	3,719	437,738	525,307
1930	70,728	3,759	433,637	509,124
1931	66,400	3,687	418,402	495,449
1932	60,461	3,356	365,417	428,763
1933	54,397	3,218	343,579	395,027
1934	51,168	3,013	321,040	362,510
1935	45,703	2,708	297,657	347,513
1936	41,892	2,468	280,692	320,496
1937	43,422	1,892	256,115	295,148

SILK PRODUCTION

(Silk Bureau, Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry)

Year	Total Output		White silk		Yellow silk	
	volume (kwan)	value ¥	volume (kwan)	value ¥	volume (kwan)	value ¥
1924	7,577,170	837,230,677	6,158,148	673,368,557	1,419,022	163,862,124
1925	8,284,317	956,052,187	6,822,065	784,720,379	1,462,252	171,331,808
1926	9,101,310	850,751,982	7,151,726	667,505,253	1,949,584	183,246,729
1927	9,880,306	798,798,455	7,800,821	629,005,493	2,079,485	169,782,962
1928	10,584,232	835,467,904	7,760,865	615,721,117	2,823,367	219,746,787
1929	11,292,399	857,577,692	8,246,583	624,955,155	3,045,816	232,622,537
1930	11,365,026	536,663,848	8,097,133	384,978,584	3,267,893	151,685,264
1931	11,682,814	427,690,988	8,036,360	295,289,433	3,646,454	132,401,555
1932	11,090,711	454,457,838	7,805,617	320,777,178	3,285,094	133,680,660

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Year	Total Output volume (kwan)	Total Output value ¥	White silk volume (kwan)	White silk value ¥	Yellow silk volume (kwan)	Yellow silk value ¥
1933	11,242,816	497,740,808	8,429,370	370,840,466	2,813,446	126,900,342
1934	12,064,894	398,369,167	8,785,013	294,268,393	3,279,881	104,100,774
1935	11,662,048	500,052,421	9,154,361	399,560,673	2,507,687	100,491,748
1936	11,287,329	517,246,143	9,621,836	442,153,148	1,665,493	75,092,995
1937	11,166,553	527,320,631	9,648,493	458,437,242	1,518,060	68,883,389

TOTAL PRODUCTION BY RAW SILK FACTORIES

		1932	1933	1934	1935	1936	1937
Grand total							
Number of establishments		60,461	54,397	51,168	45,703	41,892	43,422
Number of boiling basins		365,417	343,579	321,040	297,657	280,692	256,115
Number of operatives		428,763	395,027	362,510	347,522	320,96	295,148
Male		30,120	28,055	27,450	26,175	23,922	22,122
Female		398,643	366,972	335,060	321,347	296,574	273,026
Production (Value)	yen	472,324,428	517,054,010	417,414,865	522,606,348	538,558,343	548,804,996
Raw silk							
Qt.	kg.	41,590,166	42,160,560	45,243,354	43,609,788	42,303,465	41,874,574
Val.	yen	454,457,838	497,740,808	398,369,167	500,052,421	517,246,143	527,320,631
Waste							
Qt.	kg.	13,558,605	13,988,562	15,053,644	14,890,661	12,864,162	12,128,273
Val.	yen	17,866,590	19,313,202	19,045,698	22,553,927	21,312,200	21,484,365

Japan's Place in World's Silk Industry

According to the investigation made by the Silk Bureau of the Agriculture and Forestry Ministry the total world production in 1935 was 59,466,000 kilogrammes of which Japan (Korea and Formosa included) produced 45,520,000 kg. The 1936 world production totalled 59,425,000 kilogrammes of which Japan produced 44,198,000 kilogrammes. China with 9,409,000 kilogrammes produced the largest quantity next to Japan. Then came Italy with 3,100,000 kilogrammes. Compared with 1923, the gain made during the 10 years was 18,145,000 kilogrammes. Detailed figures of the statistics prepared at the Silk Bureau of the Agriculture and Forestry Ministry follow :

RAW SILK PRODUCTION IN THE WORLD

(In 1,000 kirogrammes)

Year	Total	Japan	India & Indo-China	China	Eastern Europe, Near East and Central Asia	Spain	Italy	France	Brazil
1924	52,670	28,666	80	17,144	1,095	95	5,255	335	—
1925	57,138	31,485	90	19,678	1,145	100	4,380	260	—
1926	59,485	34,677	120	19,433	1,070	90	3,855	240	—
1927	63,211	37,782	140	19,244	1,040	83	4,627	295	—
1928	67,430	40,582	110	20,478	1,140	79	4,836	205	—
1929	70,630	43,403	60	20,722	1,350	74	4,826	195	—
1930	68,330	43,943	20	18,067	1,220	58	4,882	140	—
1931	57,718	45,244	10	8,244	810	44	3,286	80	—
1932	56,984	42,114	—	9,524	706	42	3,520	78	—
1933	57,001	43,757	—	8,876	854	38	3,400	76	—
1934	57,558	43,370	—	6,316	930	30	2,836	77	—
1935	59,466	45,520	—	9,829	2,281	34	1,700	52	50
1936	59,425	44,198	—	9,409	2,575	40	3,100	53	50

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Silk in Japan's Foreign Trade

Exports of raw silk for 1938 totalled 477,471 piculs, including dupion, valued at ¥364,124,000. While the amount increased by 4,101 piculs from the 1937 exports, the value decreased by ¥42,994,000. The United States, as usual, made the bulk of purchases taking 393,274 piculs. Europe followed with 65,562 piculs. In the last 10 years the export quantity has not made any great change but the export value fluctuated widely.

SILK AND TOTAL EXPORTS COMPARED

(Unit: ¥1,000)

	Value of All Exports	Value of Silk Exports	Percentage of Silk
	(Japan Proper)		
1912	526,982	150,321	28.5
1913	632,460	188,917	29.9
1914	591,101	161,797	16.3
1915	708,307	152,031	21.5
1916	1,127,468	267,037	23.7
1917	1,603,005	355,155	22.2
1918	1,962,101	370,337	18.9
1919	2,098,872	623,619	29.7
1920	1,948,395	382,717	19.3
1921	1,252,828	417,124	33.3
1922	1,637,452	670,048	40.9
1923	1,447,751	556,169	39.1
1924	1,807,035	685,366	37.9
1925	2,305,590	879,657	28.2
1926	2,044,728	734,052	35.9
1927	1,992,317	742,266	37.3
1928	1,971,955	733,436	37.2
1929	2,148,619	784,150	36.5
1930	1,469,852	419,107	28.5
1931	1,146,981	355,394	31.0
1932	1,409,992	382,265	27.8
1933	1,861,045	390,901	21.0
1934	2,171,924	286,793	13.2
1935	2,499,073	387,032	15.4
1936	2,692,976	392,809	14.5
1937	3,175,418	407,118	12.9
1938	2,689,677	364,124	13.5

As regards the quantity, it is rather on the increase compared with 10 years or so ago. In 1923 the exports were figured at 263,280 piculs and for the following 3 years the quantity of the annual shipment never exceeded 450,000 piculs in contrast to 497,485 piculs for 1933. But this quantity for 1933 was smaller than that for any single year between 1928 and 1932. In 1934 it regained the former level, realizing a quantity next to none other than 1931 figure, and the tendency continued in 1935. But figures went down for the two years, 1936 and 1937, and in 1938 showed a slight increase. Below is given the quantity of silk exported each year for the 12 years ending 1937:

Year	Quantity of Silk Exported (picul)	Year	Quantity of Silk Exported (picul)
1927	521,773	1933	497,485
1928	549,256	1934	551,308
1929	680,950	1935	553,156
1930	477,322	1936	505,550
1931	560,577	1937	476,360
1932	548,541	1938	477,471

WORLD MARKETS FOR JAPANESE SILK

(Compiled by the Ministry of Commerce and Industry)

(Unit: ¥1,000)

	1933	1934	1935	1936	1937	1938 Quantity (In picul)	1938 Amount (In ¥1,000)
United States	355,805	239,568	328,910	333,949	325,225	393,274	297,882
Great Britain	14,654	14,237	21,450	23,628	31,430	33,609	26,175
France	15,378	20,333	23,764	21,772	26,111	31,308	24,631
Australia	3,297	4,017	4,232	5,231	8,132	7,840	6,461
Canada	208	411	70	823	727	295	278
British India	—	—	—	—	5,534	2,358	1,520
Total including others	390,901	286,793	387,032	392,809	407,118	477,471	364,124

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SILK EXPORTS TO THE UNITED STATES

(Unit: picul 133 lbs.)

Year	Export Volume	Index Number	Rate of Increase or Decrease against Previous Year (%)
1921	247,672	100.0	
1923	201,938	81.5	(−) 35.4
1924	335,596	135.5	(+) 66.2
1925	422,984	170.8	(+) 26.0
1926	427,621	172.7	(+) 1.1
1927	491,078	198.3	(+) 19.8
1928	514,772	207.8	(+) 9.8
1929	560,976	226.5	(+) 9.0
1930	453,517	183.1	(−) 19.2
1931	540,158	218.3	(+) 19.2
1932	513,402	207.1	(−) 5.1
1933	437,624	176.7	(−) 14.7
1934	433,537	175.0	(−) 0.9
1935	466,566	188.3	(+) 7.6
1936	428,209	173.6	(−) 8.3
1937	380,175	153.5	(−) 11.2
1938	393,426	158.8	(+) 3.4

Note: Figures slightly differ from those given in the preceding table, because they come from the report of the Finance Ministry.

Price of Raw Silk

In January, 1920, raw silk was quoted at ¥4,360 per bale of 16 kan, the highest price in the history of the country's silk business. At that time the volume of production was 360,000 bales, but during the next 10 years production increased to 730,000 bales, but unfortunately the prices did not fall in inverse ratio. Had they done so, Japanese producers would have been happy, for in June, 1932, the price fell below one-tenth that of 1920, whereas the output had only doubled. In 1933 it regained a little, but in 1934 the price fell to its lowest, and it seemed to be showing an upward tendency from the following year. It went down again in 1938, although the forecast for 1939 is most encouraging.

RAW SILK PRICE AT YOKOHAMA SPOT MARKET

(In yen)

(Standard quality; per 100 kin, 133 lbs.)

Year	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Average
1926	1,942	1,860	1,711	1,503	1,519	1,576	1,602	1,557	1,601	1,532	1,466	1,441	1,585
1927	1,413	1,418	1,414	1,416	1,451	1,427	1,374	1,317	1,341	1,301	1,289	1,293	1,375
1928	1,311	1,357	1,356	1,348	1,326	1,251	1,247	1,282	1,312	1,375	1,362	1,370	1,321
1929	1,356	1,378	1,396	1,401	1,341	1,314	1,282	1,302	1,220	1,288	1,221	1,169	1,310
1930	1,174	1,169	1,165	1,139	1,100	795	705	708	648	574	581	562	775
1931	708	684	666	597	531	527	585	577	584	548	556	567	583
1932	672	653	618	534	473	469	536	803	938	891	914	928	702
1933	770	694	655	728	786	970	954	857	851	713	586	555	766
1934	583	643	570	538	523	494	474	463	465	510	550	598	537
1935	634	617	590	607	614	592	632	754	830	912	931	874	674
1936	916	764	749	746	691	681	738	771	734	771	863	871	775
1937	915	883	909	877	820	832	880	841	828	768	719	687	830
1938	683	707	713	700	701	702	797	762	778	827	808	817	750
1939	864	956	1,027	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—

American Consumption The American consumption of Japanese raw silk in the silk year 1937-38 amounted to 357,600 bales, a decrease of 86,534 bales from the previous year. But the percentage to the total rose from 90 per cent for 1936-37 to 94 per cent for 1937-38.

AMERICAN CONSUMPTION OF RAW SILK IN 1937-38

(In bales)

	Consumption	Imports	Stocks in N.Y. (June, '38)
Japanese silk	357,600	358,749	40,299
European silk	15,081	14,081	1,667
Chinese silk	7,799	6,551	2,491
Total	380,480	379,381	44,457

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Raw silk distribution at home and the distribution in the United States were as follows :

RAW SILK DISTRIBUTION IN DOMESTIC MARKETS

(Arrivals and Deliveries at Kobe and Yokohama)

—Quantity in bales—

Years & Months	Arrivals	Sales	Sales in Japan
1937:			
Jan.	31,612	33,657	2,914
Feb.	33,702	31,165	2,861
Mar.	43,711	39,062	3,874
Apr.	40,809	39,023	2,747
May	38,595	38,894	3,793
June	30,936	26,873	5,225
July	50,319	44,162	2,870
Aug.	52,985	48,487	960
Sept.	54,899	48,503	1,881
Oct.	50,047	49,092	2,291
Nov.	51,520	45,106	3,117
Dec.	48,824	41,564	4,863
1938:			
Jan.	7,139	29,817	30,643
Feb.	6,088	33,011	30,065
Mar.	5,739	43,028	36,904
Apr.	6,306	40,825	30,697
May	6,024	42,560	40,620
June	3,764	32,157	32,463
July	5,448	45,152	36,414
Aug.	5,818	52,506	50,014
Sept.	6,270	51,019	46,069
Oct.	5,576	50,217	46,815
Nov.	5,509	47,181	42,667
Dec.	4,162	45,305	46,218
1939:			
Jan.	2,839	21,473	22,374

DISTRIBUTION OF RAW SILK IN AMERICA IN 1937-38

(Quantity in bales)

Months	Imports		Consumption	
	Japanese	Total	Japanese	Total
1937:				
Jan.	44,093	50,328	40,203	44,198
Feb.	32,984	37,348	35,577	38,484
Mar.	29,200	32,257	35,983	39,934
Apr.	37,511	39,712	37,436	40,561
May	32,207	35,698	31,964	35,278
June	36,945	40,037	32,329	35,783
July	26,060	27,337	28,681	31,399
Aug.	34,911	36,246	32,030	33,557
Sept.	35,674	36,146	35,002	36,372
Oct.	31,623	32,879	35,088	36,002
Nov.	34,737	36,339	30,687	31,749
Dec.	25,394	26,093	21,092	21,982
1938:				
Jan.	29,137	29,858	29,488	30,715
Feb.	24,501	25,416	29,019	30,260
Mar.	24,399	27,376	32,235	34,884
Apr.	35,233	38,510	30,483	33,381
May	21,358	24,248	25,062	28,687
June	35,722	38,933	28,733	31,492
July	29,154	30,441	30,552	32,593
Aug.	35,376	35,946	37,150	38,508
Sept.	38,021	39,808	37,652	38,844
Oct.	37,267	38,731	34,049	35,631
Nov.	41,435	44,006	39,375	41,599
Dec.	37,846	42,264	32,776	35,264
1939:				
Jan.	32,294	36,092	36,915	40,816

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CHAPTER XV

FISHERIES

General

Japan Leads On account of her unique position as a maritime country Japan's fishing industry has naturally developed from of old until today Japan occupies the first position in the world in the output of aquatic products which amounted to ¥660,813,807 in 1937 as the following table shows. These products consist mainly of fish, shell-fish, seaweed, which are used as food, fish oils and animal fertilizers.

Value of Fishery Products in 1937

Classification	Value in yen
Coastal Fishery	219,649,403
Pelagic fishery, home	89,887,033
Pelagic fishery, colonial	7,203,405
Whaling	18,747,886
Trawling	7,951,200
Fishery in Russian waters	37,598,284
Floating canneries in Kamchatka	25,808,797
Aquiculture	28,974,262
Fish manufactures	214,870,754
Isinglass	10,122,783
Total	660,813,807

Fisheries in 1938-39

Fisheries in Japan are being controlled by powerful capitalists with the progress and expansion of the industry in recent years. In 1937, the Nichiro Fishery Company which operates in Soviet waters and northern seas extended its sphere of activity to the Chishima island through the Horomushiro Fishery Company, and is going to operate in the entire area from Kamchatka to North Chishima in 1938. The areas left by the company are going to be monopolized by another company i. e. the Nippon Suisan. The three old fishery companies, the Kyodo Gyogyo, the Nippon Suisan and the Nippon Shokuryo Industry, were amalgamated into the Nippon Suisan (Fishery) Company capitalized at ¥91,500,000. The new company owns most of the floating crab canneries and cold storage equipment and specializes in trawling fishery. It is the largest Japanese fishing corporation with its activities covering the wide expanse of water from the Arctic to the Antarctic oceans.

The total exports of fishery products in 1938 amounted to ¥132,503,000. Details are given below in comparison with 1937:

	1937	1938
	(unit: ¥1,000)	
Canned crabs, salmon, etc.	86,905	92,819
Fresh fish and shell-fish	21,916	21,931
Poudered fish for fertilizer	11,159	5,182
Fish and whale oils	15,299	6,902
Hardened fish oil	9,524	4,333
Shells	—	1,336
Total	144,803	132,503

Not a small amount may be added to the total from the exports of canned salmon which the Nichiro Gyogyo Company sends to Great Britain directly from Soviet waters.

The long pending revision of the fishery convention between Japan and the Soviet Union was not realized in 1938 also, but a provisional agreement for prolonging the validity of the old convention for one year which had been concluded at the end of 1937 was repeated again early in 1939 for another year.

In the fall of 1938 and early in 1939, fishery enterprisers became united by groups for the protection of their interests and the Japan Bonito and Tunny Fishery Association, the Japan Federation of Canned Fish Manufacturers' Associations and the Fishery Products Trade Association were organized.

On May 23, 1939, the first national meeting of fishery associations was held in Tokyo, in which 800 delegates of about 4,000 fishery associations were present, and made decisions on matters relative to the promotion of the industry and a smooth supply of fishery materials which now became one of their grave concerns on account of the national economic control on such materials as rubber goods and fuel oil.

Antarctic Whaling In September and October of 1938, 5 large whalers set sail for the Antarctic. Their equipments were as follows:

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Name of Whaler	Tonnage	No. of Crews	No. of Catcher Boats	No. of Gunners
Tonan Maru No. I	9,800	250	5	100
Tonan Maru No. II	19,000	334	8	—
Tonan Maru No. III	19,000	300	8	—
Nisshin Maru No. I	16,764	592	8	—
Nisshin Maru No. II	22,000	300	9	—

The Tonan Maru No. II came back to Kobé on April 18, 1939, which caught 600 whales and brought back 6,500 tons of whale-oil, 300,000 kin of salted whale and 54,000 kin of whale-skin for imitation leather.

The Nisshin Maru No. I returned to Yokohama on April 19, 1939, which caught 1,520 head, and brought back 72 tons of whale-fin, 3 tons of whale teeth, and 5 tons of whale-bone for substitute materials, and 340 tons of salted whale.

Persons Engaged in Fisheries

The fishery industry in Japan is now run on a modern industrial basis and especially pelagic fishing is developing rapidly. But by far the larger number of fishermen are still engaged in working in the old-fashioned way, generally on a small scale. In 1937, as many as 1,501,882 persons were engaged in all kinds of fishery industry, and of this number 1,200,208 were males and the rest females. Of the total number, 1,078,142 were fishermen, 152,426 were engaged in cultivation and 271,314 in the manufacture of aquatic products.

NUMBER OF PERSONS ENGAGED IN VARIOUS BRANCHES OF THE FISHERY INDUSTRY

Year	Total Number	Fishermen	Those engaged in Cultivation	Those engaged in Manufacture
1928	1,498,258	1,130,430	119,986	247,842
1929	1,490,726	1,112,002	120,933	257,791
1930	1,482,355	1,109,700	122,116	252,119
1931	1,482,520	1,110,506	124,784	247,113
1932	1,499,040	1,106,850	141,394	250,796
1933	1,499,175	1,097,254	144,655	257,266
1934	1,521,916	1,103,346	151,007	269,563
1935	1,521,477	1,098,999	155,203	267,275
1936	1,534,432	1,102,502	154,627	277,303
1937	1,501,882	1,078,142	152,426	271,314

FISHERY EMPLOYERS AND EMPLOYEES

Year	Employers	Employees
1928	633,487	864,771
1929	633,080	857,646
1930	635,241	847,114
1931	634,699	847,821
1932	640,318	858,722
1933	635,849	863,326
1934	640,735	881,181
1935	633,435	888,042
1936	637,031	897,401
1937	619,227	882,655

Fishing Boats and Vessels

The total number of boats and vessels engaged in fishing at the end of 1937 was over 364,260, of which 297,961 were without engines, while 66,299 were with engines. The number of smaller boats, having capacity of less than 5 tons, is decreasing, while the number of vessels having engines has steadily increased. This shows an improvement in vessels and in the method of fishing.

Year	Total Number of Boats	Boats without Engines	Boats with Engines	
			Steam	Motor
1919	384,609	380,577	99	3,933
1930	359,295	323,228	159	35,908
1931	360,690	318,443	185	42,062

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Year	Total Number of Boats	Boats without Engines	Boats with Engines	
			Steam	Motor
1932	360,686	315,217	244	45,225
1933	363,473	314,434	250	48,789
1934	364,582	311,553	87	52,942
1935	366,019	308,541	96	57,382
1936	366,267	304,098	106	62,063
1937	364,260	297,961	97	66,202

FISHING BOATS AND VESSELS CLASSIFIED ACCORDING TO KINDS AND CAPACITIES

(at the end of each year)

Kinds and tonnage of steamers	1933	1934	1935	1936	1937
Without engines	314,434	311,553	308,541	304,098	297,961
Under 5 tons	306,381	303,342	300,651	266,758	290,734
5-10 ,,	7,582	7,635	7,317	6,779	6,637
10-20 ,,	417	529	530	499	568
20 ,, and over	54	47	43	22	22
With engines	49,039	53,029	57,478	62,169	66,299
Steam engines	250	87	96	106	97
Under 50 tons	157	63	23	24	3
50-100 ,,	13	2	3	10	1
100 tons and over	80	22	70	72	93
Oil engines	48,789	52,942	57,382	62,063	66,202
Under 5 tons	33,714	37,053	40,658	44,774	48,105
5-10 ,,	6,516	6,772	6,841	6,999	7,198
10-20 ,,	6,498	6,724	7,154	7,454	7,804
20-50 ,,	1,688	1,871	2,108	2,117	2,295
50 tons and over	373	522	621	719	802

Coastal Fishery

Fish, shell-fish, etc. caught in 1937 amounted to ¥219,649,403, an increase of ¥7,001,383 or 3.3 per cent over the previous year, the major classification of which was as follows:

	Quantity	Value
Fish	494,481,117kan	¥162,844,491
Shellfish	37,643,983	10,451,464
Crustaceans and Mollusca	40,874,838kan	¥31,426,069
Seaweed	105,707,575	6,219,642

The amount of catches in coastal waters since 1928 is shown in the following table. In 1930-32 while the value of catches showed a gradual decrease, catches were steadily increasing, showing thereby that the decrease in value was due to decline in price caused by the depression of those years, but in 1937 the prices rose to a certain extent.

(Quantity in Metric Tons, Value in ¥1,000)

Year	Total		Fresh Fish	
	Quantity	Value	Quantity	Value
1928	2,123,777	209,264	1,469,120	156,560
1929	2,136,252	204,498	1,489,973	153,424
1930	2,302,036	162,928	1,538,580	121,734
1931	2,526,837	147,806	1,833,826	110,772
1932	2,667,255	145,736	1,886,086	107,818
1933	3,859,993	170,613	2,860,585	128,151
1934	3,254,725	173,137	2,227,173	128,142
1935	2,765,432	181,802	1,929,210	134,672
1936	2,936,882	212,649	2,143,460	159,764
1937	2,545,153	219,649	1,854,304	162,844

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Year	Shellfish		Crustaceans and Mollusca		Seaweed	
	Quantity	Value	Quantity	Value	Quantity	Value
1928	143,984	12,113	134,763	28,931	375,910	11,661
1929	138,828	10,492	149,308	29,311	358,143	11,270
1930	123,100	8,465	136,757	23,169	503,599	9,561
1931	118,752	7,136	148,663	21,892	425,596	8,005
1932	125,328	6,975	179,009	22,951	476,832	7,992
1933	135,593	7,972	204,347	26,288	659,467	8,201
1934	180,033	10,094	190,476	25,617	657,042	9,282
1935	204,532	11,697	136,162	25,260	495,528	10,173
1936	152,328	11,202	157,998	29,373	483,093	12,308
1937	141,094	10,451	153,280	31,426	396,403	14,927

Catches of the more important fishes in coastwise fishery since 1932 are shown in the following tables :

CATCHES OF PRINCIPAL FISH BY KINDS

(Unit ¥1,000)

Kind of Fresh Fish	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936	1937
Herring	7,253	13,378	7,157	5,077	4,381	5,506
Sardine	20,756	26,035	26,314	28,257	40,958	37,894
Bonito	2,081	2,325	2,687	1,901	2,419	2,021
Mackerel	4,555	5,746	5,830	6,596	8,406	8,938
Tunny	4,601	4,715	4,991	6,163	7,165	6,358
Yellow-tail	9,075	10,934	9,654	9,671	11,531	10,382
Cod	2,997	3,287	3,781	4,822	5,730	4,625
Shark	667	857	909	718	868	1,457
Sea-bream, red	8,602	10,434	9,685	9,786	10,199	10,582
Sea-bream, black	1,780	1,904	2,176	2,158	2,221	2,303
Flat-fish	3,532	3,694	4,135	4,330	4,757	4,807
Cybium	1,976	2,072	2,557	2,449	2,652	2,716
Horse-mackerel	3,677	4,390	4,501	4,877	5,781	5,595
Flying Fish	711	902	907	958	769	918
Grey mullet	2,367	2,779	2,655	2,722	2,754	2,843
Konosirus	720	863	804	838	791	899
Dog-salmon	2,558	3,636	4,690	4,994	9,154	11,815
Trout	1,715	1,956	5,312	5,244	3,995	6,231
Japanese smelt	2,789	2,473	2,595	2,915	3,291	3,603
Eel	2,453	2,425	2,278	2,475	2,492	2,385

VALUE OF VARIOUS KINDS OF SHELLFISH

(Unit ¥1,000)

Kind of Shellfish	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936	1937
Awabi[1]	1,656	1,813	2,849	3,843	3,286	2,515
Oyster	720	423	473	506	533	455
Clam	468	492	493	512	523	561
Sazaé[2]	416	456	485	506	576	610
Arca	555	463	405	362	387	231
Asari[3]	497	505	434	861	753	780

1 Sea ear, abalone. 2 Turbo cornutus. 3 Tapes phillippinarum.

VALUE OF CRUSTACEANS AND MOLLUSCA

(Unit ¥1,000)

Kind	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936	1937
Cuttle-fish	10,169	11,781	10,276	7,734	12,029	11,542

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	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936	1937
Octopus	2,898	3,069	3,357	3,736	3,680	4,612
Prawn and shrimp	5,258	6,179	6,320	7,044	6,867	7,234
Spiny lobster	1,051	1,056	1,076	1,170	1,555	1,573
Crab	712	1,411	1,603	2,526	1,902	2,479
Bêche-de-mer	502	584	777	1,015	1,125	978

VALUES OF VARIOUS KINDS OF SEAWEED

(Unit ¥1,000)

Kind	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936	1937
Kombu[1]	3,945	2,345	3,930	4,195	4,389	6,219
Amanori[2]	315	515	452	488	551	742
Wakamé[3]	722	938	1,026	1,018	1,498	1,238
Tengusa[4]	1,616	1,783	1,466	1,961	2,894	3,322
Funori[5]	644	698	877	894	958	1,070

1 Laminaria. 2 Porphyra. 3 Undaria pinnatifida. 4 Gelidium corneum
5 Gloiopeltis furcata.

Pelagic Fishery

Large-sized vessels with motors have increased greatly in number of late. There are over 10,000 vessels of over 10 tons, many of which are actively engaged in fishing at distances of up to 700 miles from Formosa and Japan proper. The northern seas have been opened up by floating crab canneries, and mother vessels for the salmon and salmon trout fisheries. But there are still vast undeveloped areas in the Behring Sea, the Sea of Okhotsk, the Maritime province waters, the South Seas, the South China Sea, the Gulf of Siam, and even in the Southern Pacific, so that the future for pelagic fishery for Japan is bright and of great importance to her. The following sections deal with different branches of deep-sea fishing.

In Home Waters In 1937, the number of vessels engaged was 9,783, the number of men 122,892 and the amount of catches 229,795,609 kan of a value of ¥89,887,033, exclusive of catches in colonial waters. The vessels with engines numbered 9,568, while those without numbered only 215.

Catches of principal fish are as follows :

	In 1,000 kan	In yen
Bonito	24,820	13,186,667
Tunny	9,865	12,340,259
Sea-bream	2,220	4,324,556
Flat-fish	10,723	5,611,904

The number and descriptions of vessels engaged in this fishing with their catches, since 1932, are given below:

NUMBER AND CREWS OF VESSELS ENGAGED IN DEEP-SEA FISHING IN HOME WATERS

Year	Total Number of Vessels			Vessels without Engines			Vessels with Engines		
	No.	Tonnage	No. of crew	No.	Tonnage	No. of crew	No.	Tonnage	No. of crew
1932	8,690	172,621	111,673	408	3,013	2,914	8,282	169,608	108,849
1933	8,225	181,957	111,919	282	1,916	1,482	7,943	180,041	111,437
1934	8,705	194,407	110,983	297	2,038	1,686	8,408	192,369	109,297
1935	8,984	199,069	115,689	171	1,321	1,133	8,813	197,757	114,556
1936	9,885	215,026	125,775	240	1,940	1,391	9,645	213,086	124,384
1937	9,783	221,925	122,892	215	1,679	1,134	9,568	220,246	121,758

VALUE OF DEEP-SEA FISH CAUGHT IN HOME WATERS

In Japan Proper

(Unit ¥1,000)

Kind of fish	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936	1937
Sardine	2,506	3,412	3,702	5,771	7,779	6,977
Bonito	8,404	11,661	11,048	10,888	12,963	13,186
Mackerel	2,183	2,873	2,973	3,473	4,321	3,893
Tunny	9,040	9,788	10,753	10,245	11,071	12,340

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	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936	1937
Cod	1,507	2,102	2,967	3,515	6,192	6,693
Shark	2,606	2,848	2,686	2,946	4,210	4,685
Sea-bream	4,925	5,449	5,470	5,269	5,530	4,324
Flat fish	4,051	5,287	5,184	5,323	6,358	5,611
Cybium	37	31	53	38	25	21
Skipper	950	1,299	1,655	1,237	1,713	1,746
Others	17,811	21,230	22,391	25,555	27,322	30,404
Total	54,020	65,986	69,428	74,261	87,483	89,887

In Korean Waters

	1933	1934	1935	1936	1937
Number of boats	1,343	832	1,063	—	—
Total value of catches	¥3,339,410	¥3,241,283	¥4,020,884	¥3,063,063	¥3,196,234

In Formosan Waters

	1933	1934	1935	1936	1937
Number of boats	50	42	15	15	124
Total value of catches	¥191,559	¥181,812	¥26,083	¥23,318	¥126,364

In Kwantung Waters

	1933	1934	1935	1936	1937
Number of boats	288	288	212	200	167
Total value of catches	¥641,071	¥644,465	¥922,330	¥978,000	¥531,289

In South Sea Mandated Islands

	1933	1934	1935	1936	1937
Number of boats	—	—	—	84	128
Total value of catches	—	—	—	¥1,830,800	¥3,349,518

Norwegian Method Followed Whaling is being carried out according to the Norwegian method. As this method requires quick movements the vessels used are small-sized ones of a capacity below 120 tons. In order to allow whales to breed and also to maintain order in the work the Government has made it a rule that whaling should be carried on only under permit. The Government furthermore restricts the number of vessels engaged in this work to 30 in seas other than the South or North Pacific Ocean. It also orders vessels to operate from headquarters placed in 18 suitable places along the coast of Hokkaido, the North-Eastern Sea, South-Western Sea and the Japan Sea.

Japanese whaling is now extending to the Antarctic Ocean and the Japanese whalers made good catches there in recent years. The total value of catches and manufactures reached ¥18,747,886 in 1937. Details follow:

WHALES CAUGHT (Value in yen)

Whales caught		1933	1934	1935	1936	1937
In home waters						
Total	No.	1,156	1,356	1,598	1,641	1,814
	Value	1,142,183	1,991,421	2,466,962	2,577,692	3,397,426
Finback whale	No.	124	178	134	92	92
	Value	148,402	427,093	440,000	330,000	332,257
Blue whale	No.	6	24	21	3	7
	Value	11,889	90,118	118,000	24,000	49,040
Sperm whale	No.	617	786	1,001	1,133	1,208
	Value	532,262	883,220	1,080,000	1,369,000	1,950,262
Humpback whale	No.	58	42	48	58	57
	Value	98,736	88,880	179,000	219,000	204,945
Sye whale	No.	384	324	392	351	445
	Value	343,908	495,210	641,000	616,000	839,946
Right whale	No.	3	2	2	4	5
	Value	6,986	6,900	8,856	19,517	20,976

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Whales caught In colonial waters		1933	1934	1935	1936	1937
Total	No.	202	123	173	173	236
	Value	433,849	429,683	647,434	754,322	894,680
Finback whale	No.	164	106	139	149	210
	Value	284,500	405,741	546,000	666,000	807,490
Blue whale	No.	1	—	—	—	5
	Value	1,156	—	—	—	28,413
Sperm whale	No.	1	2	4	2	5
	Value	1,085	2,856	4,547	3,619	14,781
Humback whale	No.	34	15	30	21	16
	Value	45,272	21,086	97,000	83,000	43,996
Sei whale	No.	1	—	—	1	—
	Value	540	—	—	1,624	—
Grey whale	No.	1	—	—	—	—
	Value	1,296	—	—	—	—

	Antarctic Whaling			Estimated Value (In ¥1,000)		
	Number of mother ships	Number of men engaged	Whales caught	Whale oil	Salted meat	Total including others
1934	1	213	213	473	13	486
1935	1	343	639	2,180	42	2,262
1936	2	766	1,965	8,662	64	8,726
1937	4	1,796	5,565	13,843	322	14,455

Trawling Trawling in Japan is modelled after that now being carried on in the North Sea. The steam vessels engaged are from 200–300 tons in size, some being fitted with Diesel engines. A permit must be obtained from the Government before commencing trawl fishing. At present the Government is restricting trawlers in the Inland Sea, the East China Sea, and the Yellow Sea to 70 vessels. 56 vessels make Shimonoséki their headquarters, while 8 work from Nagasaki, and 6 from Hakata. It also prohibits trawlers, by special regulations, from operating in the nearby seas in order to keep the coastal water free from the devastation caused by the destruction of immature fish, etc. During the World War there was a fall in the catches by trawlers owing to the decrease in number of trawlers, but since 1921, the trawling business has again become active though the number of trawlers as mentioned above is restricted to 70. But, it was increased later and, in 1937, there were 74 vessels with 1,460 crews. Catches by trawling in 1937 amounted to 13,380,415 kan, value ¥7,951,200.

FISH CAUGHT BY TRAWLING

(Quantity in metric ton, value in ¥1,000)

Kind of Fish	1933	1934	1935	1936	1938
Total quantity	50,351	51,704	14,258,000 (kan)	13,887,000 (kan)	13,380,415 (kan)
Value	6,254	6,721	7,044	6,831	7,951
Pagrus major					
Quantity	129	135	53,000	27,875	23,175
Value	68	87	72	51	50
Sciæna japonica					
Quantity	2,840	2,221	1,381,000	738,000	1,054,498
Value	577	517	1,155	723	937
Sciæna schlegelii					
Quantity	14,963	18,811	4,782,000	4,753,000	4,613,250
Value	1,361	1,609	1,698	1,854	2,069
Flat fish					
Quantity	5,507	5,452	1,050,000	881,000	662,830
Value	655	749	608	612	508
Shark					
Quantity	2,597	2,549	461,000	572,000	451,199
Value	171	179	137	178	158
Others					
Quantity	24,309	22,534	6,631,000	6,915,000	6,575,463
Value	3,419	3,578	2,328	2,217	4,226

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Fishery in Soviet Waters

Fishery in Russian or northern waters is an important right conceded to Japan in the Treaty of Portsmouth, signed at the conclusion of the Russo-Japanese War of 1904–05. In 1928, a new convention, under the conditions of the above Treaty was concluded for a period of eight years, after the expiration of which time the pact is to be renewed. The districts to be worked, extending from the Maritime Provinces to Kamchatka, are leased from the Soviet Union at annual auctions held at Vladivostok. (As to the disputes between Japan and Russia on the fishery question in recent years, see Chapter VI.)

In 1937 the number of fishing lots actually worked was 355, the number of steamers 141, sailing vessels 1, and the number of fishermen and others engaged in the fishing 19,858. The amount of salmon, trout, and herrings caught in 1937, was 549,858 koku in total, and the crabs caught numbred 7,759,066. Good catches of salmon and trout are made every other year, while the quantity of crabs has a tendency to become larger in recent years. The amount of salmon, crab, etc. canned was 1,155,407 cases, valued at ¥23,234,699 in 1937. In the same year the amount of salmon and trout salted reached 555,432 koku. The following table shows the number of fishing districts leased, amount of fish caught, etc.

NUMBER OF FISHERIES, FISHING VESSELS, FISHERMEN, AND PRODUCTS IN SOVIET WATERS

Number of fisheries:	1933	1934	1935	1936	1937
Fisheries leased from U.S.S.R.	357	386	395	399	389
Fisheries worked for the year	350	370	376	376	355
Fishing vessels:					
Steamships No.	174	171	196	152	141
Tonnage	330,062	360,179	422,000	361,000	331,734
Sailing-ships: Number	1	1	2	1	1
Tonnage	525	525	1,000	525	525
Fishermen	17,240	18,185	17,506	20,364	19,858
			(koku)	(koku)	(koku)
Total fish caught 100 kg.	476,652	1,081,626	501,000	571,000	549,858
Dog salmon 100 kg.	231,471	350,787	179,000	338,000	176,750
Trout „	163,185	571,661	280,000	165,000	298,869
Red salmon „	80,016	156,098	40,000	67,000	71,106
King salmon „	1,332	2,575	2,579	1,925	3,086
Herring guano „	648	505	113	34	47
Crab pieces	2,546,331	3,583,413	5,049,000	6,565,000	7,759,066
Fishery products prepared, yen	23,666,332	40,902,998	29,149,000	35,489,000	37,598,284
			(koku)	(koku)	(koku)
Salt cured (total) Quantity 100 kg.	312,267	566,073	343,000	376,000	555,432
Value yen	7,567,889	10,583,126	11,101,000	13,099,000	11,697,618
Salmon Quantity 100 kg.	212,957	324,953	172,000	308,000	374,486
Value yen	5,647,006	6,994,973	6,719,000	1,560,000	7,824,974
Trout Quantity 100 kg.	99,310	241,120	172,000	68,856	180,946
Value yen	1,920,883	3,588,153	4,382,000	1,560,278	3,872,644
Canned food (Total) Quantity cases	698,126	1,429,191	956,000	1,147,243	1,155,407
Value yen	14,588,106	27,859,302	15,686,000	20,198,000	23,234,699
Red salmon Quantity cases	287,666	514,543	189,000	343,000	342,325
Value yen	9,272,017	17,671,705	6,089,000	8,826,000	11,840,559
Salmon Quantity cases	27,839	48,187	50,000	117,000	1,318
Value yen	543,168	711,288	1,174,000	2,425,000	25,682
Trout Quantity cases	357,492	837,306	681,000	637,000	733,055
Value yen	3,603,966	8,076,869	6,675,000	6,338,000	7,084,403
Crab Quantity cases	25,129	29,155	36,000	50,000	78,709
Value yen	1,168,955	1,399,440	1,748,000	2,610,000	4,284,055
Others Value	1,510,337	2,460,570	2,362,000	2,192,000	2,665,967

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FLOATING SALMON CANNERIES IN KAMCHATKA

	Mother ships	Men engaged	No. of catches (in 1,000 pieces)	Canned	Salted	Value (In ¥1,000) Frozen	Eggs	Total
1934	16	5,543	8,944	8,050	1,119	988	82	10,239
1935	8	4,972	11,544	7,785	1,651	590	104	10,129
1936	6	3,478	8,796	7,409	1,760	455	67	9,691
1937	7	3,310	10,115	12,051	1,750	690	122	14,614

Floating Crab Canneries Fishing is carried on by vessels equipped with machinery for the purpose of canning the crabs on the vessels themselves. The first enterprise was made in 1921, and, in 1923, rules regulating the work of crab-manufactory vessels were issued by the Government, which also established districts where fishing was forbidden and made permits necessary before a vessel could set out to the fishery. Recently the rule has been revised, the number of vessels on the western side of Kamchatka being restricted to 18 and the amount of canned crab to 320,000 cases.

Up to 1927, Japanese only were engaged in this fishing, but in 1928 two Soviet vessels came in, in 1929 another two entered and 1930 saw a further increase.

Canned crabs manufactured by this method since 1931 are as follows:

FLOATING CRAB CANNERIES

Vessels in operation	1933	1934	1935	1936	1937
Number	9	9	9	9	9
Tonnage	40,724	37,235	34,112	36,737	36,749
Fishermen engaged	2,955	3,120	3,124	3,243	3,420
Crabs caught, pieces	9,461,587	9,930,678	11,332,000	13,948,000	14,913,197
Canned foods					
Quantity cases	153,712	162,079	171,000	184,000	204,375
Value in yen	7,476,267	7,732,616	8,429,000	9,490,000	11,193,937

Note: A case contains 22.32 kg.

Aquiculture

The conservation and cultivation of aquatic resources is very important to Japan as fish and other marine products constitute a great part of the staple diet of her people. Great care and study are being given to aquiculture in the country, the incubation and letting loose of salmon and trout and the cultivation of fish in shallow waters are being well looked after by the Government. From 1926 on, not only the incubation of salmon and trout, but also the transfer of crawfish, shad, etc., was tried several times with assistance obtained from the U.S.A. The aquicultural production for 1937 amounted to ¥28,974,262. The amount gained ¥3,422,666 or 12.4 per cent, over 1936. Of this total, production of carp amounted to ¥5,024,307; that of eels ¥5,092,320; that of oyster ¥2,022,879; that of sea weeds ¥9,987,807; and that of pearls ¥1,543,837. The principal fish, shell-fish and seaweed which are now being cultivated are carp, eel and tortoise in fresh water, and the seaweed laver in sea-water. The breeding is done in rice-fields, breeding ponds, reservoirs, marshes, etc.

The number of aquicultural establishments in 1937 was 159,038, the area covered 149,314,974 tsubo. Condition and results of the industry in recent years are given in full in the following tables:

NO. OF ESTABLISHMENTS ENGAGED IN AQUICULTURE, AREA AND PRODUCTS

Year	No. of Establishments	Area sq. metres	Value of Products (In yen)
1933	159,091	537,908,403	19,283,371
1934	163,549	522,221,417	22,318,327
1935	161,779	157,761,107tsubo	25,534,550
1936	162,326	154,930,254	25,551,596
1937	156,038	149,314,974	28,974,262

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FISH, SHELL-FISH, ETC., RAISED THROUGH AQUICULTURE

	1933	1934	1935	1936	1937
Carp:				(Quantity in kan)	
Ricefields					
Quantity kg.	1,923,199	2,094,821	516,000	509,000	496,940
Value yen	659,960	690,306	681,000	683,000	705,948
Breeding-ponds					
Quantity kg.	5,571,454	6,154,268	1,657,000	1,607,000	1,611,569
Value yen	1,990,842	2,139,843	2,169,000	2,203,000	2,345,091
Reservoirs, marshes, etc.					
Quantity kg.	3,394,560	3,542,741	1,006,000	1,256,615	1,249,652
Value yen	1,272,190	1,356,034	1,401,000	1,629,000	1,973,268
Eel:					
Breeding-ponds					
Quantity kg.	5,511,315	6,042,968	1,741,000	1,809,000	1,863,769
Value yen	3,475,012	3,732,627	4,681,000	4,931,000	5,018,502
Reservoirs, marshes, etc.					
Quantity kg.	146,880	121,181	30,000	35,000	27,027
Value yen	111,326	92,250	77,000	82,000	73,818
Goldfish:					
Quantity kg.	513,958	1,865,014	493,000	555,000	554,150
Value yen	648,101	593,605	571,000	581,000	667,446
Oyster:					
Quantity kg.	35,275,125	43,397,078	15,985,000	15,741,000	14,949,475
Value yen	1,193,086	1,437,378	1,998,000	1,858,000	2,022,879
Asari:					
Quantity kg.	29,530,433	38,522,404	11,691,000	11,359,000	16,459,681
Value yen	633,913	691,690	801,000	890,000	1,274,095
Pearl:					
No. of shells	2,492,727	4,510,158	7,750,000	7,072,000	10,857,953
Value	909,355	1,472,487	1,395,000	984,000	1,543,837
Pearl shells:					
No.	13,932,890	50,515,256	37,267,000	36,216,000	29,790,061
Value yen	286,653	637,196	829,000	905,000	869,751
Amanori (Porphyra):					
Quantity kg.	22,409,048	30,649,665	8,855,000	8,410,000	9,346,073
Value yen	6,481,262	7,521,042	8,942,000	8,566,000	9,987,805
Others:					
Value yen	1,621,671	1,953,869	1,989,433	2,239,917	2,491,822

Manufacture of Fishery Products

The supply of fish depends to a considerable extent on seasonal changes but demand is controlled by the tastes and customs of consumers, so that supply and demand are too often not well balanced. In order to adjust these difficulties satisfactorily, careful studies have been made regarding the storing and preserving of these products. Especially, as the problem of food has become a serious one lately, it is often argued that a portion of the fishes which are now being turned into fertilizers and which amount to 40% of the total yields, should be converted into food. Under these conditions Japan is paying very careful consideration to the manufacture of fishery products.

The total manufactured fishery products in 1937 was valued at ¥214,870,754, of which ¥33,115,259 was in fertilizers, ¥18,001,508 in fish oils, ¥730,026 in Gloiopeltis dried, and the balance of ¥163,023,961 was the value of food products.

MANUFACTURED FISHERY PRODUCTS

(Units: Quantity in metric ton, value in ¥1,000)

Year	Total Value	Food Products		Fertilizers	
		Quantity	Value	Quantity	Value
1933	156,294	409,081	119,926	438,117	28,843
1934	167,048	442,931	128,804	424,017	28,913
1935	175,540	447,151	137,472	374,449	28,552
1936	215,861	132,637,000 kan	156,144	120,298,000 kan	37,474
1937	214,870	142,956,902	163,024	88,985,600	33,115

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Year	Fish oils		Sukifunori*	
	Quantity	Value	Quantity	Value
1933	70,633	6,947	679	576
1934	82,638	8,702	788	628
1935	62,205	8,793	711	723
1936	30,079,000 kan	21,527	190,000 kan	716
1937	24,437,345	18,001	172,806	730

Note: Production of Japanese isinglass is not included in the table.
*Dried seaweed, Gloiopeltis furcata.

Products as Food To the present the Japanese people have not paid much attention to the manufacture of fishery products, except "fushi", as articles of food, because fresh fish is available at almost any time and any place. But since there is a large consumption of such products among people of Western nations attention has been turned to the preservation of fish with a view to export. The principal items preserved are "fushi" (fishmeat steamed and dried), fish dried, salted and dried, boiled and dried, smoked, salt-cured, canned, and Japanese isinglass. Production of each for the last few years is as follows:

VALUE OF FOOD PRODUCTS
(Unit ¥1,000)

Year	Fushi	Dried	Salted and Dried	Boiled and Dried	Smoked	Salt-cured	Miscellaneous
1933	15,628	21,221	8,300	16,794	360	9,773	47,848
1934	15,823	23,250	8,821	19,781	372	9,704	51,051
1935	14,314	22,306	10,040	22,547	289	11,859	56,117
1936	17,525	27,264	10,527	23,469	402	14,559	62,398
1937	16,948	27,124	10,103	21,999	438	19,313	67,098

Japanese Isinglass Kantén or Japanese isinglass is a gelatinous substance extracted from seaweed, especially from Gelidium amansii, used for food and industrial purposes, production of which is shown in the following table:

	1933	1934	1935	1936	1937
No. of establishments	429	449	463	512	520
Total production Quantity kg.	2,081,404	2,320,654	665,000 kan	680,000 kan	708,203 kan
Value yen	4,718,521	5,257,378	6,390,315	9,712,497	10,122,783

Fertilizers Details of the production of fish fertilizers are given in the table below. As the table shows most fertilizers are made from herrings, sardines and bonito. Where transportation facilities are not very good or where there is no satisfactory equipment for manufacturing them into food fishes are converted into fertilizers.

FISH FERTILIZERS
(Quantity in metric ton, value in ¥1,000)

Year	Total		Herring cake	Sardine cake	Fish bone cake	Sardine dried	Dried Herring	Others
	Quantity	Value	Value	Value	Value	Value	Value	Value
1933	438,117	28,843	5,121	17,750	526	966	2,300	2,178
1934	424,017	28,913	3,319	19,536	969	1,006	2,163	1,917
1935	374,449	28,552	1,679	18,157	945	1,194	1,688	4,886
1936	120,298,000 kan	37,474	1,024	26,715	1,220	857	1,893	5,764
1937	88,985,600 kan	33,115	973	21,545	1,688	359	1,370	7,178

Fish Oils Fish oils used for industrial purposes are sardine oil, herring oil, cod oil, whale oil and shark oil. Production in 1937 was 24,437,345 kan, a decrease of 5,642,069 kan as compared with the previous year. The value amounted to ¥18,001,508, a loss of ¥3,526,606.

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FISH OILS

(Value in ¥1,000)

Year	Total	Sardine	Herring	Cod	Whale	Shark	Others
1933	6,947	4,804	295	255	439	448	703
1934	8,702	6,416	358	375	408	431	711
1935	8,792	6,687	165	471	545	724	197
1936	21,527	16,112	361	1,006	2,371	1,026	649
1937	18,001	14,272	170	849	1,151	947	609

Manufacture of Salt

The salt industry in Japan is carried on under the Salt Monopoly Law. Salt is manufactured by the boiling method. The cost of production, therefore, is high, and the quantity produced is not enough, so that a large quantity of cheap salt is imported every year. The number of salt producing establishments, production, production areas, etc., in Japan are as follows :

March 31	No. of Establishments	No. of Manufacturers	No. of Employees	Area of Saltbeds in hectare	No. of Boiling Pans	Production
1933	3,361	3,378	36,672	4,538.48	3,804	630,835,033 kg.
1934	3,339	3,347	36,855	4,533.92	3,709	676,300,500
1935	3,308	3,303	36,390	4,612.80	3,693	604,440,328
1936	3 261	3,232	35,787	4,571 cho	3,680	864,659,761 kin
1937	3,239	3,221	35,310	4,561 ,,	3,641	892,905,280 ,,

Organizations Connected with Fisheries

Suisankai (Fishery Societies) Suisankai is a public corporation, recognized by the Suisankai Law of 1921, which has as its purpose the development of fishery. It is an organization covering a particular county or city and includes among its members, in addition to those engaged in fishing, persons having rights to fish and those who manufacture, trade in, or store fishery products. A prefectural suisankai is organized by county and city suisankai of that particular prefecture, and at the head of prefectural suisankai and suisankai located abroad is the Teikoku (Imperial) Suisankai. The functions of suisankai include the encouragement of fishery, the improvement and extension of the manufacture of marine products, the development of fishing districts, protection of aquiculture, etc. It also collects statistics, investigates markets, or engages in brokerage, etc. On the social side, the rescue of shipwrecked vessels, improvement of relations between employers and employees, employment agency work, mediation in labour troubles, etc., are looked after by the societies. And lectures on fishery subjects, exhibitions and fishery shows are held by them. The number of suisankai, their members, etc. during the last few years are as follows :

SUISANKAI (Fishery Societies)

	1933	1934	1935	1936	1937
Fishery Societies:—					
Total	330	349	346	344	344
County and city fishery societies	340	308	305	303	303
Prefectural fishery societies	39	40	40	40	40
Imperial fishery society	1	1	1	1	1
Number of members of societies:					
County and city fishery societies	430,767	450,276	450,696	444,135	447,496
Prefectural ,, ,,	336	304	296	294	299
Imperial ,, ,,	42	42	43	43	43
Expenditure of fishery societies (yen)	1,778,277	1,932,159	1,644,675	1,545,577	1,672,326

Suisankumiai (Fishery Guilds) There are two classes of suisankumiai. The first of these is a corporate judicial person, organized by fishermen or those who are engaged in the manufacture or sale of aquatic animals or plants in a particular district for the purpose of the encouragement and improvement of

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fishery, cultivation and propagation of aquatic products, etc. The number of suisankumiai is decreasing gradually. At one time there were as many as 220 or more of these Kumiai or guilds. In 1937 there were 65, with a membership of 41,274 and an expenditure of ¥1,180,-528. The Act for Suisankumiai in Foreign Waters promulgated in 1902, authorizes any Japanese engaged in fishery or in the manufacture or sale of aquatic products in foreign waters, either by permit or by treaty, to organize suisankumiai. At present Roryo Suisankumiai (Suisankumiai in Russian Waters) is the only one which belong to this class. This guild is formed by fishermen and those engaged in the manufacture and sale of aquatic products in the Maritime Province, Kamchatka, and Saghalien Island. In 1937, its members were 26. Its especially important task is to encourage amicable relations between the Japanese and Russian fishermen working in the same waters and thus ensure the smooth and effective working of the industry in those parts.

Gyogyo-Kumiai (Fishermen's Societies) Gyogyo-Kumiai is a judicial person recognized by Fishery Law, and is organized by fishermen living in a particular district. It acquires fishery rights, etc., for member fishermen and takes any measures necessary to further or protect the common benefit of its members.

The principal object of gyogyo-Kumiai is the acquisition of fishing rights, etc. This is quite natural in Japan for fishermen work with their village as unit and no fisherman can work independently. Therefore, fishing rights are mostly secured by gyogyo-kumiai, special privileges being given to the kumiai for securing them.

Though in the original Act, the object of gyogyo-kumiai was restricted to the acquisition of fishing rights, etc, the Act was revised in 1910, whereby the kumiai had the obligation put on them of undertaking any proper measures that would redound to the mutual benefit of fishermen.

Gyogyo-Kumiai Rengokai are corporations of gyogyo-kumiai. Their principal functions are joint sales of fishery products, cultivation of fish and rescue of shipwrecked vessels. Their history and number are as shown below :

GYOGYO-KUMIAI (Fishermen's Societies)

No. of societies classified	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936
according to no. of members (total)	3,957	3,930	3,994	4,000	3,998
under 50	1,262	1,271	1,257	1,223	1,198
51—100	892	904	923	933	928
101—200	1,004	975	973	1,694	1,719
201—500	670	687	692		
501—1000	109	120	124	124	123
1001 and over	20	23	25	26	30
No. of members of societies	555,734	570,056	574,328	580,103	594,710
Federations of societies					
No. of federations	69	70	72	74	74
No. of member-societies	917	925	926	941	975

Dogyo-Kumiai or Related Associations Dogyo means the same trade or profession, hence Dogyo-Kumiai are associations of those connected with the same trade. In relation to the fishery industry they are formed by those dealing in aquatic products, canned foods, salt, cultivation of fish, etc. In 1937, there were as many as 21 dogyo-kumiai connected with the fishing industry. There is also the Dai-Nippon Suisan Kai, which is incorporated for the purpose of the improvement and encouragement of fishery.

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CHAPTER XVI

FORESTRY

Introduction

Japan is one of the few countries of the world favoured with extensive forests. The area of forests and fields in Japan including Korea, Formosa and Saghalien Island, was 45,299,105 hectares at the end of 1933 and was about 67% of the whole area of the country, which is 67,538,527 ha. It is about 3.8 times as large as her agricultural land.

Since Japan forms a long narrow chain stretching north and south from the northern extremity of the Kurile Islands to the southernmost point of Formosa, and since her mild climate is very favourable for the growth of plants and trees, it is natural that there should be a thick growth of many varieties. There are as many as 1,500 kinds, of which principal forest trees alone number more than 100. In point of richness in variety, she occupies a high position even among countries which are favoured with larger forest areas. While the amount of timber produced is valued at roughly ¥300,000,000 annually it is still far less than 10% of the value of the total staple products of the country and is not at present enough to fill domestic requirements. Every year it is necessary to import about 10,000,000 koku of lumber, equivalent in value to ¥100,000,000. Furthermore, forestry offers very limited labour opportunities. As compared with agriculture, which gives work to one-half of the total families in Japan, and fishing, which finds employment for 1,500,000 people, the number of persons engaged in forestry is small, being less than 720,000.

Distribution and Character

Forests in Japan stand, roughly speaking, in four different zones : sub-tropical forest zone, evergreen broad leaved forest zone, the deciduous broad-leaved forest zone and coniferous forest zone.

The Sub-tropical Forest Zone This covers the whole of Formosa, the southern half of the Loochoo Islands, including the Yayéyama Islands, annual mean temperature in it being over 21° C. As to the altitude, the zone varies from below 2,000 metres above sea level in the southern part of Formosa to below 1,000 metres above sea level in the northern part of the same island. In this zone, binroji, tsuga, (Arenga saccharifera) basho-banana and bamboo are found.

The Evergreen Broad-leaved Zone This comprises Shikoku, Kyushu, the northern part of the Loochoo Islands and the southern part of Honshu (Main Island) (at 36° N. Lat. and Southwards), the annual mean temperature of this zone being 13°–21° C. As to the altitude, it is 854 metres on an average in Kyushu, 762.5 metres in Shikoku and 610 metres in the southern part of Honshu. Trees which grow in this zone are kusunoki (Cinnamomun camphora, Nees), oak, akamatsu (Pinus densiflora), white fir, tsuga (Tsuga sieboldi, Carr), etc.

The Deciduous Broad-leaved Zone This zone covers the northern part of Honshu, the southern part of Hokkaido and a greater part of Korea, the annual mean temperature in this zone being from 6° C. to 13° C. As regards the altitude, it is from 976 metres to 1,372.5 metres in the northern part of Honshu and 457.5 metres in the southern part of Hokkaido. Trees which grow in this zone are cedar (the Japanese cyress), white fir, todo-matsu (Abies sachalinensis, mast), ezo-matsu (Picea ajanensis, Fisch), beech poplar, white birch, etc.

The Coniferous Zone This zone covers the northern half of Hokkaido, the group of the Kurile Islands and the Saghalien Island, the mean temperature of which is 6° C. to below zero. This zone starts at the height of 1,000 metres in Honshu and ends at the height of 2,592.5 metres in the same island, while it ends at the height of 1,067.5 metres in Hokkaido and 610–762.5 metres in Saghalien Island. Principal trees which grow in this zone are ezo-matsu and todo-matsu.

Forests in Kiso district extend over mountain regions which range from 305 metres to 3,050 metres above the sea level along the course of the upper stream of the River Kiso. It covers 104,055 ha. in area and its growing stock amount to 28 million cu. m. Principal trees are the Japanese cypress, the swamp-cypress, sawara (Chamae cyparies obtusa, S. et Z), nezuko (Thuja japonica, maxim) and parasol-pines.

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They are old and are thickly grown. The reason that they are retained so well is due to the fact that during the feudal times, the cutting down of these trees was prohibited. Among these, the most magnificent trees are the Japanese cypresses which are about 190 years old. Most of them are 0.46 metre in diameter and 27.45 metres in height.

Forests of sugi in Akita district are widely distributed along the Yonéshiro and Omono Rivers, and belong to the Government. The forests cover an area of about 43,000 ha. and hold stock of 16 million cu. m. The forests, where they are not mixed with other trees, are beautiful and magnificent to look upon. Most of the sugi in these forests are from 120 to 200 years old, and in a dense part the stands hold as much as 1,400 cu. m. per ha. Some of them are so large that their diameter reaches sometimes to 1.22 metres. The forests are noted for the abundance of timbers of a superior quality. Annual cutting from these forests amounts to 280,000 cu.m.

Area of Forests, etc.

According to the report of the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry the area of forests in Japan proper was as follows :

(In Japan proper the investigation on the area of forests, bamboo-groves and wild lands (productive yet uncultivated) is carried at the year end every third year.)

AREA OF FORESTS, BAMBOO-GROVES AND WILD LANDS IN JAPAN PROPER

(In hectares)

Year (At the year end)	1930	1933	1936 (In chō)
Grand total	23,011,218.74	23,645,731.85	24,186,376
Forested tracts	19,879,240.86	20,575,913.91	21,035,861
Coniferous	4,632,827.81	5,420,360.80	5,658,563
Broad-leaved	8,470,016.53	9,086,657.13	9,007,564
Mixed	6,148,369.59	5,454,838.83	5,758,616
Bamboo-groves	136,329.23	148,348.25	152,684
Miscellaneous	491,697.70	465,708.90	458,434
Bare tracts	3,131,977.88	3,069,817.94	3,150,515
Crown	1,432,649.16	1,413,885.42	1,380,087
National	7,638,263.28	7,657,609.80	7,712,934
Public	4,186,375.15	4,287,336.00	4,444,567
Temple and shrine	141,381.03	144,269.56	152,904
Private	9,612,550.12	10,142,631.07	10,495,885

Stock of Growing Timber

Japan Proper To ascertain the amount of growing timber owned by the Imperial Household, Government, and public and private interests careful investigations are made, the investigations in the case of public and private interests being carried out by each prefecture. The following statistics show the growing timber in Japan proper in 1933 classified according to ownership: (Quantities in 1,000 cu. m.)

Kind	Crown	Government	Public and Private			Total	%
			Public	Shrines and Temples	Private		
Coniferous trees	32,452	139,948	71,172	7,333	327,510	578,415	46.0
Broad leaved trees	14,121	323,431	83,503	5,000	252,823	678,878	54.0
Total	46,573	463,379	154,675	12,333	580,333	1,257,293	—
%	3.7%	36.6%	12.4%	0.7%	46.6%	—	—

Thus the total standing timber in Japan proper (Hokkaido excluded) is 1,257,293,000 cu.m., of which coniferous trees account for 578,415,000 cu.m. and broad-leaved trees 678,878,000 cu.m.

Other Parts The following table shows the number, ownership and type of trees in other parts of the country.

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STANDING TIMBER IN HOKKAIDO, FORMOSA, KOREA AND SAGHALIEN ISLAND IN 1933

(Quantities 1,000 cu. metres)

Owners	Hokkaido			Saghalien Island		
	Coniferous Trees	Broad Leaved Trees	Total	Coniferous Trees	Broad Leaved Trees	Total
Crown	32,911	74,130	107,041	—	—	—
Government	165,705	212,599	378,304	165,951	22,905	188,856
Public	19,829	51,448	71,277	—	—	—
Shrines and temples	2	17	19	—	—	—
Private	2,899	28,994	31,893	—	—	—
Total	221,346	367,188	588,534	165,951	22,905	188,856

Owners	Formosa			Korea		
	Coniferous Trees	Broad Leaved Trees	Total	Coniferous Trees	Broad Leaved Trees	Total
Crown	—	—	—	—.	—	—
Government	70,006	127,374	197,380	87,902	72,158	160,060
Public	68	297	365	4,316	2,095	6,411
Shrines and temples	—	—	—	2,413	1,472	3,885
Private	828	9,121	9,949	60,658	15,275	75,933
Total	70,902	136,792	207,694	155,289	91,000	246,289

The total stock of growing timber in the country classified according to ownership is as follows :

TOTAL STAND OF TIMBER IN JAPAN IN 1933

(1,000 cu. m.)

Owners	Total		
	Coniferous Trees	Broad Leaved Trees	Grand Total
Crown	65,363	88,251	153,614
Government	629,512	758,467	1,387,979
Public	95,385	137,343	232,728
Shrines and temples	9,748	6,489	16,237
Private	391,895	306,213	698,108
Total	1,191,903	1,296,763	2,488,665

Afforestation

There is great scope for the practice of afforestation in Japan because of the large wild areas, plains where there is only a thin growth of trees, and forests where there are many undesirable trees. However, since a great deal of timber is being cut, reforestation becomes more urgent every year.

Afforestation is divided into two classes, viz., natural and artificial. Natural afforestation is being carried out in only a small portion of the Crown and Government forests, while in most of the public and private forests, conditions are such that no definite plans for natural afforestation have been made. However, as this is liable to cause forests to go to waste careful studies are being made to improve the situation.

In artificial afforestation Japan has had some good experience and artificial afforestation for the Imperial and Government forests is being carried out on a well-planned basis.

New Plantation Area newly planted in 1937 was 118,065 cho, and the number of trees planted was 340,557,533, of which coniferous trees numbered 278,715,478 while broad-leaved trees numbered 50,417,523. The number of trees planted in the Crown owned area in the same year was 11,424,532.

In addition to the above there were 56,993,134 trees supplementarily planted in the forests in 1937, and bamboo-groves newly cultivated were 867.9 cho in area and 1,058,650 in the number of bamboos planted.

Naturally Regenerated Area of forests naturally regenerated in 1937 was 240,820 cho.

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ARTIFICIAL AFFORESTATION

(Area in cho)

Year	1935	1936	1937
Area newly planted	109,728.9	119,472.7	118,065.4
Number of trees newly planted	328,020,522	356,350,597	340,557,533
Coniferous area	84,964.3	95,935.4	95,649.7
Number of trees	258,386,282	288,684,326	278,715,475
Broad-leaved area	19,309.9	18,436.7	18,200.9
Number of trees	54,178,683	52,808,322	50,417,523
Crown area	5,454.7	5,100.6	4,214.8
Number of trees	15,455,557	14,857,949	11,424,532

Production of Wood, Bamboo and Other Forest Products

The total value of forest products in 1937 reached ¥432,434,950.

Area of wood and bamboo lands cleared and the value of wood and bamboo produced in recent years were as follows:

	1935	1936	1937
Area cleared in cho	412,012.5	455,398	445,873.7
Total Value in yen	168,761,410	194,840,000	254,991,282
Timber	113,868,550	136,933,000	189,088,543
Fuel wood	52,365,708	55,153,000	63,218,575
Bamboo	2,527,152	2,754,000	2,684,164

During the ten preceding years no marked fluctuation has been observed in movements of quantities of timber and fuel wood produced, while, on the other hand, their value has been showing annually more than moderate decreasing trend until 1934 when it turned to increase.

Value of other forest products in 1937 amounted to ¥177,443,668. Details follow:

Kind	1935	1936	1937
Seeds of trees	47,328	44,716	56,022
Fruits (Chestnuts, Walnuts, etc.)	3,637,943	4,297,997	4,306,391
Barks	2,317,412	2,512,932	2,901,405
Loan grass	17,051,201	18,432,950	21,423,867
Fresh mushrooms (matsutaké)	4,547,224	4,394,132	4,891,987
Dried mushrooms (shiitaké)	4,282,318	5,505,551	4,822,663
Bamboo sprouts	4,143,188	4,888,931	5,202,223
Horse-radish	1,565,726	1,744,885	1,658,627
Charcoal	90,814,783	101,796,857	131,460,169
Total including others	129,083,727	144,347,118	177,443,668

Protective Forests

Besides having a direct value through the produce they yield, forests have a distinct indirect value through influence on climate, conservation of water supplies, prevention of erosion, etc., and in order that the fullest use may be made of them the Government established a system of "protective forests." In the following instances, under the Forestry Act, the Government is authorized to decree that certain forests, etc., shall be considered as "protective forests":

(1) When it is necessary to protect against soil denudation.
(2) When it is necessary to protect against sand shifting.
(3) When it is necessary to protect against flood, wind and tide.
(4) When it is necessary to protect against avalanches and rolling stones.
(5) For conservation of water supply.
(6) For fishery purposes.
(7) For guiding navigators.
(8) For public health.
(9) For scenery.

The area of protective forests in 1933-37 was as follows:

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PROTECTIVE FORESTS

Year (At the year end)		1933	1934	1935	1936	1937
Total					(Area in cho)	
Number		405,145	415,885	422,321	433,180	443,013
Area	ha.	2,078,522.78	2,089,401.95	2,122,633.6	2,135,437.9	2,143,554.4
Against soil-denudation						
Number		236,910	247,873	256,637	265,965	273,760
Area	ha.	905,430.25	911,327.28	924,786.9	933,159	938,844.7
For feeding springs						
Number		72,138	71,133	67,559	67,092	66,508
Area	ha.	930,990.98	982,608.16	994,611.9	998,080	998,833.0
Against flood						
Number		15,498	15,238	15,182	15,711	15,700
Area	ha.	10,967.50	10,879.14	6,516.5	6,526	6,532.0
Against rolling stone						
Number		485	481	476	474	485
Area	ha.	1,723.93	682.02	683.9	684	697.7
Against avalanche						
Number		4,899	4,958	4,942	4,968	6,116
Area	ha.	7,062.35	6,614.57	6,691.8	6,715	7,408.3
Against wind						
Number		13,736	13,940	14,410	14,892	15,524
Area	ha.	65,943.87	70,135.24	77,221.7	77,285	77,900.5
Against dust						
Number		10,869	11,221	11,346	11,598	11,586
Area	ha.	13,720.36	14,320.56	13,656.0	14,080	14,153.2
Against tide						
Number		13,260	13,637	14,369	15,137	15,959
Area	ha.	8,994.15	8,995.74	9,137.4	9,270	9,171.4
For attracting fish						
Number		25,853	25,867	25,904	25,893	25,947
Area	ha.	47,994.05	47,963.11	51,259.4	51,15	51,694.2
Landmark for navigation						
Number		253	259	259	257	258
Area	ha.	1,256.93	1,257.81	1,268.3	1,277	1,274.2
For maintaining public health						
Number		153	153	153	153	153
Area	ha.	89.36	89.26	90.0	90	89.7
For scenic beauty						
Number		11,091	11,125	11,084	11,040	11,017
Area	ha.	34,349.06	34,529.06	36,709.8	37,161	36,955.5

Owners of protective forests, etc., cannot, according to the provisions of the Forestry Act, cut down the trees, take the forest products from them nor utilize them for any purpose, unless with the approval of the authorities concerned. Protective forests are divided into two classes for administrative purpose. In the first class are forests in which limits for cutting and utilization are fixed, while in the second are those, the cutting of which is absolutely prohibited. Any owner who has his forest included in the second class and suffers any loss by this inclusion will have the loss reimbursed by the Government.

Utilization of Government Forests

Forests are classified according to ownership as Crown forests, Government forests, and public and privately owned forests. Public and privately owned forests include those possessed by shrines and temples, public corporations and private individuals. Crown forests are those possessed by the Imperial Household and are divided into the hereditary and ordinary ones. Both are under control of the Minister of the Imperial Household, and are in charge of the Bureau of Imperial Forests and Estates. Government forests in Hokkaido are looked after by the local Government of Hokkaido, while those in Honshu (Main Island) are taken charge of by the Department of Agriculture and Forestry. Growth of forests, their utilization, and work of ensuring the public welfare through them are looked after by these offices, which administer them with rational plans for the public welfare.

The Government makes a contract

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with people willing to carry on afforestation work whereby they are given not more than 80% of the total profit on condition that they follow the Government's instructions as to planting, supplementary afforestation work, and taking care of the trees planted. "Divisional Forests" may be established for this work. A portion of the Government's forests may be put into the custody of shrines and temples and any profits arising therefrom may be used by the shrines and temples. Such forests constitute "Forests in Custody." Sometimes the Government may appoint a particular city, town, or village to protect Government forests which are situated within the jurisdiction of that city, town or village, payment for the work being made by part of the products of that forest being handed over to the city, town or village (Commission forests). In addition, the Government may lease its forests for the purpose of the development of industry in a particular district, or for the purpose of assisting people living near the forests. In some cases no rent is charged. The ground may be used for grazing, grass, or gathering fuel. The Government may sell some of its forest land if it is suitable for reclamation. Forests which are used for these purposes are of a vast area. Figures for March, 1935 follow:

Protective forests	930,049 ha.
Divisional „	43,863
Forests in the custody of shrines and temples	25,584
Commission forests	55,998
Forests leased for industrial purposes	75,713
„ for grazing	119,409
„ as grass fields	162,338
„ for gathering fuel	1,010,615
„ „ reclamation	23,602

Taxes cannot be imposed on Government forests which come within the area of any city, town, or village. But in view of the fact that it owes a great deal to the city, town or village for controlling and managing these forests, the Government has decided to pay to that particular city, town or village a sum equivalent to the amount of the local tax which those forests would bear if they were owned by private individuals.

Forestry Associations (Shinrin Kumiai)

Forestry associations are those judicial persons recognized by the Forestry Act of 1907, which are formed not for profit but for safety of the country, conservation of water supplies, protection of forests, etc. The nature of their work is to allow members to plant, fell, carry, guard, or sell timber under unified control and rational management. Forestry associations are classified according to their objects into four classes, viz., foresters' associations, business associations, coolies' associations, and protection associations.

The number of forestry associations in 1937 was 2,373, and the area covered was 1,922,002 cho. The growth of forestry associations in recent years is shown in the following table:

FORESTRY CO-OPERATIVE SOCIETIES

(Area in cho)

Year (At the year end)	1933	1934	1935	1936	1937
Total					
Number of societies	1,734	1,919	2,083	2,235	2,373
Area operated by societies	1,259,575	1,441,681	1,642,146	1,793,768	1,922,002
Number of members	243,753	278,111	325,172	359,048	389,921

Forest Damage and Insurance

Forests are subject to damage by fire, wind, snow, etc., damage and loss by fire being especially great. As the forestry business requires an investment which covers a long period of years it is essential to insure, for if a forest is swept by fire, not only the capital invested, but also the care and labour of many years is instantly swept away. The table below shows both the amount of loss and the area damaged by fire, wind, etc., during the last few years. In order to encourage forestry work some means to minimize the loss which arises from fire had to be devised. For many years forest insurance was looked for but it was not until 1920 that the Toho Fire Insurance Co., Ltd., ventured to take on this business. The Teikoku Fire Insurance Co., Ltd., and

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Tokyo Marine and Fire Insurance Co., Ltd., quickly followed. The first two companies insure only those artificially cultivated forests which are older than ten years, while the Tokyo Marine and Fire Insurance Co., Ltd., will insure the artificially planted forests which are not ten years old as well as naturally grown forests.

Damages done to forests in 1937 reached 321,506 cho with an estimated value of ¥16,978,093.

STATISTICS OF DAMAGES DONE TO FORESTS

Year	Total Damage		Forested Tracts			
			By Fire		By Wind	
	Total Area	Value	Area	Value	Area	Value
	ha.	¥	ha.	¥	ha.	¥
1933	91,225.17	3,551,976	4,697.75	893,992	18,526.12	218,159
1934	740,792.76	46,443,748	13,474.06	2,206,993	532,481.34	32,110,919
1935	267,362.2 cho	18,612,942	12,033.9 cho	2,490,686	40,727.4 cho	1,269,659
1936	502,787 ,,	23,784,993	4,171 ,,	806,000	69,976 ,,	718,000
1937	321,506 ,,	16,978,093	14,945 ,,	3,706,887	79,454 ,,	2,388,533

Year	Forested Tracts			
	By Fungus, Insect, etc.		By Flood	
	Area	Value	Area	Value
	ha.	¥	ha.	¥
1933	2,993.26	25,816	531.66	125,311
1934	1,868.81	53,937	7,312.09	2,259,657
1935	4,980.4 cho	212,846	11,519.4 cho	6,396,686
1936	7,618 ,,	157,000	2,255 ,,	474,000
1937	6,250 ,,	443,460	3,168 ,,	925,127

Year	Forested Tracts			
	By Snow		Others	
	Area	Value	Area	Value
	ha.	¥	ha.	¥
1933	23,395.52	588,752	38,787.48	1,658,933
1934	131,280.83	8,726,727	36,018.79	444,773
1935	162,358.7 cho	6,912,318	29,496.9 cho	526,557
1936	384.601 ,,	19,971,000	26,120 ,,	739,000
1937	179,363 ,,	8,608,274	32,975 ,,	630,724

Year	Bare Tracts					
	By Fire		By Flood		Others	
	Area	Value	Area	Value	Area	Value
	ha.	¥	ha.	¥	ha.	¥
1933	1,832.92	11,545	138.05	18,804	322.41	10,664
1934	6,967.60	35,373	1,955.61	441,537	9,333.63	163,832
1935	3,050.4 cho	50,868	2,302.0 cho	610,652	3,892.1 cho	141,670
1936	1,192 ,,	18,000	546 ,,	91,000	6,310 ,,	810,000
1937	2,688 ,,	50,135	608 ,,	52,353	2,052 ,,	165,057

Forest Administration

The central office of forestry administration in Japan at present is the Forestry Bureau in the Department of Agriculture and Forestry. Under this Bureau, there are six Forestry Administration Offices, 218 Forestry Administration Stations and 1,544 administrative districts.

In the office of the Forestry Bureau there is a Section of General Affairs, a Section of Forestry Business, and for the administration of privately owned forests there is a Public and Private Forests Section. For experimental work there are, under the direct supervision of the Minister of Agriculture and Forestry, Forestry Experimental Stations. Forestry Administration Offices are located in Aomori, Akita, Tokyo, Osaka, Kochi, and Kumamoto cities, and are under supervision of the Minister of Agriculture and Forestry. The work of each office is to plan the afforestation work of Government and public forests, to establish or eliminate Government forests, to start civil engineer-

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ing work, to sell forests, etc. They also supervise the works of forest administration stations which are placed under them. In each office there is a Section of General Affairs, a Section of Forestry Planning, a Section of Afforestation and a Section of Utilization.

Forest Administration Stations, which number 218 in all, are directly concerned with the management and protection of Government and public afforested forests.

In Hokkaido, the Forestry Section in the Development Bureau is the central administration office, and under it there are 19 forest administration offices. About 3,520,000 ha. of forests which are owned by the Government are administered by these 19 offices, the average area controlled by one office being about 185,000 ha.

Forestry Education

College Education Forestry education in Japan began with the establishment of a forestry school in Nishigahara, Tokyo, in 1882, under supervision of the Forestry Bureau. This school became the Tokyo Forestry School and by the University Ordinance of 1890 was incorporated as a branch of the Department of Agriculture of Tokyo Imperial University. Morioka and Kagoshima Higher Forestry Colleges were established in 1903 and 1904 respectively. The forestry education that was being carried on in Sapporo Agricultural College in Hokkaido, became a laboratory course when the college became a Department of Hokkaido Imperial University. During the World War, facilities for education were greatly extended, and Departments of Forestry were added to Kyoto and Kyushu Imperial Universities, while higher forestry colleges were established in Miyé, Utsunomiya, Gifu, Miyazaki, and Suigen in Korea and Taihoku in Formosa.

Each university and college has its own speciality. Kyushu and Hokkaido Universities give lectures on Forestry in Tropical and Arctic Zones respectively, and graduates of these universities are mostly working in the colonies. Each university has forests for experimental purposes.

Most higher colleges are comparatively new but each of them has its own speciality. Some of them have two-year post-graduate courses, while others offer some special courses. Miyé Higher Forestry College is noted for its course in civil engineering for forestry, Gifu Higher Forestry College for its technological course on forestry products, and Utsunomiya for courses on agricultural policy and economics. Gifu Higher Forestry College is specialized in its courses on clearing and carrying lumber making on a mechanical basis, chemical technology of forestry products, etc.

Practical Education The first and second class forestry schools established and supervised by various prefectures give practical lessons in forestry. They exist either as independent schools of forestry, or as a part of agricultural schools.

In order to encourage forestry, training of experts who have practical knowledge of forestry is very important. These experts are trained mostly in the forestry schools which give practical lessons, but often other methods, as explained in the next section, are adopted.

Supplementary Education For those who have no opportunities to get regular forestry education in schools supplementary forestry education is given in various places, the principal method being by series of lectures given under the auspices of forestry experimental stations, forestry associations or charcoal associations. These lectures are given regularly each year, but in particular cases, when experts are required for the purpose of management of some special forestry work a special course of lectures will be given. In the case of Government forests, supplementary education is given every year to train men who take charge of the forests.

Forestry Experimentation

Central Experimental Station A plant experimental station was first established in Nishigahara, Tokyo, in 1878, to make investigations into the advantages of the cultivation of various plants, the growth of plants, the relation between the forests and climatic conditions of the country, etc. This station was abolished in 1822, but in 1890, the business of forestry experiments was taken up by the Forestry Administration Station of Tokyo. Later, in 1905, upon a pressing need, plant nursery beds were established in Meguro, Tokyo. This nursery developed into a Forestry Experimental Station under supervision of the Forestry Bureau. In 1922, the station was detached from the Forestry Bureau and placed under the direct supervision of the Minister of Agriculture and Forestry. A subsidiary station was also established in the Ogasawara (Bonin) Islands for the purpose of experimenting with tropical plants.

In the Central Experimental Station

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there are departments of general affairs, afforestation, vegetable pathology, utilization of forestry products, chemistry, forestry work, and weather and climate. Since 1904 it has regularly issued bulletins on experiments and forest weather, besides occasional other reports. The Station will, for payment, make analysis, carry out experiments and give advice and judgement on matters of forestry for the general public, if requested.

Local Experimental Stations Among the various prefectures Hokkaido is the only one which has a forestry experimental station. It was established in 1908 and for twenty-five years has contributed to the development of forestry in that island. The station makes expriments in afforestation, the utilization of forestry products and the protection of forests. In Kagoshima prefecture, a forestry research bureau was established in 1929. This bureau studies plant rearing, afforestation, etc. and is the only bureau which engages in experimental work in prefectures other than Hokkaido.

Forestry experimentation in Formosa is undertaken by a Forestry Bureau under the Central Research Station in the Government-General of Formosa. It has experimental forests of 52,000 cho. In addition to experiments in afforestation, utilization, and nursery work, it studies the classification and distribution of plants grown in the island. It has two branch stations.

The forestry experimental station in Korea was established in 1922. As the climatic conditions in Korea are rather continental the kinds of plants, their distribution, and the nature of forests, etc. differ widely from those in Japan, so the results of the experiments made in the Central Experimental Station in Tokyo cannot be directly applied to the forests in Korea. The station is comparatively new, but as part of a plan which is to be completed in fourteen years beginning 1925, investigations on the classification and distribution of plants, experiments in rearing and the planting of principal trees, experiments in the prevention of damage from noxious insects and fungi on young plants and forests, tests on lumber and methods of storing, etc., have already been made and reports on the results of the investigations and experiments have been published in the bulletins issued by the station. In the experiments on rearing young plants it has already succeeded in showing the way to quicken their growth, its experimental success in rearing the Korean pines being specially noteworthy.

In Saghalien Island an experimental station was established in 1929. Prior to that experiments were made on frigid zone plants by the Temporary Industrial Investigation Bureau in the Government Office of Saghalien Island in experimental forests near the towns of Toyohara and Horo.

Lumber Trade and Industry

Lumber Trade Imports of American lumber in 1938 amounted to ¥9,770,000. It was a great drop as compared with 1937 in which the amount reached ¥30,077,000. The main causes of the decrease were in the trade control of the Government. And the total amount of lumber imports reached ¥28,178,000, a decrease of ¥36,639,000 over the previous year.

Lumber Price The lumber market in 1938 extremely arose, because of the decrease of the imports of foreign lumber. January quotation of American lumber was ¥24.70 per shakujime (about 1 cubic foot×12), and it rose to ¥32.50 in July, then dropped to ¥26.13 in November and the year average was ¥28.45. The Saghalien timber was quoted at ¥970 per 100 koku (koku—about 1 cubic foot×10) in January, ¥1,130 in March, ¥1,100 in September, again ¥1,130 in December, and year average ¥1,084.

IMPORTS OF LUMBER (In ¥1,000)

Year	Ebony, Kwarin, etc.	Teak	Cedar for Pencils	Cedar, Pine, Fir from under 60 mm. thick to over 200 mm.	Cedar, Pine and Fir (logs and cants)	Kiri (paulownia)	Aspen	Other Wood
1934	952	758	336	14,722	15,404	66	277	7,665
1935	967	1,347	364	16,533	20,230	83	304	9,945
1936	1,081	1,534	—	37,645		663	809	13,816
1937	815	2,852	—	41,640		821	727	17,962
1938	198	1,405	—	13,181		289	608	12,497

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EXPORTS OF LUMBER (In ¥1,000)

Year	Bamboo	Railway Sleepers	Veneers	Shooks	Match Sticks	Wood Shavings for Match Boxes	Wood, Sawn	Logs, etc.
1934	952	2,207	4,010	5,779	255	402	6,620	4,639
1935	742	689	4,397	5,012	88	282	7,520	5,192
1936	895	699	5,965	4,872	377	273	9,146	3,371
1937	853	—	9,002	7,113	388	298	13,536	4,346
1938	—	—	6,064	6,745	662	509	17,825	14,358

Wood Pulp Industry

Demand for pulp in Japan during 1937 gained considerably over the year before, both production and imports increasing heavily over 1936, as mentioned in connection with rayon and paper manufacturing industries in other chapters.

The 1937 production of wood pulp in Japan was 829,684 metric tons, the timber consumed for the manufacture of pulp 8,687,899 koku. The amount of wood pulp imported amounted to 466,608 metric tons valued at ¥116,720,000. In 1938, it decreased to 144,724 metric tons valued at ¥41,059,000.

PRODUCTION AND IMPORTS OF WOOD PULP
(In metric tons)

	Production	Imports
1933	620,039	159,974
1934	708,996	225,261
1935	757,477	269,853
1936	802,565	326,467
1937	886,978	466,608
1938 (estimate)	1,001,228	114,724

Promotion of the Industry The Board of Planning adopted a five-year programme for increase of wood pulp production in Japan and Manchoukuo in order to realize self-sufficiency in pulp in the country. According to the five-year programme the present productive capacity of 871,000 tons is to be expanded to 1,350,000 tons in Japan proper while the imports from Manchoukuo are to be increased from the present quantity of 13,200 tons to 300,000 tons by the end of 1942.

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CHAPTER XVII

MINING

History of the Industry

During the reign of the Emperor Kotoku (645 A.D.), a mineral deposit was discovered in the province of Iyo and experts came over from Korea and China, to work the minerals extracted. Metals were being used for making coins, so mining received the encouragement of the rulers. During the time of the Emperor Shomu, (724–747 A.D.) mineral deposits were found in many places and the art of working them made considerable advance, a fact witnessed by the construction of the Great Buddha at Nara, a monument of the metal-working art of those days.

Later, during the time of the Ashikagas, mining made further development, especially in the field of gold, copper and sulphur. Influential lords who held sway in their own localities required metals to finance their army, and mines always proved good objects for fights. Mineral deposits obtained in this manner were well worked and the mining industry naturally developed.

In the time of the Tokugawas metallurgy further advanced. The government coined money which circulated all over the country and naturally the industry was well protected and carefully developed under its ægis. At this time Japan was known throughout the world as a country which abounded in gold and silver, and after the country was opened up to foreign trade the quantity of these precious metals exported was considerable, a business which provided a natural stimulus to gold and silver mining. The government also encouraged private enterprisers to engage in the industry, a result of which was the entry of the Sumitomos. The chief mineral deposits discovered during those times were :

Ashio Copper Mine	in Tochigi
Besshi „ „	in Ehimé
Sado Gold Mines	in Sado Island
Miiké Coal „	in Fukuoka
Karatsu „	in Saga

After the Meiji Restoration the industry did not show much progress until after the Sino-Japanese War of 1884–1885, when the Government called in many mining experts from abroad and employed them in government operated mines, not only to improve, organize and work the mines more efficiently but also to teach the operating of them on a modern basis. The mines improved in this manner were sold to private companies, and the experts who were officials of the Government were transferred together with them, a factor which served to bring the mining industry of Japan to its present stage of development.

In all kinds of mineral products, the year 1935 witnessed considerable increases over the preceding years. This was caused by the enormous increase of overseas trade and the continued boom of munitions industries. The year 1936 far surpassed the productions of the preceding years, setting an all-time record. An upward price trend caused miners to produce more than ever before.

Speaking of gold, the 1937 output totalled 13,184 kilogrammes in contrast to 21,114 kilogrammes for 1936. Silver production, too, decreased and amounted to 184,391 kilogrammes against 298,-793 kilogrammes for 1936. Copper was not exception to the rule. Its output totalled 48,823 metric tons against 78,-114 metric tons for 1936. Coal production totalled 24,278,000 metric tons against 38,067,000 metric tons for 1936. Petroleum products for 1937 totalled 2,272,-631 hectolitres contrasted to 3,820,462 hectolitres for 1936. Production of sulphur totalled 140,502 metric tons, gaining over the 1936 figure of 175,314 metric tons. Production of lead was the largest known for recent years with a total of 5,521 metric tons against 8,021 metric tons for 1936. Demand for zinc became heavy with the progress of munitions industry. Last year's production totalled 26,835 metric tons in contrast to 36,201 metric tons for the previous Year. Tin decreased somewhat and totalled 949 metric tons for 1937 against 1,859 metric tons for 1936. Throughout these two years the constant measures of encouragement of the Government and heavy demand for munitions industry provided the background for the large production.

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NUMBER OF MINE-LOTS PROSPECTED AND THEIR AREAS

(Prepared by Department of Commerce and Industry)

(Area is given in ares)

	1933	1934	1935	1936	1937
No. of Mine-lots	7,130	8,918	10,191	11,175	13,180
Area	130,743,419.5	171,271,346.3	197,668,056.0	216,727,000.0	266,205,444.1

Classified according to Kinds of Minerals

(Area is given in ares)

Kind of Mineral	1935		1936		1937	
	No. of Mine-lots	Area	No. of Mine-lots	Area	No. of Mine-lots	Area
Metal	7,001	128,256,535.3	7,731	140,850,104.8	9,100	172,101,997.1
Phosphorus	26	387,309.3	19	308,582.1	20	378,852.1
Graphite	27	344,311.7	30	375,819.0	25	224,956.0
Coal	1,863	42,904,085.3	2,015	46,668,887.4	2,390	58,048,328.0
Lignite	144	1,433,521.7	144	1,525,784.4	148	1,634,154.1
Petroleum	877	19,156,144.8	884	19,598,611.4	1,054	24,228,692.9
Petroleum asphalt	13	280,433.0	20	440,591.7	37	955,728.9
Sulphur	235	4,770,922.5	291	6,116,556.5	381	8,223,615.0
Total including others	10,191	197,668,056.9	11,175	216,726,569.1	13,180	266,205,444.1

NUMBER OF MINE-LOTS OPERATED AND THEIR AREA

(Prepared by Department of Commerce and Industry)

(Area is given in ares)

		1933	1934	1935	1936	1937
No. of Mine-lots	Operated	1,241	1,395	1,448	1,613	1,863
	Not optd.	3,067	2,915	2,888	2,764	2,544
Area	Operated	22,175,416.3	23,723,094.7	23,874,047.0	28,874,000.0	28,384,319.7
	Not optd.	22,608,207.5	21,678,168.5	22,267,615.0	22,587,000.0	19,832,958.5

Classified according to Kinds of Minerals

Kind of Mineral		1935		1936		1937	
		No. of Mine-lots	Area	No. of Mine-lots	Area	No. of Mine-lots	Area
Metal	Operated	619	8,354,131	711	9,493,034	898	11,352,413.0
	Not optd.	1,572	10,092,320	1,468	9,400,913	1,305	8,289,501.9
Phosphorus	Operated	2	13,374	2	13,374	3	38,405.8
	Not optd.	7	46,661	7	46,661	6	32,796.7
Graphite	Operated	3	45,308	3	36,048	9	69,890.6
	Not optd.	12	40,890	14	51,004	5	15,250.7
Coal	Operated	545	12,921,417	596	13,375,035	630	14,033,213.9
	Not optd.	876	10,639,894	832	10,536,721	807	10,074,404.0
Lignite	Operated	102	574,388	103	565,712	98	552,953.8
	Not optd.	99	355,737	94	327,129	94	324,811.9
Petroleum	Operated	125	1,473,661	132	1,559,169	144	1,654,847.7
	Not optd.	256	800,910	249	787,268	240	717,410.3
Petroleum Asphalt	Operated	9	122,042	9	122,042	10	122,908.8
	Not optd.	3	2,958	3	2,958	2	2,092.8
Sulphur	Operated	39	329,975	45	428,808	58	498,620.1
	Not optd.	60	273,445	92	384,264	80	323,378.7
Total including others	Operated	1,448	23,874,047	1,613	25,669,510	1,863	28,384,319.7
	Not optd.	2,888	22,267,615	2,764	22,587,070	2,544	19,832,958.5

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PRODUCTION OF MINERALS

Japan Proper

(Value, in yen)

Kind of Ore	Unit	1934 Quantity produced	1934 Value	1935 Quantity produced	1935 Value	1936 Quantity produced	1936 Value
Gold	Gramme	15,094,094	44,906,708	18,293,869	56,234,439	22,235,000	74,828,000
Gold dust	,,	52,491	134,895	27,447	75,262	—	—
Platinum-dust	,,	3,678	20,251	1,575	9,980	—	—
Silver	,,	217,254,393	11,039,296	256,004,834	17,917,084	303,753,000	15,172,000
Silver dust	,,	—	—	—	—	—	—
Copper	kg.	67,002,270	46,746,330	70,317,043	52,152,075	77,973,000	66,617,000
Lead	,,	7,039,311	1,415,177	7,070,361	1,774,996	8,883,000	2,691,000
Bismuth	,,	50,354	376,062	51,980	318,793	—	—
Tin	,,	1,218,216	4,094,784	2,068,839	7,872,479	1,871,000	6,377,000
Tin dust	,,	500	1,975	241	499,901	—	—
Tin ore	Metric ton	903	2,093,849	173	40,709	—	—
Antimony sulphide	kg.	—	—	—	—	—	—
Antimony ore	,,	106	15,349	5,089	27,555	—	—
Mercury	Metric ton	6,772	32,639	3,888,710	1,318,678	—	—
Zinc	,,	32,145,458	9,516,702	370,689	17,540,993	39,066	12,439,000
Cast iron	,,	357,150	15,039,962	239,408	17,476,784	342,647	16,311,000
Steel	,,	186,046	13,240,306	1,338,891	13,423,086	291,374	21,176,000
Iron pyrites	,,	1,090,454	10,733,989	35,969	1,381,480	1,750,914	19,663,000
Chromite	,,	27,070	993,550	71,659	1,370,671	—	—
Manganese ore	,,	10,637	336,366	89	97,577	—	—
Dioxide Metal	,,	46,528	572,524	6,435	13,357	—	—
Scheelite ore	,,	65	82,381	2,889,144	461,226	—	—
Arseneous acid	kg.	2,734.331	322,792	91,248	1,158,372	—	—
Phosphate rocks	Metric ton	56,500	626,765	1,201	78,325	—	—
Graphite	,,	969	48,931	—	—	—	—
Coal	,,	35,924,989	245,555,471	37,762,491	270,177,016	41,803,000	305,537,000
Atan*	,,	124,356	614,283	108,526	568,600	—	—
Crude Petroleum Crude Oil	hl.	2,838,630	9,429,848	3,509,568	11,985,514	3,907,000	15,529,000
Gasoline	100 cm.	471,214	785,770	414,741	696,924	—	—
Sulphur	Metric ton	135,412	9,018,901	164,945	10,244,145	198,237	11,911,000
Sulphur ore	,,	4,782	53,394	165,867	1,684,238	—	—
Sulphuric acid	,,	118,459	1,068,993	2,582,437	699,429	—	—
Total			— 432,307,812		— 504,419,190		— 589,400,000

* Brown or soft lignite.

The amount of mineral production in 1937 is not made public. But there is no doubt about the fact that it must have reached over 800 million yen, judged from the increase in the amount of taxes received by the Government from mining industry as it is shown below:

Year	Tax on Mineral Products	Special Tax on Mineral Products (In Yen)	Tax on Mine-lots	Total including others
1933	1,427,504	—	2,177,341	4,729,453
1934	1,701,007	—	2,600,445	5,886,661
1935	1,914,517	—	2,841,083	6,167,640
1936	2,204,200	—	3,071,534	7,112,929
1937	3,036,308	420,428	3,707,908	9,708,944

Mining of Metals

Gold Lacking natural resources, Japan today depends on importation from foreign countries for a large number of materials for armaments, munitions and various capital goods. Semi-finished goods are particularly needed in con-

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nection with defence-centred economy. However, the greater the importation of goods, the worse will become the already adverse international balance of trade. Hence, it is necessary to adopt feasible measures to maintain equilibrium in international accounts while attempting to import adequate amounts of goods needed. Promotion of the export trade constitutes one of these measures. Through concerted efforts on the part of the Government and the people, Japan's export business has continued to advance in the face of high tariffs, import quota systems and various other restrictive measures adopted by other countries. Simultaneously, the Government has introduced the Foreign Exchange Control Law, the Law Concerning Adjustment of Foreign Trade and Allied Industries and the Law Concerning Temporary Measures on Exports and Imports. Through these measures it has been attempted to adjust foreign trade by prohibiting or restricting imports of goods which have been considerd unnecessary or non-urgent.

The remaining methods of bettering the international balance and maintaining the foreign exchange position of the yen on a sound basis is to replenish funds for settlement of foreign exchange, and one of the most effective measures is to increase the production of gold within Japan. The Government has made substantial appropriations for various gold production measures, notwithstanding the large expenditures required for other undertakings.

Since 1932, the Government has enforced many policies concerning gold: the purchasing of gold at current market prices; the reduction of railway freight rates on gold ore; the reduction of fees for analysing gold ore at the Bureau for Supervising Mines; the subsidization of construction of gold refineries, and the guiding of operations of gold mines on minor scales. As a rsult, the production of gold has increased considerably. In Japan proper alone, in 1936, it amounted to more than 22 metric tons valued at ¥74,820,000, whereas in 1931 only a little over 12 metric tons of gold valued at ¥16,500,000 were produced. Production in the Japanese Empire, including Taiwan and Chosen, which was about 22 metric tons, valued at ¥26,840,000 in 1931, increased sharply to more than 41 metric tons worth ¥138,560,000 in 1936.

However, even this latter amount is inadequate at the present time. The Government therefore promulgated the Gold Production Law which went into effect on August 28, 1937, with a view to increasing production of gold in an aggressive manner and to concentrating the precious metal in governmental hands so that it may be utilized in equibalancing international accounts. In conjunction with the execution of this law, the Government is encouraging gold production with a sum of approximately ¥22,580,000 to be spread over five years from the 1937 fiscal year.

For the promotion of gold mining industry, the Government also introduced the Law Concerning the Japan Gold Production Promotion Company, Limited, at the 73rd session of the Imperial Diet in 1938. Approved by the Diet, the law was promulgated on March 29, 1938. The company organized under this law is a special semi-governmental corporation whose functions is to facilitate supply of abundant funds for gold mining enterprises and also to undertake various promotional enterprises in connection with the industry, such as the refining of poor ores.

On May 2, 1938, the Government raised its buying price of gold from the former level of ¥3.77 per fine gram to ¥3.85, the current level of the world gold market. On May 9, it abolished the gold buying commission which had hitherto been levied, and reduced by 50 per cent the rates of refining fees charged by the Mint on gold bullion to be sold to the Government, the rates of fees on certificates of the quality of gold bullion and those of fees on testing. At the same time, the buying commission on gold bullion in small lots below 50 grammes was abolished.

The essential points of the Gold Production Law may be listed as follows:

1. Persons desiring to engage in the business of gold refining and of buying minerals containing gold are required to secure licences from the Government.

2. Persons who have acquired minerals containing gold or alluvial gold or any substance containing gold are required to refine them into gold bullion and to sell the latter to the Government, or to sell them to licensed gold refiners or buyers of minerals containing gold. When these buyers have refined the bullion, they are obliged to sell it to the Government. Thus, all newly refined gold is to be concentrated by the Government, irrespective of the channels through which it may be obtained.

3. Gold refiners are required to formulate their plans of operation in advance and to report them to the Gov-

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ernment. Reports are also required concerning changes in plants. The Government is authorized to order alterations in the plans of the refiners.

4. Whenever it is deemed necessary for the augmentation of gold production, the Government may, on the recommendation of the Gold Commission, command gold refiners to expand or improve refining facilities and may give necessary instructions concerning such facilities.

5. Owners of mining rights and rights on alluvial minerals containing gold shall be treated in the same manner as gold refiners, with respect to business operations.

6. When it is deemed necessary for the public welfare, the Government may, on the recommendation of the Gold Commission, issue orders to persons who are engaged in gold mining, gold refining and buying of minerals containing gold.

7. The Government is authorized to demand reports from gold miners, gold refiners and persons engaged in the business of buying minerals containing gold concerning their business methods and assets, and may also investigate such matters. The Government may further issue supervisory orders regarding the accounting methods of the above persons or may take the necessary action.

8. When it is deemed necessary, the Government may, on the recommendation of the Gold Commission, issue orders regarding the price of gold, restrictions on the use of gold and other matters relating to the consumption of gold. This provision has been put into force through Ordinance No. 60 Concerning Regulations on Gold Consumption of the Department of Finance, promulgated on December 28, 1937.

9. Machinery, tools or other materials necessary in the business of gold miners or gold refiners, when imported with the approval of the Government, shall be exempted from import duties for a period of five years from the day on which the Gold Production Law went into effect.

10. The Government may give subsidies to gold miners or gold refiners within the limits of the amount fixed in the budget.

Measures for encouraging the production of gold are roughly as follows:

1. To give subsidies to those prospecting for gold mines.

2. Subsidization of construction of facilities for selecting and refining ore.

These measures are to be carried out in accordance with the provisions of the Gold Production Law. Procedures relating to these measures are provided for in Ordinance No. 22 Concerning Gold Production Encouragement Regulations of the Department of Commerce and Industry, promulgated on October 10, 1937. Other measures are:

1. To subsidize expenses covering institutions for training the field staffs of gold mining companies.

2. To survey mineral deposits in gold producing areas.

3. To hasten the disposal of applications for gold mining licences.

4. To lend machinery and tools for gold mining.

A summary of the prospectus of the Japan Gold Production Promotion Company, Limited, is as follows:

1. Organization of the company: This company is to be a special joint stock company organized under a special law.

2. Purpose of the company: To conduct operations necessary for the promotion of gold mining and refining.

3. Capital: ¥50,000,000, of which ¥25,000,000 is to be invested by the Government. The capital may be increased on the approval of the Government.

4. Officers: (a) The company shall have a president, vice-president, three or more directors and two or more auditors. (b) The president and vice-president shall be appointed by the Government; their term of office shall be four years. Directors shall be appointed by the Government from among the shareholders of the company; their term shall be three years. Auditors shall be elected from among the shareholders at a general meeting; their term shall be two years.

5. Business: (a) Financing of and investment in gold mining and refining enterprises and in enterprises for the manufacture of gold mining and refining machinery and tools. (b) Gold mining and refining. (c) Buying and selling of gold mining and refining machinery and tools, and other materials or equipment. (d) Buying and selling of minerals containing gold. (e) Survey and valuation of gold mines.

6. Debentures: (a) The company is authorized to issue debentures under the name of the Gold Production Debentures up to an amount five times the paid-up capital of the company. (b) The Government may guarantee the payment of the principal of and interest on such debentures.

7. Dividends: (a) The company shall not be required to pay dividends on the Government-owned shares until

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private shares have been satisfied to the extent of 4 per cent per annum. (b) In case the profits to be divided among shareholders reach a ratio exceeding 4 per cent per annum on private investments and the company intends to declare dividends at a higher rate, distribution of such excess profits may be made on the Government shares and private shares at ratio of 1 to 5, until the company becomes able to declare dividends of equal rates on both kinds of shares.

8. Subsidization of dividends: When the amount of profits to be distributed among shareholders fails to reach the rate of 4 per cent per annum on private investments, the Government shall subsidize the company with an amount covering the deficiency for the first year of its operation and for the subsequent five years. However, each subsidy cannot exceed the combined total of a sum equivalent to 4 per cent per annum on private investments and a sum of interest paid on Gold Production Promotion Debentures, with the exception of the first one.

9. Tax exemption: (a) The company shall be exempted from income tax and business profit tax for the first and the subsequent 10 business years. (b) No local taxes shall be levied on this company.

10. Subsidies: The Government may grant subsidies to the company principally for its enterprises relating to refining of poor ores.

11. Government supervision: (a) The Government is authorized to supervise the business of the company. The company is required to obtain approval from the Government regarding increase of capital, issuance of Gold Production Promotion Debentures, other borrowings, changes in the Articles of Corporation, disposition of profits, resolutions on amalgamation with other companies or dissolution, and business plans. (b) The company shall observe the Government's supervisory orders and orders necessary for the promotion of gold producing enterprises. (c) The Government shall appoint supervisors of the Nippon Gold Production Promotion Company in order to supervise the business of the company.

12. Regarding the organization of this company, the Government shall appoint an Organization Committee, which shall make all preparations and follow the necessary procedures.

The foregoing explanations apply to governmental policies in Japan proper. In Korea, the Decree on Gold Production was promulgated by Imperial Ordinance No. 16 of September 7, 1937. This Decree is similar in substance to the Gold Production Law of Japan proper. In Formosa, the Gold Production Law is to be enforced as in Japan proper in accordance with Imperial Ordinance No. 518 of September 25, 1937.

The Japan Gold Production Promotion Company intends to increase the production of gold throughout the Empire. It will conduct business in Korea and Formosa as well as in Japan proper.

Silver Affected by the bounds and leaps in the silver quotations in foreign markets and o account of the close relationship of silver with gold smeltering the production of silver increased too, the 1935 production amounted to 256,004,834 grammes, which advanced to 303.753,000 grammes for 1936. Average silver price in 1937 in Osaka was ¥51.24 per kilogramme, a little cheaper than that of 1936 which was ¥51.85.

Tin Only about one-fourth of the total demand is being met by home products. To be exact 1,218,000 kg. was produced at home in 1934 againt the total home consumption of 5,260,000 kg., leaving a balance of 4,062,000 kg. to be imported and 20,000 kg. for exports.

Osaka Tin Refinery Guild was established in October, 1933. The reproduced tin put out by the members of the guild became such an important factor that its manufacture came to be designated as one of the principal industries by the Government in November, 1934. The sales of the product have been well regulated after the formation of the guild. Before the guild was organized the product contained a good deal of impurities and the production was only two or three hundred tons. As the time went on the technique of refining improved and the production in 1934 went up to five hundred tons. All the product is consumed in the domestic market, the average price in 1937 being ¥527.95 per 100 kilogramme in the Osaka market.

Copper Production of copper, unlike that of tin, lead, zinc, or aluminium, was comparatively large in Japan, occupying an important position among metal industries, especially in arms industry. Copper industry developed rather early in Japan. Its production in 1876 was less than 4,000 tons, but Japan was then known throughout the world as the second largest copper producing country, exporting one half of her product. But with the Great War as the turning point, her position as copper exporting country became less important, for new copper beds were discovered in Chile and Congo. Japan then came to occupy the fourth position

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in the production of copper, and has been compelled to become an importer, the quantity imported increasing every year.

Demanded as an indispensable requisite in the munition manufacturing industries its brisk tone was maintained in 1934 as it had been in the previous year. The 1936 copper output in Japan established a record high with 77,973,000 metric tons in contrast to 69,829 metric tons for 1935. The copper market in Japan was long under influences of New York and London markets. But since the second half of 1932, owing to the depression of the yen and the increased tariff, it began to regain an independent position of foreign influences. Copper prices in Japan for 1936 were unusually high affected by New York and London quotations. Last year's low was ¥79.-65 on January 13 and high was ¥107.35 on December 4. The range was ¥27.70. In 1937, the average price of electorolytic copper rose to ¥139.96, a record high. The exports of copper reached 211,554 piculs valued at ¥15,105,-000 for 1937 and 113,456 piculs valued at ¥8,636,000 for 1938.

To meet the enhanced demand copper mines extended their equipments, the most important being the improvement of the furnace at Naoshima refinery of the Mitsubishi Mine, the extension of Saga refinery of the Nippon Mine, and opening of a new shaft at Ashio Mine of the Furukawa interests.

SUPPLY AND DEMAND OF COPPER (Kilogrammes)

	Production	Imports	Total	Exports	Home Consumption
1932	71,876,557	1,966,600	73,843,157	23,121,600	50,721,557
1933	69,032,756	17,617,700	86,650,456	8,512,100	78,138,356
1934	67,002,270	51,368,300	118,370,570	12,621,600	105,748,970
1935	69,407,000	65,261,000	137,441,000	72,000	134,170,000
1936	78,614,000	47,794,000	129,607,000	7,000	127,524,000

Lead The home production of lead barely satisfies 7% of the aggregate demand. In 1936 the total home production was 8,883 metric tons, and the import was 97,822 metric tons.

Zinc The origin and development of zinc mining in Japan is of comparatively recent date. In 1900, a Swiss clock firm, seeing bright prospects of developing the industry, purchased many zinc mines in the country and began exporting the metal. From this time the industry developed, the number of men engaged in mining increased, and the exportation of zinc grew in proportion.

Along with the development of other industries has been an advance in zinc smelting. With increased demand during the World War, production and exports increased, the quantity produced in 1917 reached 54,700 metric tons, and smelting furnaces numbered 16. From the slump of 1920 and the depression which followed it, the industry received a heavy blow. Most of the furnaces were shut down, and only those in Miké, Takata, and Hiroshima were able to weather the storm. The last named has been especially successful in manufacturing sulphuric acid with the sulphur separated from zinc ores.

Zinc ores in Japan exist mainly in igneous and aqueous rocks. They seldom exist independently, sometimes being found mixed with lead ores. The principal ore which yields zinc is zinc sulphide, some of the best of which contains about 67% of zinc and 33% sulphur. Ordinary ores contain 40 to 55% of zinc and 24 to 28% of sulphur. The principal places of production are as follows :

Kamioka Kozan in Gifu Prefecture
Budé „ „ Niigata „
Ikuno „ „ Hyogo „
Yasuda „ „ Nagasaki „
Hosokura „ „ Miyagi „
Kanayama „ „ Wakayama „
Wanibuchi „ „ Shimané „
Sasu „ „ Nagasaki „
Ginya and Maden Kozen in Heiando, Korea
Mimuné Kozan in Keiando, Korea.

The production, import, export, and consumption of zinc follow :

Year	Production Quantity produced kg.	Value yen	Imports kg.	Exports	Consumption kg.
1931	25,407,089	4,471,742	24,633,600	—	50,040,789
1932	27,043,432	6,032,611	26,571,600	—	52,615,032
1933	30,657,632	9,746,995	32,525,600	—	63,183,232
1934	32,145,458	9,516,702	33,208,100	—	65,353,558
1935	34,191,000	—	45,842,000	—	80,034,000
1936	39,066,000	—	61,774,000	—	97,975,000

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Iron and Steel Industry

Down to the Meiji Era The art of iron smelting is said to have been known even in prehistoric times in Japan, but no reliable record can be found. The granites found in large quantities in the Chugoku districts, i.e. Okayama, Hiroshima, Tottori, and Shimané prefectures were found to contain a good percentage of magnetite iron from which iron dust was extracted. These places became famous for their iron products and swordsmiths. In the middle of the 19th century, there were as many as 300 smelting works in these districts, but before the Restoration the utility of iron was not well realized and the demand for it was naturally small. Therefore, the iron and steel industry in its modern garb can be said to have begun with the Restoration.

Since the Restoration Early in the Meiji Era, mines were mostly operated by the Government. As the iron and steel industry was considered very important from a military standpoint the Government placed Kamaishi mine in Iwaté prefecture, under its direct management, and established there some smelting works with foreign experts called from abroad. In 1879, two furnaces with capacity of 25 tons each were installed, but, owing to a shortage of raw materials and fuels the enterprise failed.

After the Sino-Japanese War of 1894–1895, the necessity of establishing the iron and steel industry for manufacturing war supplies was very keenly felt, and the Yawata Iron Works was established in 1886. Owing to the increased demand for iron and steel by various expanding industries the Yawata Works were extended in 1906 and again in 1911.

Private iron and steel works have since been established in rapid succession. In 1905, Suzuki Shoten of Kobé established Kobé Seikojo, and in 1907, Nippon Seikojo was established at Muroran with English and Japanese capital. In 1912, Nippon Kokan Kaisha, Ltd., was established, while in Manchuria, Honkeiko Baitetsu Koshi was established in 1910 on joint account of Japan and China.

These iron and steel works expanded tremendously during the World War, and production increased with marvellous rapidity. The 1913 production of pig iron was 240,000 metric tons while the 1918 production had increased to 583,000 tons. During the same period the production of steel increased from 255,000 tons to 537,000 tons. The Mitsubishi Co. established their Iron Works in Kenjiho, Korea, about this time.

Perhaps the iron and steel industry received a heavier blow than any other from the slump of 1920, a blow that was intensified by the decisions reached at the Disarmament Conference of 1921. The price of pig iron fell from ¥541 per ton, the highest price, in July of 1918 to ¥65 per ton is 1921, steel bars fell from ¥451 to ¥132, and steel sheets from ¥1,285 to 199. Twelve pig iron manufacturing companies, four steel manufacturers and six steel materials manufacturing companies went out of business. Many small companies were amalgamated with or absorbed by bigger ones, until at present the whole iron and steel industry is controlled by a few powerful houses, Mitsui, Mitsubishi, Sumitomo, Okura, Asano and Okawa.

Many new industries were started during the Great War and as they progressed their demand for iron and steel expanded. Production increased to meet this demand and the 1923 output was greater than at any time during the Great War. The industry received blows from the great earthquake of 1923 and the financial panic of 1927, but with the finances of the largest concerns of the country behind it re-adjustments were soon made and as demand increased the industry steadily developed.

Iron Industry in 1937

Iron industry in the country and foreign trade of iron and steel have been put under a strong Governmental control since the outbreak of the China incident in 1937, by the enactment of the Iron Manufacturing Industry Law which was passed at the 71st session of the Diet in the summer of that year. The new law, while exempting all iron manufacturing concerns in the country from taxation makes it compulsory for them to ask the permission of the Government for any changes in their working programme, and enables the Government to order the necessary changes.

In April 1937 the Minister of Commerce and Industry announced a scheme for abolishing customs duties on imports of pig iron for a year and increasing the annual production of pig iron to 5,600,000 tons and that of steel to 6,000,000 tons by the end of 1941. Accordingly, the expansion scheme of the Japan Iron Manufacturing Company was to continue for several years to come and new furnaces

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were to be installed in Hyogo and Korea while its existing factories were to be greatly expanded. But the occurrence of the China incident expanded the requirements and the Konoé Cabinet which came to power in June, 1937, drew out a five-year programme for expanding the production of iron in order to realize an annual output of steel amounting to 10,000,000 tons in Japan and Manchoukuo combined. To increase the supply of steel for special purposes the curtailment of the production of iron bars and rods for peacetime enterprises was enforced as from October, 1937. At the same time regulations governing all factories using iron and steel were issued, and Governmental license was made necessary for any building in which more than 50 tons of iron bars and rods are used, the law coming into force on October 20, 1937. The supply and demand relations are also brought under a thorough Governmental control. All phases of iron and steel manufacturing industries and trade are kept in secret since the second half of 1937.

Steel Competitive rearmament programmes adopted by the leading countries of the world have resulted in a remarkable increase in demand for steel and the steel manufacturing industry in Japan has been witnessing unprecedented activity, as shown in the following table. The production in the latter half of 1937 is not made public, but it may be safely said that it reached an amount far surpassing the corresponding period of 1936.

SUPPLY AND DEMAND OF STEEL

(In 1,000 tons)

	Production	Imports	Exports	Domestic consumption
1936				
First half	2,066	144	223	1,987
Second half	2,514	141	195	2,460
Total	4,580	285	419	4,446
1937				
First half	2,454	294	212	2,535

Pig Iron and Waste Iron The problem of increasing the production of pig iron had been a long-standing one in Japan, and after the Hirota Cabinet came into power in 1936 it was became the subject of one of the most important policies of the Government. Installation of additional furnaces was encouraged and exemption of pig iron from customs duty was proclaimed. Early in 1937 the Hayashi Cabinet established a scheme for increasing the annual production of pig iron to 5,600,000 tons by the end of 1941. The Japan Iron Works made preparations for increasing production in conformity with the Governmental plan and, at the same time, succeeded in concluding a contract with American companies for the importation of pig iron amounting to 150,000 tons during 1937. According to the Japan Iron Works' plan the production of pig iron in 1937 was to increase by some 500,000 tons, the amount of supply expected being 3,700,000 tons or an increase of 15 per cent over the previous year. Actual production and imports of pig iron in 1936 and 1937 was as follows:

PRODUCTION AND IMPORTS OF PIG IRON IN 1936 AND 1937

(In 1,000 tons)

	Production		Imports	
	1936	1937	1936	1937
January	233	191	62	65
February	220	185	71	56
March	239	228	91	57
April	231	231	85	54
May	241	230	94	64
June	231	212	101	102
July	239	—	67	117
Total for the year	2,869	—	978	—

Note: Figures for production have not been published since July and those for imports since August.

The imports of waste iron amounted to 1,356,000 tons in the first 7 months of 1937. Figures for the rest of the months of that year are missing, but the fact that those for the first 7 months alone were getting close to the total of the 12 months of the previous year indicates the increased activity of steel manufacturing industry in 1937.

IMPORTS OF WASTE IRON IN 1936 AND 1937

(In 1,000 tons)

	1936	1937
January	47	74
February	56	94
March	72	84
April	72	136
May	119	223
June	118	356
July	164	409
Total	648	1,356
Total for the year	1,497	

Iron Ore Deposits in Manchoukuo and North China Iron ore deposits in Ja-

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pan proper and Korea are estimated at 200,000,000 tons and the domestic supply of iron ore meets but 24 per cent of the demand the remaining 76 per cent coming from abroad. With the increase of output in Manchoukuo Japan may reduce imports of the metal from Western countries to 50 per cent of the demand. The percentage is hoped to diminish still further with the exploitation of iron resources in North China. The total iron ore deposits in China and Manchoukuo were estimated at 1,000,000,000 tons according to "An Outline of Mining Industry in China," or 555,000,000 tons according to the "Iron Ore Deposits and Iron Industry of China" by F. R. Tegengren, and approximately 90 per cent of which is in the five provinces of North China and Manchoukuo. The quality of these ores is said to be poor and the results of their exploitation are regarded very uncertain. Nevertheless, Japan may be able to get a good supply of iron ore from these districts for years to come through the efforts of skilful engineers and the application of modern scientific methods.

SUPPLY AND DEMAND OF IRON ORES IN JAPAN PROPER

(In metric tons)

Year	Amount produced	Amount imported	Amount imported from Colonies	Amount exported to Colonies	Demand	Percentage of Production to Demand
1930	245,991	1,973,659	278,727	2,466	2,504,900	21½
1931	208,181	1,549,919	176,565	5,176	1,929,509	20
1932	226,722	1,432,409	151,603	4,200	1,856,400	20
1933	320,670	1,523,627	255,320	5,600	2,093,900	28
1934	431,600	2,131,916	180,500	5,500	2,738,500	22
1935	515,800	3,404,099	242,100	5,700	4,156,400	18
1936	620,400	3,780,100	242,700	—	4,643,200	19
1937 (up to July)	—	1,856,800	1,009,700	—	—	—

Pig Iron Pig iron is produced by Nippon Seitetsu Kabushiki Kaisha (Japan Iron Manufacturing Company). Coke is mostly used in its production, the amount produced with charcoal being so small that it is hardly worth mentioning. The amount of production classified according to the mode of production and raw materials from which it is produced is as follows:

Year	From Iron Ore		Reproduced	From Ores	Total
	With Coke	With Charcoal			
1927	884,341	—	10,905	925	896,171
1928	1,077,065	381	14,237	853	1,092,536
1929	1,065,908	2,000	19,138	82	1,087,138
1930	1,136,853	241	24,743	57	1,161,894
1931	896,445	—	20,897	—	917,342
1932	993,447	1,253	15,837	224	1,010,761
1933	1,403,502	—	19,924	463	1,423,889
1934	—	—	—	—	1,728,100
1935	—	—	—	—	1,906,700
1936	—	—	—	—	2,007,500

During the war, Japan had the bitter experience of having her supplies of iron and steel cut off from Great Britain and the United States of America, and in view of this the Nippon (then Yawata) Works has steadily extended its production capacity. The 1930 production was 2.5 times that of 1919.

Japan requires about 1,500,000 tons of pig iron every year. Her own production is not enough to meet this requirement and the shortage is filled by importing from Korea, Manchoukuo and India.

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PRODUCTION OF PIG IRON IN JAPAN AND MANCHOUKUO

(in metric tons)

Year	Production in Japan Proper	Production in Korea	Production in Manchoukuo	Total
1929	1,087,128	153,627	295,380	1,536,135
1930	1,161,894	349,415	150,524	1,661,833
1931	917,342	147,257	342,270	1,406,869
1932	1,010,761	161,940	368,181	1,540,882
1933	1,423,889	161,163	433,523	2,018,575
1934	1,714,417	175,502	471,715	2,361,634
1935	1,906,787	147,774	—	2,999,328
1936	2,007,500	—	649,800	3,102,400

SUPPLY AND DEMAND OF PIG IRON IN JAPAN

(in metric tons)

	1934	1935	1936	1937
Production in Japan Proper	1,728,100	1,906,700	2,007,500	—
Imports from Ceylon, Manchoukuo and India	778,400	1,092,500	1,094,800	583,200
Total supply	2,506,700	2,999,300	3,102,400	—
Exports to colonies	800	—	—	—
Demand in the country	2,501,300	2,998,000	3,101,500	—
Percentage of production to demand	92%	81%	77%	—

Steel and Steel Materials Steel ingots are produced mostly from pig iron, principally by the open-hearth process. The Bessemer process is sometimes employed by small mills, but the number of mills which use either this or the crucible method is small. Recently the electric process of production has been gaining ground. The amount of steel produced by different methods are shown below.

PRODUCTION OF STEEL INGOTS (in metric tons)

Method of Production	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935
Open hearth	2,238,198	2,225,451	1,828,823	2,325,306	3,456,347	3,633,610	4,459,737
Bessemer	1,210	35	—	940	—	—	—
Electric	52,654	62,140	52,765	69,740	137,600	208,790	241,649
Crucible	1,778	1,711	1,537	2,296	2,192	1,120	1,200
Total	2,293,840	2,289,337	1,883,125	2,398,282	3,596,139	3,843,520	4,702,586

Total production in Japan paoper and Korea for 1936 was 4,914,000 metric tons.

PRODUCTION OF STEEL MATERIALS

CLASSIFIED ACCORDING TO KINDS (in metric tons)

	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936
Round bars	683,841	483,556	467,333	568,446	846,997	778,451	1,015,744	1,582,133
Square „	255,553	250,753	202,509	252,402	331,439	430,321	467,836	
Thin plates	543,948	570,603	560,056	608,893	747,138	910,137	1,102,249	1,397,881
Steel pipes	78,492	88,336	63,491	95,890	117,287	136,969	166,682	188,659
Rails and fish plates	271,324	289,696	110,338	233,502	271,982	368,199	366,744	288,576
Wire rods	68,471	122,428	176,561	215,250	285,013	347,548	412,600	487,162
Black sheet	—	—	—	—	35,989	61,161	94,920	139,417
Others	26,048	31,709	21,513	36,724	53,110	63,522	107,994	—
Total	1,927,677	1,837,081	1,601,800	2,011,107	2,688,955	3,096,308	3,734,791	—
Wrought Steel materials	38,450	26,895	16,595	31,917	63,709	71,145	72,030	—
Cast steel	49,224	38,661	30,532	42,684	61,043	79,819	100,444	—
Special steel materials	18,529	18,429	13,931	27,929	49,448	57,912	72,088	—
Grand total	2,033,880	1,921,066	1,662,858	2,113,637	2,863,155	3,305,184	3,979,353	4,538,626

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The annual requirement of steel materials in Japan is about 3,500,000 tons. The production in the country has greatly increased of late and in 1935 and 1936 it was able to meet the domestic demand. The following statistics show how the demand is met.

SUPPLY AND DEMAND OF STEEL MATERIALS (in metric tons)

	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936
Production	1,662,858	2,113,637	2,863,155	3,805,184	3,976,000	4,538,500
Amount imported	265,548	235,165	409,862	426,658	357,100	344,900
Total supply	1,928,406	2,348,802	3,273,017	3,731,842	4,333,300	4,883,500
Amount exported	203,547	299,867	435,297	254,955	811,100	887,900
Home consumption	1,724,859	2,048,935	2,837,720	3,476,887	3,522,200	3,775,600
Percentage of production to consumption	96	103	101	95	114	115

Coal Mining

Coal surpasses all other mineral products both in quantity and money value, the 1936 production amounted to 41,803,000 metric tons with an aggregate of ¥305,537,000. Both the output and value for the year were the heaviest for 10 years since 1926. Compared with the 1935 production, the output gained 4,076,509 tons and the value ¥35,359,984.

The year 1936 was the most prosperous year for the coal industry. Details follow:

SUPPLY AND DEMAND OF COAL

(In metric tons)

	1935	1936	1937	1938
Coal actually marketed	37,762,000	41,000,000	38,941,000	42,495,000
Coal imported	4,049,000	4,189,000	4,429,000	3,741,000
Coal stocks at the beginning of	657,000	722,000	—	—
Total coal supply	42,468,000	45,911,000	—	—
Coal exported	1,019,000	1,112,000	1,024,000	769,000
Coal stocks at the end of	722,000	698,000	—	—
Coal demand in Japan Proper	40,727,000	44,101,000	42,607,000	45,477,000

Japan's coal production since 1913 follows:

(In 1,000 metric tons)

1913	21,315	1921	26,220	1929	34,257
1914	22,293	1922	27,701	1930	31,376
1915	20,490	1923	28,948	1931	27,987
1916	22,910	1924	30,110	1932	28,053
1917	26,361	1925	31,459	1933	32,523
1918	28,029	1926	31,426	1934	35,924
1919	31,271	1927	33,530	1935	37,762
1920	29,245	1928	33,860	1936	41,803

Business results of the coal-mining companies in recent years were:

Year	No. of companies	Authorized capital (In yen)	Reserve fund
1928	105	386,413,700	26,868,288
1931	87	865,800,700	30,149,827
1934	113	470,097,200	60,394,926
1937	184	620,964,906	85,004,467

	Net Profit (In yen)	Dividend	Net loss
1928	11,711,498	7,142,008	13,011,829
1931	4,424,070	4,183,130	5,654,419
1934	30,716,855	19,847,553	995,199
1937	50,082,609	31,368,706	2,342,734

Coal Deposits No survey of coal resources was undertaken between the years 1911 and 1931, but in the latter year the Mining Bureau of the Depart-

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ment of Commerce and Industry commenced a survey which took 2 years to complete. The results, compared with the 1911 survey, are :

Investigation in 1932

	Anthracite Natural Coal	Bituminous Coal	Lignite	Total	%
Amount, already mined	29,888	984,130	6,965	1,020,483	5
Amount, unminable	39,332	991,673	18,859	1,049,864	6
Amount, minable	718,782	15,499,091	472,460	16,671,333	89
Percentage	4%	93%	3%	100%	
Amount minable					
Actual deposits	454,745	5,439,905	65,765	5,960,415	36
Probable deposits	131,944	3,780,975	132,582	4,045,501	24
Possible deposits	132,093	6,278,211	275,113	6,685,417	40

Investigation in 1911

	Coal	Lignite	Total	%
Amount, already mined	283,200	—	283,200	3
Amount, unminable	—	—	—	—
Amount, minable	8,792,000	347,570	9,139,450	100
Percentage	86%	4%	100%	
Amount minable				
Actual deposite	822,000	75,770	897,770	10
Probable deposits	2,940,000	205,000	3,145,000	34
Possible deposits	5,030,000	66,700	5,096,700	56

Note: "Amount unminable" indicates the deposits, such as portions between pits, officially prohibited regions and where no pick is allowed.

"Probable deposits" as judged geologically and from conditions of coal seams and which can be presumed as available in future.

"Possible deposits" represent the deposits imagined to be there and are the most uncertain of all.

Petroleum

Production The home yield of crude oil until about 1916 was approximately 2,600,000 koku, by no means sufficient to satisfy domestic demand. Notwithstanding yearly increase in demand output was unable to keep pace with it so that by 1927 domestic production was only able to satisfy 25% of the home consumption. The percentage has since increased and in 1932 was about 44%.

According to investigations conducted by the Nippon Petroleum Oil Company, the most important producer of crude oil, wells with a daily output of 20 kilolitres (approximately 111 koku) and over numbered no more than the following 7.

Location	Name of Well	Date	Depth	Daily Output during 10 Days after Successful Date
Kashiwazaki	Warimachi Ro Style No. 3	Jan. 6	1,240 metres	24.64 kilolitres
„	Warimachi Ro Style No. 20	Feb. 11	1,246 „	27.13
„	Takamachi Ro Style No. 35	April 2	1,240 „	22.50
„	Takamachi Ro Style No. 36	April 24	1,240 „	34.08
„	Warimachi Ro Style No. 27	May 14	1,255 „	30.45
„	Warimachi Ro Style No. 14	June 11	1,325 „	32.88
„	Warimachi Ro Style No. 36	July 20	1,264 „	60.60

Supply and Demand One of the most conspicuous features in the oil production for the five years, 1931–1935 was the marked increase in the use of foreign crude oil in the manufacture of heavy oil. The amount for 1935 set an

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all-time record of 35,837,000 cases, one case being 9.5 gallons, far larger than the preceding four years. The supply of the heavy oil manufactured out of home crude oil for 1935 was fairly heavy, second in amount from a previous record of 3,017,310 hl. for 1931. For three years following 1931 the amount was falling, but the 1935 amount gained again, due to a rapid growth of demand at home. The amount of home consumption for 1936 was the heaviest known so far. Below are given detailed figures on the supply and demand of oil :

SUPPLY AND DEMAND OF OIL (in hl.)

(1 case=9.5 gallons)

Classification	Year	Production From Home Oil	Production Erom Foreign Oil	Total	Imports
Gasolene Oil	1932	628,474	3,105,810	3,734,284	4,401,440
	1933	394,737	3,533,429	3,928,166	4,625,860
	1934	349,470	4,436,050	4,785,520	5,505,290
	1935	436,760	5,341,710	5,778,470	5,925,440
	1936 (in case)	2,378,000	17,165,000	19,543,000	19,250,000
Kerosene Oil	1932	244,758	579,299	824,057	700,500
	1933	208,660	589,694	798,354	576,510
	1934	206,700	709,780	916,480	877,780
	1935	296,500	828,600	1,125,100	933,560
	1936 (in case)	1,228,000	2,063,000	3,831,000	2,526,000
Light Oil	1932	733,672	1,483,508	2,217,180	—
	1933	563,824	1,404,971	1,968,795	—
	1934	663,730	1,332,810	1,996,540	—
	1935	609,270	1,185,160	1,794,430	—
	1936 (in case)	1,375,000	2,789,000	4,164,000	222,000
Machine Oil	1932	511,969	1,133,088	1,645,057	353,890
	1933	455,520	1,555,840	2,011,360	241,140
	1934	592,160	1,761,540	2,353,700	389,620
	1935	743,510	1,631,610	2,375,120	425,290
	1936 (in case)	1,815,000	4,985,000	6,800,000	1,787,000
Heavy Oil	1932	205,354	507,623	712,977	12,996,530
	1933	214,203	1,062,168	1,276,371	13,016,430
	1934	376,020	1,870,990	2,247,010	16,165,550
	1935	853,190	2,438,240	3,291,430	20,959,990
	1936 (in case)	3,659,000	8,295,000	11,954,000	35,463,000
Total	1932	2,324,227	6,809,328	9,133,555	18,452,360
	1933	1,836,944	8,146,102	9,983,046	18,459,940
	1934	2,188,080	10,111,170	12,299,250	22,938,240
	1935	2,939,230	11,425,320	14,364,550	28,244,280
	1936 (in case)	10,455,000	35,837,000	46,291,000	59,248,000

SUPPLY AND DEMAND OF OIL (in hl.)

(1 case=9.5 gallons)

Classification	Year	Total	Exports	Balance Consumed at Home	Percentage of Production to Demand
Gasolene Oil	1932	8,135,724	—	8,135,724	45.9
	1933	8,554,026	—	8,554,026	45.9
	1934	10,290,810	—	10,290,810	47.0
	1935	11,703,910	27,180	11,676,730	49.0
	1936 (in case)	38,712,000	81,000	—	—
Kerosene Oil	1932	1,524,557	120,140	1,404,417	58.7
	1933	1,374,864	51,000	1,323,864	60.3
	1934	1,794,260	44,320	1,749,940	52.0
	1935	2,058,660	110,890	1,947,790	58.0
	1936 (in case)	5,493,000	864,000	—	—

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Classification	Year	Total	Export	Balance Consumed at Home	Percentage of Production to Demand
Light Oil	1932	2,217,180	—	2,217,180	100.0
	1933	1,968,795	—	1,968,795	100.0
	1934	1,996,540	—	1,996,540	100.0
	1935	1,794,430	—	1,794,430	100.0
	1936 (in case)	3,872,000	514,000	—	—
Machine Oil	1932	1,998,947	124,850	1,874,097	87.8
	1933	2,252,500	203,960	2,048,540	98.2
	1934	2,743,320	288,640	2,454,680	96.0
	1935	2,800,410	270,540	2,529,870	94.0
	1936 (in case)	8,134,000	453,000	—	—
Heavy Oil	1932	13,709,507	—	13,709,507	5.2
	1933	14,292,801	—	14,292,801	8.9
	1934	18,412,560	—	18,412,560	12.0
	1935	24,251,420	—	24,251,142	14.0
	1936 (in case)	47,331,000	86,000	—	—
Total	1932	27,535,915	244,990	27,340,925	33.4
	1933	28.442,986	254,960	28,188,026	35.4
	1934	35,237,490	332,960	34,904,530	35.0
	1935	42,608,830	408,590	42 200,240	34.0
	1936 (in case)	103,542,000	1,998,000	—	—

Artificial Petroleum In view of the necessity of developing artificial petroleum industry as a means of covering the shortage of the resources of natural petroleum in this country, the Government formulated a plan to establish a company with a capital of ¥100,000,000 to take charge of the task.

At present, the annual consumption of petroleum in this country amounts to approximately 3,000,000 metric tons, not including the demand of the Imperial Navy. As the domestic production still remains in the neighbourhood of 300,000 metric tons, the nation has to look for 90 per cent of its demand in foreign petroleum, mainly supplied by British and American oil interests. The policy for the compulsory storage of a fixed amount of oil by foreign oil concerns in the country is merely a negative meaure like the policy for economizing petroleum.

Compelled by the present extraordinary international situation to take positive measures, the Government has resolved to establish the artificial petroleum industry by three methods comprising technical assistance, financial assistance through government investments, and encouragement for products.

The Fuel Research Institute of the Ministry of Commerce and Industry, which is located at Kawaguchi City in Saitama Prefecture, has succeeded in its experiments aiming to transfer from the laboratory to the plant the manufacturing of artificial petroleum by the three processes of low temperature, dry distillation, direct liquefaction and synthesization of oils. This success has led to the decision to establish a model State-managed plant in the Hokkaido at a cost of some ¥20,000,000 as an enterprise spreading over a period of three years beginning with the 1937-38 fiscal year.

Unlike the private enterprises which have already been placed on industrial basis, the enterprise of the Ministry of Commerce and Industry, which is undertaken through the creation of a new department in the Fuel Research Institute, will be featured by an attempt to lower the production cost through rationally employing the aforementioned three processes. The minimum amount of annual production required for placing the enterprise on industrial basis is estimated at 20,000 tons. When this State enterprise proves successful, additional plants on the same scale are expected to be established in other suitable places.

It is to be noted that in undertaking to embark upon the enterprise, the Government also aims at the training of technicians to be charged with the task of guiding the private enterprises. In other words, the new department of the Fuel Research Institute will play the role of a pilot of new enterprises.

The organization of a ¥100,000,000 investment company as a semi-official concern was decided upon in view of the necessity of the Government extending financial aid to the industrialists for embarking upon the enterprises of national importance. According to the

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tentative plan, the new company will be called the Imperial Fuel Company and will aim at the annual production of 2,000,000 tons of artificial petroleum, including 1,000,000 tons of volatile oil and 1,000,000 tons of heavy oil.

This aim is to be attained through the execution of a seven-year programme. For this purpose, the Government has decided to authorize the new company to issue debentures to a total amount three times that of its capital (or five times in case the capital fails to reach ¥100,000,000 due to a curtailment of the budget estimates). In order to encourage private investments, it was also decided to gurantee a dividend of 3.5 per cent during the first three years and of 5 per cent later on for the private shares of the company, with the government shares receiving no dividend in case the profits of the company do not amount to 5 per cent.

With a view to the sound development of the artificial petroleum industry, the Government has decided to enforce a control through the adoption of the licensing system for the industry. Not only the enterprises to be launched in the future but the already commenced enterprises also are required to obtain the license so that they may enjoy the privilege of securing the investments of the semi-official investment company referred to above. It is estimated that all the enterprises will involve a huge sum of ¥700,000,000 upon the completion of the six-year programme, comprising ¥400,000,000 in the investments of the semi-official concern, ¥200,000,000 in the investments of enterprisers and ¥100,000,000 in the expenses for 10,000,000 tons of coal liquefaction to produce 2,000,000 tons of artificial petroleum.

The production costs of artificial petroleum products are estimated to average ¥0.8 per gallon under the existing circumstances while the present quotation of gasolene is ¥0.51. Through the imposition of a gasolene tax as well as the raising of the tariffs, the Government expects to advance the prices of petroleum by about ¥0.10 per gallon. This, however, would still leave a margin of around ¥0.20 between the production cost and market price and accordingly, the Government plans to adopt a compensation system.

Producers and Operatives

BUSINESS RESULTS OF MINING COMPANIES

Year	No. of Companies	Capital	Reserve	Net Profit	Dividend	Net Loss
			(In yen)			
1928	371	1,005,230,192	131,375,307	44,281,532	30,562,085	18,457,887
1929	394	1,060,690,693	116,771,370	57,316,880	34,158,513	19,019,463
1930	376	954,242,273	100,696,580	30,339,837	22,930,041	23,112,090
1931	383	961,868,883	97,793,798	19,027,144	15,651,820	15,857,406
1932	389	951,969,923	96,981,747	26,812,546	19,093,927	12,647,560
1933	427	975,954,664	96,736,497	50,605,374	31,914,230	5,509,475
1934	515	1,066,996,905	120,127,123	76,317,610	49,989,059	2,228,960
1935	611	1,269,098,458	141,984,183	98,089,442	63,862,501	3,250,888
1936	697	1,418,426,383	170,580,240	113,489,849	69,684,072	8,916,621
1937	836	1,758,504,011	210,737,740	131,457,216	85,221,659	7,027,587

MINING COMPANIES BY KINDS IN 1937

(Prepared by the Department of Commerce and Industry)

Kind of Mining	Number	Amount Invested and Authorized Capital	Reserve	Net Profit (in yen)	Dividend	Net Loss
Metal	298	879,704,717	73,724,015	62,086,186	41,585,974	3,833,579
Coal	184	620,964,906	85,004,467	50,082,609	31,368,706	2,342,734
Petroleum	33	177,340,000	47,396,120	14,556,197	9,097,706	49,988
Others	42	41,222,000	3,681,477	3,714,906	2,457,058	227,461
Stone	279	39,272,388	931,661	1,017,318	712,215	573,825
Total	836	1,758,504,011	210,737,740	131,457,216	85,221,659	7,027,587

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NUMBER OF OPERATIVES ENGAGED IN MINING

At the end of June	Under 16 years			16-50 years		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
1929	2,870	1,085	3,955	215,895	51,934	267,829
1930	2,224	879	3,103	200,687	41,114	241,801
1931	1,045	382	1,427	167,869	24,551	192,420
1932	759	293	1,052	158,635	19,991	178,626
1933	950	339	1,289	174,021	20,358	194,379
1934	1,197	375	1,572	204,484	22,927	227,411
1935	1,521	433	1,954	222,988	24,176	247,164

	Over 50 years			Total		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
1929	13,095	2,085	15,180	231,860	55,104	286,964
1930	11,925	1,640	13,565	214,836	43,633	258,469
1931	7,458	1,050	8,508	176,472	25,983	202,985
1932	5,515	647	6,162	164,909	20,931	185,840
1933	5,969	683	6,652	180,940	21,380	202,320
1934	6,670	694	7,374	212,351	23,996	236,347
1935	7,517	780	8,297	232,026	25,389	257,415
1936	—	—	—	249,182	25,512	274,694
1937	—	—	—	311,390	54,781	366,171

Note: Figures for 1936 are the results of actual spot investigation on October 10.

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CHAPTER XVIII

THE TEXTILE INDUSTRY

The number of operatives, mills, etc. for almost all kinds of textile industry in 1937 showed an increase over those of 1936, indicating that the industry as a whole was very prosperous in that year. The following table shows these figures :

NUMBERS OF OPERATIVES, MILLS, ETC. IN TEXTILE INDUSTRY IN 1937 AS COMPARED WITH THOSE IN 1936

Kind of Industry	No. of Mills		No. of Mills using Motors		No. of Officials		No. of Technician	
	1936	1937	1936	1937	1936	1937	1936	1937
Silk reeling	2,637	2,006	2,496	1,908	4,962	4,652	5,137	4,328
Spinning	638	782	633	773	4,325	4,428	3,440	3,485
Twisting	1,726	2,081	1,699	2,039	525	545	310	320
Weaving	15,028	16,034	14,163	15,125	6,775	7,303	4,668	4,472
Hosiery	1,679	1,960	1,451	1,650	1,088	1,113	634	627
Dyeing, refining, bleaching, assorting	3,307	3,680	2,483	2,701	4,029	4,170	2,544	2,561
Miscellaneous	1,343	1,590	1,217	1,432	1,000	1,193	456	589
Total	26,258	28,133	24,142	25,628	22,704	23,354	17,189	16,382

Kind of Industry	No. of Operatives Male		No. of Operatives Female		Others		Total Workers	
	1936	1937	1936	1937	1936	1937	1936	1937
Silk reeling	20,093	17,205	231,700	207,200	4,381	4,138	266,273	237,523
Spinning	36,661	34,360	223,682	229,353	8,439	8,974	276,547	280,600
Twisting	5,439	5,433	19,880	18,873	291	343	26,445	25,514
Weaving	64,888	64,989	300,219	315,300	4,796	5,536	381,346	397,600
Hosiery	9,595	10,029	17,306	20,477	372	403	28,995	32,649
Dyeing, refining, bleaching, assorting	59,644	60,725	13,409	15,687	2,195	2,304	81,821	85,447
Miscellaneous	7,349	8,614	18,052	24,265	404	639	27,261	35,250
Total	203,669	201,355	824,248	831,155	20,878	22,337	1,088,688	1,094,583

Note: Figures are for the factories where more than 5 operatives are employed.
Source: The "Factory Statistics".

Cotton Industry

The control imposed on imports of raw cotton necessitated a curtailment of over 43 per cent in spinning industry during 1938, and as a result, the exports of cotton tissues dwindled to 2,180,000,000 square yards, a decrease of 462,000,000 square yards or 17 per cent as compared with the previous year.

Business Results According to the report of the Japan Cotton Spinners' Association on the business results of 76 member companies for the first half of 1938 the paid-up capital reached to ¥604,629,000, and the shares and loans increased by 9 million yen to be invested in expanding the scope of the factories, extending busiess to North China, and developing side lines. Net profit, reserves, and the average rate of dividend all increased.

BUSINESS RESULTS OF COTTON SPINNING COMPANIES IN JAPAN PROPER

(76 Member Companies of the Japan Cotton Spinners' Association)

(In ¥1,000)

	First Half, 1937	First Half, 1938
Paid-up capital	512,988	604,629

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	First Half, 1937	First Half, 1938
Reserves	287,603	302,525
Debentures and debts	205,621	214,863
Fixed assets	732,392	792,225
Net profits	47,081	49,196
Rate of profit	18.4	16.2
Rate of dividend	12.4	12.9

The Cotton Industry in North China According to the 1937 statistics the area of land used for cotton cultivation in China totalled 3,500,000 hectares and production of raw cotton amounted to 14,000,000 tan (1 tan equals 60 kilograms) an amount which is equivalent to 12 per cent of the world's total production, and next to the United States and India in rank. The three provinces of Hopei, Shantung and Shanhsi are the main producing centres of North China whose average annual production is about 3,770,000 tan or 36 per cent of China's total. The area of land under cultivation and the cotton production of these three provinces for the past five years ending in 1936 are given in the table below.

CHINA'S COTTON CULTIVATION AND NORTH CHINA'S POSITION

	Land Under Cultivation (1,000 mu)			Cotton Production (1,000 tan)		
Year	China	3 Provinces of North China	Percentage of North China	China	3 Provinces of North China	Percentage of North China
1932	37,099	12,288	33.1%	8,160	3,206	38.3%
1933	40,454	12,790	31.6%	9,774	3,416	34.9%
1934	44,971	15,096	33.6%	11,203	4,771	42.6%
1935	35,026	9,185	26.2%	8,143	2,826	34.7%
1936	55,041	17,685	32.1%	14,430	4,750	32.9%
Average for five year	42,518	13,409	31.2%	10,331	3,774	36.5%

1 mu is equivalent to 1,000 square metres.

Statistics from S. M. R. North China Office, Hokushi Bosekigyo Kiso Shiryo (Source Book on the Spinning Industry in North China), 1938.

The question of increasing cotton production in North China has long been a matter of deep concern on the part of the proper authorities. Deliberations on the question have been going on for some time between the Provisional Government of Peking and the Japanese both of whom are represented in the Japan-China Economic Council, but of late cotton has been recognized "as a profitable agricultural product for native farmers and an important raw material for Japan." In line with this conclusion a policy for increasing production was adopted, execution of which will begin with the present year. The main points embodied in this plan are as follows:

1. In North China a plan calling for increasing cotton production to 10,000,000 tan per annum at the end of a period of 9 years beginning with 1938 will be carried out.

2. The area of land allotted for cotton cultivation will be increased to 30,000,000 mu. Much care will be taken to prevent the decrease which might occur in the cultivation of wheat and other grains in enlarging the area for cotton cultivation.

3. King's Improved and Tries will be selected for encouragement together with superior native varieties.

Parts of the plan to be carried out each year are given in the table below.

PROJECTED COTTON PRODUCTION FOR EACH YEAR

(In 1,000 tan)

	American Variety	Native Variety	Total
1938	2,246	1,958	4,204
1939	2,499	2,154	4,653
1940	2,803	2,369	5,171
1941	3,470	2,357	5,827
1942	4,199	2,343	6,542
1943	5,070	2,327	7,397
1944	5,972	2,310	8,282
1945	6,837	2,359	9,196
1946	7,665	2,335	10,000

The following are the points which will be carried out in the fulfillment of the policy.

1. To increase and encourage the cultivation of superior varieties.

2. To advance loans for the establish-

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ment of irrigation facilities.

3. Establishment of publicity and encouragement organs.

4. Strengthening of the supervisory system.

5. Improvement of farming methods and the eradication of pests and plant diseases.

6. Readjustment of land leases for small tenant farming, improvement of transportation facilities, rationalization of transportation rates, readjustment of the customs, encouragement of immigration, and the encouragement for increasing the production of foodstuffs.

The total estimated expenditure needed to carry out the Nine-Year Plan is approximately 29,128,000 yuan, while the establishment of irrigation facilities will require an additional 72,362,000 yuan which will bring the total well up to the 100,000,000 yuan mark.

Upon realization of the Plan cotton production subsequently boosted to 10,000,000 tan per annum, this amount will be apportioned as follows:

3,500,000 tan to be consumed by the spinning industry of North China which will have by then a total of 1,300,000 spindles.

Other local consumption—1,00,000 tan.

Upon the revival of the spinning industry, Central China is expected to demand 2,500,000 tan, leaving 3,000,000 tan available for exporting to Japan.

Encouragement and Experimental Facilities. With the unrestricted support of the Japanese authorities, the Provisional Government of Peking is working assiduously to complete its organization for the encouragement of the cotton industry, and other organs connected with the cotton policy. The various organizations are outlined briefly below.

1. North China Cotton Industry Association. The membership of this organization is composed of prominent Hopei, Shantung and Shanhsi men in the cotton industry and reorganized groups of provincial cotton encouragement organs, and has its headquarters in Peking. For some time in the past the Provisional Government has given assistance in the promotion of enterprises, financing and supervision in Shantung, Hopei and Shanhsi Provinces. This organization is semi-official in nature and is a juridical person of the Chinese Republic. Its capital is subscribed jointly by the Government and by the Japan-China Spinners' Association. It has invited Japanese experts to supervise cultivation, improve quality and to increase output. Through the Rural Agricultural Associations it distributes seeds of improved varieties, supervises cultivation and makes advances to those in need of funds.

2. North China Company. This organization was formed at Tientsin last spring as a cotton purchasing firm under the joint auspices of the Japan-China Spinners' Association and the Cotton Industry Association. At present it owns three press factories and engages in the distribution of seeds and the financing of rural cotton raising communities, but since its small capital of 3,000,000 yuan tends to limit its sphere of activities preparations to increase it to 60,000,000 yuan are now under way.

Agricultural Experiment Stations in North China. The experiment stations dealing with cotton and other agricultural products that have existed from pre-China Incident days are listed in the following paragraphs.

1. Tsung-hsien Cotton Experiment Station. This experiment station is located to the east of Peking and was founded by Yin Tung, chief of the former Pei-Ning Railway Bureau, who with the assistance of the Japanese (especially Dr. Yoshida) created the experiment station under the management of the Railway in 1934. The services of a Manchurian expert (Mr. Iwasaki) was acquired from the S.M.R. which has operated a long string of experiment and encouragement institutions. This expert selected the most suitable site for the purpose and with the completion of the buildings, the station was ready for real work in 1935.

Since the foundation of the station up to the outbreak of the China Incident a total of 6 Japanese instructors and experts have been dispatched but two out of this group gave their lives to their cause, the weather conditions being disagreeable. Thanks to the untiring services of the other 4 pioneers of peaceful industrial development and to the generous efforts of Chinese assistants good progress was made, but unfortunately a brutal fate had to befall upon all of them in the form of bloody Tsungchow massacre carried out by the Chinese soldiers. The loss of these men is a grievous matter for the Chinese themselves.

Since then more earnest assistance has been given by Japan and 14 Japanese experts (S.M.R. men) detailed to the station in November, 1937, have carried on the work, while buildings and lands have been readjusted and a new entomology section created. Twenty-

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PRODUCTION OF COTTON YARNS IN JAPAN PROPER

(Compiled by the Ministry of Commerce and Industry)

Year	No. of Mills (At the end of Year)	No. of Operatives (At the end of Year)	Production Quantity (In metric ton)	Production Value (In ¥1,000)
1933	344	140,274	568,034	677,511
1934	417	170,114	635,385	795,686
1935	443	168,800	646,756	806,346
1936	473	183,504	673,124	830,909
1937	599	183,354	721,904	1,044,077

Source: The "Factory Statistics."

PRODUCTION OF COTTON TISSUES IN JAPAN PROPER

(Compiled by the Ministry of Commerce and Industry)

Year	No. of Mills	No. of Looms (At the end of Year)	No. of Operatives	Value of Production (Unit: ¥1,000)
1933	53,642	362,866	216,325	704,893
1934	51,139	376,704	224,645	816,361
1935	48,389	385,980	229,707	822,417
1936	46,915	392,941	239,881	883,341
1937	41,513	407,520	234,034	1,112,685

Note: Figures include production by small factories which employ less than 5 persons, and differ from those given in the "Factory Statistics."

SUPPLY AND DEMAND OF COTTON TISSUES IN JAPAN PROPER

	Production			Consumption	
	Total Production (Broad Weaves)	Production by Spinning Companies (In 1,000 yards)	Production in Weaving Districts	Exports (In 1,000 sq. yards)	Home Consumption (In 1,000 yards)
1929	2,647,524	1,538,249	1,109,275	1,790,560	856,964
1930	2,615,411	1,388,423	1,226,988	1,571,825	1,043,586
1931	2,840,161	1,404,668	1,435,493	1,413,780	1,426,381
1932	3,100,130	1,532,850	1,567,280	2,031,722	1,068,408
1933	3,610,577	1,713,878	1,896,699	2,090,228	1,522,138
1934	4,057,979	1,793,843	2,264,136	2,577,237	1,606,079
1935	4,112,111	1,843,471	2,268,640	2,725,109	1,400,759
1936	3,973,479	1,799,033	1,780,972	2,709,885	1,269,692
1937	4,212,825	1,890,554	2,322,262	2,644,029	1,577,175
1938	3 101,028	1,461,649	1,639,379	2,180,810	920,218

EXPORTS OF COTTON TISSUES

(In 1,000 sq. yards)

	1933	1934	1935	1936	1937	1938
Manchoukuo	8,971	91,911	170,430	161,283	223,775	135,157
China	113,248	59,443	56,046	37,329	45,098	110,644
Kwantung L. T.	83,529	68,087	127,097	117,607	117,607	58,328
Hong-Kong	28,692	36,292	49,384	84,656	40,138	23,091
British India	451,791	451,640	561,510	479,676	331,190	469,880
Straits Settlements	95,769	90,989	47,359	48,208	51,784	26,294
Dutch East Indies	422,755	440,870	372,242	351,718	434,392	206,436
Philippines	34,918	75,709	87,481	44,314	54,174	32,677
Siam	39,826	60,555	70,012	72,186	71,815	79,946
Turkey	11,157	7,835	19,480	26,521	14,451	12,716
Canea, Uganda and Tanganyika	—	—	—	100,386	103,098	85,071

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	1933	1934	1935	1936	1937	1938
Anglo-Egyptian Sudan	—	—	—	62,572	76,660	78,711
Syria	—	—	—	45,798	48,860	55,696
Iraq	—	—	—	55,438	47,623	53,613
Aden	—	—	—	59,474	55,450	41,243
Iran	—	—	—	8,231	9,005	16,817
Arabia	—	—	—	12,753	17,324	24,244
Ceylon	—	—	—	9,152	11,285	19,122
Germany	—	—	—	26,846	20,269	20,003
Mozambique	—	—	—	9,809	14,459	11,054
Sweden	—	—	—	9,537	14,720	14,808
Venezuela	—	—	—	26,664	21,177	11,978
Great Britain	—	—	—	19,059	24,155	16,587
U. S. A.	7,485	17,370	48,336	73,444	123,775	16,115
Chile	6,534	31,737	26,838	32,845	36,402	21,036
Argentine	34,942	66,365	103,377	82,169	131,008	66,544
Uruguay	2,611	9,559	4,664	10,933	20,946	10,152
Egypt	210,349	233,686	163,737	101,219	49,685	21,417
Union of South Africa	26,101	16,173	26,239	29,713	32,809	26,169
Australia	54,999	74,547	86,634	20,059	52,528	64,394
New Zealand	2,622	2,835	5,446	12,287	11,208	9,590
Others and Total	2,090,230	2,577,237	2,725,109	2,709,884	2,644,028	2,180,810
Value (¥1,000)	383,215	492,351	496,097	483,592	573,065	404,240

Silk Textile Industry

Silk Weaving Districts As early as the days of the Emperor Suinin, about 1,960 years ago, weaving was already carried on, on a fairly large scale, under encouragement of the Imperial Court. During the Yedo Age the weaving industry made marked development as one of the most important domestic industries. The Ryomo district, which is one of the chief weaving districts for silk textiles for domestic use, has been known as a very prosperous weaving centre for centuries. This district is in Gumma and Tochigi prefectures and includes great weaving centres such as Ashikaga, Kiryu, Isézaki, Sano and Tatebayashi. The district may be likened to Paterson, New Jersey, U.S.A.

Another important weaving district is Fukui, followed by Kyoto, Ishikawa, Niigata and Tokyo in the order named. Among silk weaves of Japanese manufacture habutaé, taffeta, popline, chiffon, pongee, fuji silk, crêpe, etc, are well-known abroad. In addition to these, however, there are many varieties, which are used by the Japanese at home, but these weaves are generally of narrow width, omeshi, ro, sha, meisen, nishijin, etc.

The Industry in 1937 Continued prosperity featured the silk weaving industry in Japan in 1937, but exports decreased to ¥49,352,000 from ¥72,286,000 of 1936, largely owing to the state control of trade and the barriers set up by various foreign markets.

The number of mills was 65,552, a decrease of 7,047 as compared with the previous year, but that of looms increased by 9,895, indicating the increase of larger mills. The number of operatives also decreased by 16,067.

Production of Silk Weaves Owing to the increase in consumption at home production showed gains. Total production in 1937 was valued at ¥721,447,826, a gain of ¥58,314,297 or 8.7 per cent over the previous year. Of the total, crêpes amounted to ¥109,141,110 and showed an increase of ¥17,166,588 over 1936; habutaé totalled ¥29,319,154, a decrease of ¥2,678,964; and fuji silk ¥22,764,177 with a slight gain. Production of silk textiles since 1930 follows:

PRODUCTION OF SILK TEXTILES

(Compiled by the Ministry of Commerce and Industry)

Broad Weaves

Year	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936	1937
No. of Mills	79,864	77,723	72,448	71,273	72,907	72,311	72,599	65,552
No. of Looms	226,185	232,443	245,689	260,377	301,721	334,845	369,319	379,214

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one Chinese who are cooperating heartily in the work have been added to the staff.

Today this station is carrying on experiments to produce high grade seeds and to improve cultivation methods, while fertilizers and irrigation matters are also receiving due attention. In addition wheat, kenaff and other grains are being studied, and the eradication as well as the prevention of insect pests are occupying much of the experimenters' time. The benefits which the general farmers of North China will shortly receive from the enthusiastic work of the station will be great indeed.

2. Peking Municipal Agricultural Experiment Station. 64 chobu of land (1 chobu is equal to 2.45 acres or 99.17 ares). Director—Mayor of Peking. 6 sections.

3. First Provincial Agricultural Experiment Station of Hopei at Tientsin. Yearly expenditure—4,000 to 6,000 yuan. 10 persons on staff.

4. Hantan Second Station—yearly expenditure—4,000 to 5,000 yuan. Personnel—8.

5. Tsohochen Third Station—Personnel —8. Yearly expenditure—4,000 to 5,000 yuan.

6. Titan Fourth Station—Annual expenditure—3,000 yuan. Personnel—6.

7. Lifen Cotton Experiment Station. Unknown.

8. Linching Cotton Experiment Station. Unknown.

9. Chengting National Cotton Experiment Station. Unknown.

10. Tsitung National Cotton Experiment Station. Unknown.

11. Tsinan Agricultural Experiment Station. Unknown.

12. Ting-hsien Experiment Station for Public Enlightenment.

With the outbreak of hostilities, the responsible persons of these experiment stations fled into safer regions carrying with them all valuable material and documents. Then came the anti-Japanese elements who utilized these stations for military purposes and left only the wrecks as reminders of what had existed before. No information regarding these stations was available under such conditions but with the coming of the Japanese anything that can still be used are being put in order. Before long the former stations will be in working order again.

SPINNERS' CAPITAL AND EQUIPMENT

At the end of	Cos.	Paid Cap. (000s)	Reserves (000s)	Mills	Ring Spindles	Mule Spindles	Doubling Spindles	Looms
1919	54	165,758	139,074	190	3,435,932	52,330	410,690	44,401
1920	56	276,536	165,697	198	3,761,250	52,330	466,460	50,583
1921	61	295,648	182,041	217	4,116,616	44,510	533,384	54,994
1922	64	317,148	202,774	235	4,472,112	45,500	602,032	60,765
1923	70	376,273	217,408	241	4,422,428	14,370	510,031	64,460
1924	69	398,163	219,043	247	5,100,036	25,150	685,995	68,579
1925	64	382,715	223,531	243	5,413,094	34,090	759,632	73,381
1926	64	391,305	231,149	247	5,644,772	35,080	789,668	77,043
1927	64	391,551	238,367	257	6,079,272	36,994	787,490	78,352
1928	70	419,792	249,679	259	6,425,500	41,674	804,520	81,209
1929	70	429,415	259,757	258	6,795,502	41,014	808,324	77,898
1930	74	425,346	252,095	263	7,171,527	42,474	803,094	79,466
1931	72	398,855	240,828	263	7,498,152	36,994	801,594	77,782
1932	71	397,675	245,940	265	7,929,530	35,320	810,492	79,277
1933	69	403,899	255,398	268	8,608,608	35,320	842,808	86,343
1934	61	438,573	273,315	275	9,495,254	35,320	868,440	91,146
1935	74	440,255	276,898	276	10,197,124	35,320	868,304	89,325
1936(June)	75	455,640	278,307	285	10,989,900	—	—	98,000
1937(„)	74	512,988	287,603	282	12,190,800	—	—	104,600
1938(„)	76	604,629	302,525	296	12,776,200	—	—	114,300

Note: In 1923 and in the years following, all figures include spinners not members of the Japan Cotton Spinners' Association. It must be noted that the looms include only those which are owned by spinners, not embracing those in mills which have no spinning equipment.

Source: The report of the Japan Cotton Spinners' Association.

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JAPANESE SPINNING MILLS IN CHINA AND MANCHOUKUO

End of June	No. of Companies	Mills	Spindles	Looms	End of June	No. of Companies	Mills	Spindles	Looms
1934	15	40	1,880.3	19.3	1937	15	45	2,291.4	33.3
1935	15	43	1,934.0	21.8	1938	16	54	2,110.1	25.8
1936	15	45	2,033.7	25.7					

RAW COTTON IMPORTS

(Compiled by the Finance Ministry)

(In piculs and ¥1,000)

	1936		1937		1938	
	Volume	Value	Volume	Value	Volume	Value
U. S. A.	5,928,746	372,415	4,223,964	306,388	3,248,976	166,414
British India	6,716,944	315,061	7,016,238	363,635	3,096,085	113,331
Egypt	445,463	36,415	670,390	58,759	404,720	27,530
China	463,944	22,778	400,824	23,609	1,432,414	71,790
Others	1,646,071	103,782	1,453,497	98,772	1,196,259	57,770
Total	15,211,168	850,452	13,764,913	851,163	9,378,454	436,835

CONSUMPTION OF COTTON

(Compiled by the Japan Cotton Spinners' Association)

(In kilogrammes)

	Indian	American	Chinese	Egyptian	African
1928	231,727,684	232,100,809	27,636,750	12,748,245	3,989,411
1929	291,836,453	256,534,391	13,156,298	13,905,904	5,572,560
1930	284,672,288	212,634,672	5,190,675	11,585,719	4,162,196
1931	263,497,489	255,348,623	1,179,784	14,721,146	1,132,088
1932	150,411,008	412,251,821	920,678	16,970,179	74,254
1933	209,200,192	394,741,935	3,563,944	18,438,758	5,023,702
1934	276,035,861	388,724,040	5,173,796	24,023,621	8,429,535
		(In piculs)			
1935	5,088,775	6,341,538	32,992	513,186	66,647
1936	5,467,371	5,209,641	159,670	478,053	283,951
1937	6,082,000	5,239,000	250,000	920,000	—

	Annamese	Chosenese	Others	Total
1928	754,478	5,013,551	3,206,689	517,177,616
1929	259,620	6,747,870	3,293,085	591,306,180
1930	876,334	9,194,138	2,871,536	531,187,558
1931	552,548	6,389,591	2,194,039	545,015,308
1932	218,708	2,292,566	3,239,450	586,398,664
1933	260,933	7,556,580	4,909,466	643,695,510
1934	583,740	7,306,260	10,634,134	720,910,937

(In piculs)

			Iranian	Persian	Perniran	Brozilian	Miscellaneous	
1935	2,168	167,619	18,914	24,358	60,837	7,576	96,838	12,520,056
1936	2,529	231,676	22,969	8,029	99,934	374,883	210,536	12,670,325
1937	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	13,845,000

PRODUCTION, CONSUMPTION, IMPORTS AND EXPORTS OF COTTON YARNS SINCE 1933

(In bales)

Year	Domestic Output	Imports	Exports	Exported as Cotton Tissues	Domestic Consumption
1933	3,099,856	58,966	48,307	1,491,656	1,632,994
1934	3,462,442	54,517	64,844	1,866,542	1,585,799
1935	3,559,051	17,514	95,583	1,940,400	1,545,425
1936	3,607,196	14,119	110,833	1,921,920	1,591,162
1937	4,010,576	10,877	128,908	1,890,690	1,949,981
1938	2,859,022	1,868	105,265	1,766,802	988,575

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PRODUCTION OF COTTON YARNS IN JAPAN PROPER

(Compiled by the Ministry of Commerce and Industry)

Year	No. of Mills (At the end of Year)	No. of Operatives (At the end of Year)	Production Quantity (In metric ton)	Value (In ¥1,000)
1933	344	140,274	568,034	677,511
1934	417	170,114	635,385	795,686
1935	443	168,800	646,756	806,346
1936	473	183,504	673,124	830,909
1937	599	183,354	721,904	1,044,077

Source: The "Factory Statistics."

PRODUCTION OF COTTON TISSUES IN JAPAN PROPER

(Compiled by the Ministry of Commerce and Industry)

Year	No. of Mills	No. of Looms (At the end of Year)	No. of Operatives	Value of Production (Unit: ¥1,000)
1933	53,642	362,866	216,325	704,893
1934	51,139	376,704	224,645	816,361
1935	48,389	385,980	229,707	822,417
1936	46,915	392,941	239,881	883,341
1937	41,513	407,520	234,034	1,112,685

Note: Figures include production by small factories which employ less than 5 persons, and differ from those given in the "Factory Statistics."

SUPPLY AND DEMAND OF COTTON TISSUES IN JAPAN PROPER

	Production			Consumption	
	Total Production (Broad Weaves)	Production by Spinning Companies (In 1,000 yards)	Production in Weaving Districts	Exports (In 1,000 sq. yards)	Home Consumption (In 1,000 yards)
1929	2,647,524	1,538,249	1,109,275	1,790,560	856,964
1930	2,615,411	1,388,423	1,226,988	1,571,825	1,043,586
1931	2,840,161	1,404,668	1,435,493	1,413,780	1,426,381
1932	3,100,130	1,532,850	1,567,280	2,031,722	1,068,408
1933	3,610,577	1,713,878	1,896,699	2,090,228	1,522,138
1934	4,057,979	1,793,843	2,264,136	2,577,237	1,606,079
1935	4,112,111	1,843,471	2,268,640	2,725,109	1,400,759
1936	3,973,479	1,799,033	1,780,972	2,709,885	1,269,692
1937	4,212,825	1,890,554	2,322,262	2,644,029	1,577,175
1938	3,101,028	1,461,649	1,639,379	2,180,810	920,218

EXPORTS OF COTTON TISSUES

(In 1,000 sq. yards)

	1933	1934	1935	1936	1937	1938
Manchoukuo	8,971	91,911	170,430	161,283	223,775	135,157
China	113,248	59,443	56,046	37,329	45,098	110,644
Kwantung L. T.	83,529	68,087	127,097	117,607	117,607	58,328
Hong-Kong	28,692	36,292	49,384	84,656	40,138	23,091
British India	451,791	451,640	561,510	479,676	331,190	469,880
Straits Settlements	95,769	90,989	47,359	48,208	51,784	26,294
Dutch East Indies	422,755	440,870	372,242	351,718	434,392	206,436
Philippines	34,918	75,709	87,481	44,314	54,174	32,677
Siam	39,826	60,555	70,012	72,186	71,815	79,946
Turkey	11,157	7,835	19,480	26,521	14,451	12,716
Canea, Uganda and Tanganyika	—	—	—	100,386	103,098	85,071

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	1933	1934	1935	1936	1937	1938
Anglo-Egyptian Sudan	—	—	—	62,572	76,660	78,711
Syria	—	—	—	45,798	48,860	55,696
Iraq	—	—	—	55,438	47,623	53,613
Aden	—	—	—	59,474	55,450	41,243
Iran	—	—	—	8,231	9,005	16,817
Arabia	—	—	—	12,753	17,324	24,244
Ceylon	—	—	—	9,152	11,285	19,122
Germany	—	—	—	26,846	20,269	20,003
Mozambique	—	—	—	9,809	14,459	11,054
Sweden	—	—	—	9,537	14,720	14,808
Venezuela	—	—	—	26,664	21,177	11,978
Great Britain	—	—	—	19,059	24,155	16,587
U. S. A.	7,485	17,370	48,336	73,444	123,775	16,115
Chile	6,534	31,737	26,838	32,845	36,402	21,036
Argentine	34,942	66,365	103,377	82,169	131,008	66,544
Uruguay	2,611	9,559	4,664	10,933	20,946	10,152
Egypt	210,349	233,686	163,737	101,219	49,685	21,417
Union of South Africa	26,101	16,173	26,239	29,713	32,809	26,169
Australia	54,999	74,547	86,634	20,059	52,528	64,394
New Zealand	2,622	2,835	5,446	12,287	11,208	9,590
Others and Total	2,090,230	2,577,237	2,725,109	2,709,884	2,644,028	2,180,810
Value (¥1,000)	383,215	492,351	496,097	483,592	573,065	404,240

Silk Textile Industry

Silk Weaving Districts As early as the days of the Emperor Suinin, about 1,960 years ago, weaving was already carried on, on a fairly large scale, under encouragement of the Imperial Court. During the Yedo Age the weaving industry made marked development as one of the most important domestic industries. The Ryomo district, which is one of the chief weaving districts for silk textiles for domestic use, has been known as a very prosperous weaving centre for centuries. This district is in Gumma and Tochigi prefectures and includes great weaving centres such as Ashikaga, Kiryu, Isézaki, Sano and Tatebayashi. The district may be likened to Paterson, New Jersey, U.S.A.

Another important weaving district is Fukui, followed by Kyoto, Ishikawa, Niigata and Tokyo in the order named. Among silk weaves of Japanese manufacture habutaé, taffeta, popline, chiffon, pongee, fuji silk, crêpe, etc, are well-known abroad. In addition to these, however, there are many varieties, which are used by the Japanese at home, but these weaves are generally of narrow width, omeshi, ro, sha, meisen, nishijin, etc.

The Industry in 1937 Continued prosperity featured the silk weaving industry in Japan in 1937, but exports decreased to ¥49,352,000 from ¥72,286,000 of 1936, largely owing to the state control of trade and the barriers set up by various foreign markets.

The number of mills was 65,552, a decrease of 7,047 as compared with the previous year, but that of looms increased by 9,895, indicating the increase of larger mills. The number of operatives also decreased by 16,067.

Production of Silk Weaves Owing to the increase in consumption at home production showed gains. Total production in 1937 was valued at ¥721,447,826, a gain of ¥58,314,297 or 8.7 per cent over the previous year. Of the total, crêpes amounted to ¥109,141,110 and showed an increase of ¥17,166,588 over 1936; habutaé totalled ¥29,319,154, a decrease of ¥2,678,964; and fuji silk ¥22,764,177 with a slight gain. Production of silk textiles since 1930 follows:

PRODUCTION OF SILK TEXTILES

(Compiled by the Ministry of Commerce and Industry)

Broad Weaves

Year	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936	1937
No. of Mills	79,864	77,723	72,448	71,273	72,907	72,311	72,599	65,552
No. of Looms	226,185	232,443	245,689	260,377	301,721	334,845	369,319	379,214

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Year	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936	1937
No. of Operatives	206,542	213,285	224,561	236,997	267,345	290,912	310,359	294,292
Crêpes and Kabe-ori								
Qt'y in 1,000 metres	32,233	34,646	45,812	85,385	124,950	179,348	231,376	284,122
Value in ¥1,000	33,606	27,964	33,546	66,105	73,721	82,973	91,974	109,141
Habutaé								
Qt'y in 1,000 metres	45,545	31,213	36,060	48,735	109,110	81,858	127,171	102,547
Value in ¥1,000	21,434	11,907	13,273	19,281	27,174	21,888	31,998	29,31
Pongee								
Qt'y in 1,000 metres	20,665	33,071	32,550	35,636	37,109	22,807	15,258	19,062
Value in ¥1,000	7,091	9,655	11,164	12,699	10,790	6,838	4,634	6,532
Fuji silk								
Qt'y in 1,000 metres	51,320	51,551	56,619	65,945	59,439	50,866	41,517	43,464
Value in ¥1,000	26,862	24,851	28,896	33,216	31,155	27,804	22,718	22,764
Satin								
Qt'y in 1,000 metres	21,581	25,490	45,799	45,527	74,577	91,087	89,556	86,617
Value in ¥1,000	16,653	14,268	20,048	21,904	26,546	26,790	27,361	27,473
Others & total								
Value in ¥1,000	150,657	137,251	175,640	235,902	273,097	283,420	311,842	366,580

Narrow Weaves

Year	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936	1937
Omeshi								
Qt'y in 1,000 tan	1,208	1,783	2,102	1,493	1,783	2,095	2,529	3,744
Value in ¥1,000	17,954	22,577	21,195	15,809	17,398	19,975	17,945	19,640
Crêpes and Kabé								
Qt'y in 1,000 tan	7,248	10,659	9,611	10,979	15,199	17,865	19,321	16,466
Value in ¥1,000	59,511	67,670	60,982	69,207	93,761	101,236	100,246	84,600
Habutaé, etc.								
Qt'y in 1,000 tan	3,986	3,701	3,495	2,911	3,748	4,688	3,170	3,654
Value in ¥1,000	24,158	20,475	20,241	17,553	19,389	23,365	16,955	16,871
Ro and Sha								
Qt'y in 1,000 tan	1,368	1,347	2,139	1,894	2,717	2,567	3,175	3,372
Value in ¥1,000	11,111	8,352	12,231	11,319	12,868	12,367	13,279	13,180
Meisen, etc.								
Qt'y in 1,000 tan	14,432	13,526	12,601	12,117	12,735	11,205	10,639	11,889
Value in ¥1,000	68,500	57,017	48,132	46,096	49,641	44,907	42,525	48,278
Others & total								
Value in ¥1,000	209,774	207,898	198,869	197,349	234,353	242,750	236,996	228,279
Special Weaves								
Value in ¥1,000	31,175	31,599	33,351	30,931	47,091	53,053	53,101	49,402
Total of Silk Textiles								
Value in ¥1,000	391,606	376,749	407,860	464,183	554,542	579,223	601,940	644,262
Silk-Cotton Mixtures								
Value in ¥1,000	33,532	30,107	31,159	36,912	46,328	53,709	61,192	77,185
Grand total								
Value in ¥1,000	425,138	406,857	439,019	501,095	600,870	632,933	663,133	721,447

Note: Figures given here show products by all mills, regardless of the size of mills, or the number of operatives employed.

EXPORTS OF SILK TEXTILES

Kind		1935	1936	1937	1938
Habutaé	quantity in 1,000 sq.-yds.	20,840	26,664	39,318	39,597
	value in ¥1,000	9,844	10,340	17,393	15,492
Satin	quantity in 1,000 sq.-yds.	6,279	5,790	2,969	2,705
	value in ¥1,000	4,043	3,281	1,953	1,996
Fuji silk	quantity in 1,000 sq.-yds.	22,973	23,426	23,101	9,834
	value in ¥1,000	13,670	13,573	14,902	6,841

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Kind		1935	1936	1937	1938
Crêpes	quantity in 1,000 sq.-yds.	50,476	42,173	40,692	26,440
	value in ¥1,000	38,827	31,274	30,831	19,477
Pongee	quantity in 1,000 sq.-yds.	17,093	9,191	10,301	6,121
	value in ¥1,000	5,085	2,976	3,679	2,088
Others and Total	Value in ¥1,000	77,444	68,027	72,286	49,352

Rayon and Staple Fibre

Rayon and Staple Fibre Industry

According to an authentic estimate, the world production of rayon and staple fibre in 1937 reached 1,725,000,000 lbs., showing an increase of 300,000,000 lbs. over the previous year. Of the total amount of the world's output of these two commodities Japan produced 504,000,000 lbs. including 330,000,000 lbs. of rayon and 174,000,000 lbs. of staple fibre. It represents 29 per cent of the world production, putting Japan at the head of the rayon producing countries. The rate of increase in Japan's rayon exports was hampered by the adverse measures adopted by various countries and the occurrence of the China Affiar. Yet the total amount of exports of rayon yarn, tissues and other rayon products reached ¥235,000,000, placing rayon next only to cotton textiles and raw silk in Japan's export trade. Efforts were made, in 1937, for the improvement of the quality of rayon and for making up the decrease in exports of rayon tissues by an increase in exports of rayon yarns. In the second half of 1937 various difficulties cropped up in the relation between demand and supply on account of various adverse conditions, causing an unprecedented curtailment of operation in mills to the extent of 59 per cent toward the end of the year. The business results of rayon companies had been very encouraging through the second half of 1936 and the first half of 1937.

The control measures employed by the Government in 1937 on importation of goods, foreign exchange and distribution of capital in the country rendered it difficult for the rayon industry to make a headway, especially because of the dependence of this country on foreign pulp. However, Government regulation requiring the mixing of staple fibre with cotton and wool provided an impetus for the expansion of staple fibre industry, and the number of the companies concerned which received permission for collecting payment on shares and for raising funds for expanding the industry reached 36 and the aggregate expansion in funds amounted to ¥160,000,000 by the end of 1937.

With the progress of wartime measures in the country a thorough coordination of all companies and associations of spinning, weaving and dyeing industries was insisted upon and control measures were strengthened. By the establishment of the so-called planned economy which has required the curtailment of cotton and wool imports, it is intended to readjust international payments and to encourage the domestic production of pulp required for the staple fibre industry so as to make Japan self-sufficient with regard to the material within a five-year period according to a programme drawn out for the purpose.

Rayon Yarn

On account of economic and trade control the production and exports of rayon yarn in 1938 dwindled to a considerable extent as it is shown in the following table:

SUPPLY AND DEMAND OF RAYON YARN

(In cases. One case=100 pounds)

Year	Production	Imports	Exports	Exported as textiles	Domestic Consumption
1934	1,584,951	664	222,241	571,541	791,833
1935	2,230,215	433	304,279	701,273	1,225,096
1936	2,765,051	238	443,371	873,017	1,443,901
1937	3,247,496	638	564,158	801,409	1,882,567
1938	1,991,661	99	219,847	560,201	1,211,724

Note: Figures are based on the report of the Japan Rayon Manufacturers' Association

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EXPORTS OF RAYON YARN

(In case of 100 lbs.)

	1934	1935	1936	1937	1938
China and Hong-Kong	24,786.0	38,230	36,011	61,763	86,641
Manchoukuo and Kwantung	81,858.0	71,878	131,597	16,733	27,734
India	84,303.5	101,331	141,124	306,702	60,468
Dutch East Indies	3,000.0	6,989	12,638	33,676	6,442
South Sea Region	6,940.3	12,315	18,060	29,307	3,507
Europe	1,212.6	8,922	18,949	7,370	2,388
North America	9.5	3,418	6,798	3,215	322
Central America	15,329.8	23,769	38,168	72,041	17,596
South America	500.3	10,768	4,706	11,336	905
Egypt and Africa	3,198.0	11,111	18,852	15,340	6,257
Australia and New Zealand	449.9	15,548	16,468	6,675	7,587
Others	183.8	—	—	—	—
Total	221,771	304,279	443,371	564,158	219,847
Total Value (in ¥1,000)	22,397	22,852	39,170	44,792	17,845

Note: Figures of the Japan Rayon Manufacturers' Association

Rayon Tissues The production of rayon tissues in 1938 was valued at ¥376,102,000, showing a decrease of ¥96,838,000 or 20.4 per cent from the previous year.

PRODUCTION OF RAYON TISSUES

(Compiled by the Ministry of Commerce and Industry)

(In ¥1,000)

	Pure and Mixed with Silk			Mixed with			Total including others
	Broad Weave	Narrow Weave	Special Weave	Cotton	Hemp	Wool	
1935	147,388	38,840	27,409	35,151	27	30,847	279,664
1936	208,346	64,276	34,298	58,957	101	35,969	384,001
1937	269,865	74,149	41,425	50,057	902	40,032	472,940
1938	219,925	58,666	31,766	31,032	34,713		376,102

EXPORTS OF RAYON FABRICS

(In 1,000 square yards)

	1934	1935	1936	1937	1938
China and Hong-Kong	2,323.9	13,037.9	28,677	32,389	29,565
Manchoukuo and Kwantung	16,344.1	28,343.3	58,814	46,520	96,954
India	76,283.4	74,670.8	92,081	94,854	32,448
Dutch East Indies	46,726.1	49,987.3	51,556	46,780	26,688
Other Asiatic Countries	36,361.4	63,242.6	87,809	84,091	40,096
Europe	5,301.4	11,892.8	21,401	19,600	10,241
North America	852.1	1,455.4	5,289	8,000	4,112
Central America.	20,743.8	15,565.7	23,328	21,908	14,389
South America	13,382.5	20,838.4	28,626	18,402	7,611
Egypt and Africa	68,156.7	69,878.3	56,667	55,718	24,710
Australia and New Zealand	46,402.1	75,228.7	73,694	56,837	49,645
Total including others	345,655	424,000.0	527,942	485,098	337,122
Total Value (in ¥1,000)	113,484	128,260	149,170	154,660	115,762

Note: Figures of the Japan Rayon Manufacturers' Association

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Staple Fibre

Staple fibre became the most favoured among the industrial products of the country on account of its usefulness as a substitute for cotton and wool. The Government is encouraging its production by issuing laws and regulations, making it exempt from consumption tax and requiring its mixture with cotton and woollen yarns. Accordingly, the production of staple fibre in 1937 increased remarkably. It amounted to 175,000,000 lbs., three-and-half times as much as that of 1936 which had amounted to 45,850,000 lbs. Japan is next to Germany in the staple fibre production being responsible for 28 per cent of the world production. The figures for 1938 rose to 376,208,000 lbs.

PRODUCTION OF STAPLE FIBRE

(Compiled by the Japan Staple Fibre Manufacturers' Association)

Year	Production in 1,000 lbs.
1933	965
1934	4,720
1935	13,625
1936	45,850
1937	174,494
1938	376,208

The capacity of this country for the production of staple fibre has greatly increased during the years 1937 and 1938, on account of the expansion plans adopted by the staple fibre manufacturing companies and the turning of rayon manufacturing companies to this field. The aggregate productive capacity of the staple fibre companies at the end of May, 1937 was estimated at 215 tons per day while the actual production was 190 tons. At the end of 1937 the aggregate productive power of 9 staple fibre companies, 5 cotton spinning companies and 15 rayon manufacturing companies amounted to 600 tons per day and it was expected to increase to 970 tons by the end of 1938. To meet the present demand a daily production of 310 to 360 tons will suffice, estimating the daily demand of staple fibre for the purpose of mixing with cotton at 160 to 190 tons, with wool at 20 to 40 tons and for other purposes at 130 to 140 tons. The completion of the plans for expansion will depend on a large enough increase in demand during 1938 and after.

According to the report of the Japan Staple Fibre Manufacturers' Association the total exports of staple fibre and its products in 1938 amounted to ¥44,861,500, the figure representing twice as much as 1937.

EXPORTS OF STAPLE FIBRE AND ITS PRODUCTS IN 1937 AND 1938

Kind	1937	1938
Fibre in 1,000 lbs.	14,770	291
Value in ¥1,000	7,967.4	7,408.3
Yarn in 1,000 lbs.	8,177	10,598
Value in ¥1,000	7,408.3	10,673.2
Textiles in 1,000 sq. yards	16,754.6	60,452.5
Value in ¥1,000	6,871.9	26,780.0
Total value	22,247.6	44,861.5

Supply of Pulp

Japan's demand for pulp for the manufacture of rayon and staple fibre increased with the expansion of these industries in recent years. Total supply of pulp for making paper, rayon, staple fibre and cellophane reached 1,498,463 metric tons in 1937, including production in Japan and Manchoukuo and imports from other foreign countries. Of the total, 347,892 tons were for rayon, staple fibre and cellophane. The amount consumed for making these rayon and staple fibre was 279,155 tons, or 18 per cent of the total supply. As indicated in the following table the chief sources of supply are the U. S. A., Norway, Sweden and Finland. From the United States were bought 47 per cent of the total pulp imports.

SUPPLY AND DEMAND OF WOOD PULP FOR RAYON

(Compiled by the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry)

(In metric tons)

	Supply			Demand			
	Pfoduction	Imports	Total	Rayon	Staple Fibre	Cellophane	Total
1932	3,600	60,000	63,600	36,273	319	527	37,119
1933	5,900	85,000	90,900	50,200	558	1,704	52,462
1934	17,160	102,932	120,092	78,092	2,739	2,184	83,015

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	Supply			Demand			
	Production	Imports	Total	Rayon	Staple Fibre	Cellophane	Total
1935	33,435	126,351	159,786	112,227	5,576	3,011	120,814
1936	55,209	169,368	224,577	152,263	29,410	4,299	185,972
1937	57,294	290,598	347,892	181,222	97,933	7,970	287,125

IMPORTS OF PULP FOR FIBRE BY ORIGIN

(Compiled by the Ministry of Commerce and Industry)

	Quantity (Unit: picul)			Value (Unit: ¥1,000)		
From	1936	1937	1938	1936	1937	1938
U. S. A.	2,603,407	3,185,610	872,310	31,758	49,181	15,111
Sweden	952,184	2,060,596	420,803	9,735	26,993	6,276
Norway	944,566	1,025,406	307,269	14,621	17,071	5,400
Canada	469,888	879,390	284,278	4,150	12,619	5,046
Finland	524,417	639,770	211,921	6,401	9,497	3,339
Czeckoslovakia	29,328	71,816	8,538	391	1,157	132
Total including others	5,528,532	7,901,727	2,386,181	67,107	116,720	41,059

Five-Year Plan for Self-Supply The expansion of staple fibre industry presents an acute problem on account of this country's dependence on imports of pulp. The national policy aimed at the readjustment of international payments by controlling imports is confronted with the paradoxical situation in which cotton and wool imports are curtailed but pulp imports are allowed to increase, because of the need for mixing staple fibre with cotton and wool. In order to solve the problem a special committee within the Domestic Production Promotion Commission was formed which drew out a five-year plan for the expansion of pulp manufacturing industry to be worked out in the combined area of Japan proper, Chosen and Manchoukuo. The plan was revised by the Board of Planning and adopted by the Cabinet at the end of 1937. According to this plan, the present pulp productive power of Japan which is estimated at 871,000 tons is to be increased to 1,650,000 tons within a period of 5 years to meet the expected rise in demand in 1942, which is estimated at 1,650,000 tons, of which 1,150,000 tons will be absorbed for paper manufacture, and 500,000 tons for rayon and staple fibre. The plan calls for the enlargement of existing factories and the establishment of new ones in Japan, Chosen and Manchoukuo.

Woollen Industry

Woollen Industry in 1938

The production of woollen yarns and textiles during the year was considerably curtailed on account of the large stock left over from the previous year and the Governmental limitation on imports of wool.

SUPPLY AND DEMAND OF WOOLLEN YARN

(In 1,000 pounds)

	Production by Associated Co's.	Imports	Total	Exports	Balance
1931	77,586	9,550	87,136	698	86,438
1932	89,660	3,219	92,879	1,249	91,630
1933	101,361	1,638	102,999	3,168	99,831
1934	103,145	919	104,064	5,919	98,145
1935	112,775	1,088	113,863	5,319	108,544
1936	123,263	934	124,197	7,141	117,056
1937	125,072	576	125,648	7,402	118,246
1938	88,784	84	88,868	7,847	81,021

Note: The balance represents domestic consumption.

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EXPORTS

(Value in 1,000 yen)

	1933	1934	1935	1936	1937	1938
Woollen yarn						
Quantity (1,000 pounds)	3,169	5,920	5,319	7,140	7,402	7,847
Value	5,293	12,185	9,688	15,312	20,208	19,360
Woollen taxtiles						
Value	12,770	30,420	32,401	45,956	50,082	46,845
Total value	18,063	42,605	42,089	61,266	70,290	66,205

IMPORTS

Woollen yarn						
Quantity (1,000 pounds)	1,638	913	1,085	905	576	88
Value	3,021	1,708	1,931	1,873	1,605	328
Woollen textiles						
Value	7,338	5,316	6,753	9,675	9,292	2,724
Total value	10,357	7,024	8,684	11,548	10,897	3,052
Balance between Exports & Imports						
Value	7,706	35,581	33,405	49,720	59,393	63,153

IMPORTS OF RAW WOOL[1]

	Quantity in 1,000 lbs.	Value in ¥1,000		Quantity in 1,000 lbs.	Value in ¥1,000
1930	115,999	73,919	1936	221,382	204,342
1931	191,374	86,518	1937	261,182	299,500
1932	206,858	88,321	1938	117,895	96,312
1933	242,620	165,818			
1934	184,379	187,667	Note: (1) Including tops and goat and camel hair.		
1935	247,275	193,092			

IMPORTS OF SHEEP'S WOOL BY ORIGIN

(Compiled by the Ministry of Commerce and Industry)

	Quantity (Unit: picul)			Value (Unit: ¥1,000)		
From	1936	1937	1938	1936	1937	1938
Australia	1,169,468	737,195	591,136	147,493	118,196	64,882
New Zealand	179,455	296,050	85,671	18,316	42,822	8,272
Argentine	56,773	126,548	55,265	6,562	17,713	5,946
Union of South Africa	140,780	559,015	39,666	17,389	82,763	4,266
China	5,095	2,984	44,000	611	382	3,327
Manchoukuo	4,578	2,969	21,458	269	527	2,478
Chile	16,612	20,390	6,976	1,744	2,353	780
Great Britain	8,496	6,252	3,716	1,190	1,073	677
Total including others	1,640,636	1,953,835	881,889	200,898	298,404	94,429

WOOLLEN YARN AND TEXTILE MANUFACTURING FACILITIES

(At the end of the year)

	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936	1937
Number of woollen textile factories	1,138	1,178	1,226	1,421	1,528	1,648
Number of weaving machines	26,554	26,923	27,162	29,421	31,220	30,317
Number of operatives	41,606	41,311	44,347	47,142	50,046	49,890
Number of worsted spindles[1]	581,564	667,390	763,878	873,066	991,140	1,127,802
Number of weaving machines[1]	10,043	9,871	10,257	10,248	10,261	7,868
Number of woollen spindles[1]	87,893	88,403	91,272	97,917	119,048	121,114

Note: 1 Only member companies of the Woollen Industrial Association.

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PRODUCTION OF WOOLLEN TEXTILES

(Compiled by the Ministry of Commerce and Industry)

Year	Muslin		Flannel		Serge for Japanese clothes	
	Quantity in metres	Value in yen	Quantity in metres	Value in yen	Quantity in metres	Value in yen
1930	140,413,675	54,518,694	2,874,911	3,542,837	28,724,040	29,095,228
1931	147,817,541	49,476,288	3,460,173	3,393,080	35,937,088	30,831,866
1932	164,580,936	51,379,813	4,132,697	4,224,307	32,481,305	29,727,708
1933	132,953,959	48,276,271	3,744,062	3,782,949	31,244,644	29,161,570
1934	121,576,277	50,848,485	2,396,756	3,062,003	28,989,058	29,627,172
1935	134,241,500	54,807,185	2,648,911	3,454,219	36,169,643	36,989,712
1936	99,935,993	47,077,830	2,511,902	2,985,476	22,922,705	23,297,322
1937	59,877,557	29,779,752	2,655,534	3,903,127	26,946,554	28,163,978

Year	Serge for Foreign clothes		Woollen cloth		Blankets (including travelling rugs)	
	Quantity in metres	Value in yen	Quantity in metres	Value in yen	Quantity in pieces	Value in yen
1930	18,261,301	39,933,727	7,384,187	19,360,204	584,880	3,698,673
1931	19,670,151	33,959,069	8,209,882	18,497,529	1,171,422	4,272,580
1932	23,977,240	43,847,243	10,393,521	21,930,632	1,025,485	3,644,158
1933	30,382,977	63,850,283	11,985,167	29,927,479	1,446,639	5,898,423
1934	53,811,981	114,432,693	14,813,572	36,710,705	1,982,235	6,579,557
1935	50,142,258	127,489,700	16,182,943	41,100,367	2,038,922	7,750,958
1936	63,840,711	180,491,190	15,306,305	43,541,494	2,803,726	10,912,980
1937	66,027,071	169,152,963	18,434,104	58,774,401	2,950,069	12,892,153

Year	Carpets Value in yen	Rugs Value in yen	Plush and Velvet Value in yen	Others Value in yen	Total Value in yen
1930	713,856	140,077	523,970	13,056,764	164,584,030
1931	106,779	124,701	356,363	12,806,187	153,824,442
1932	17,280	120,391	363,382	11,755,140	167,010,054
1933	236,021	171,718	690,744	19,142,291	201,137,749
1934	52,000	240,975	1,049,304	21,528,276	264,131,170
1935	344,363	236,832	1,050,537	23,002,975	296,226,848
1936	381,474	230,903	1,416,589	29,521,825	339,857,083
1937	952,367	231,527	2,741,100	21,418,317	328,009,685

Note: This table is revised according to the report of the Ministry of Commerce and Industry, the figures of which differ from those in the "Factory Statistics", because the former includes production by small factories where less than 5 persons are employed.

EXPORTS OF WOOLLEN TEXTILES BY KIND

	1936	1937	1938
Muslin			
Quantity in 1,000 sq. yards	2,096	1,573	1,122
Value in ¥1,000	1,066	1,024	749
Cloth and Serge			
Quantity in 1,000 sq. yards	27,327	28,212	20,812
Value in ¥1,000	34,358	41,229	35,367
Total including others			
Quantity in 1,000 sq. yards	37,004	35,058	28,071
Value in ¥1,000	45,956	50,082	46,845

Hemp Tissues

The conditions of the hemp tissues manufacturing industry since 1930 are given below. Main articles are cloth, canvas and mosquito nets. The value of canvas amounted to ¥4,800,000, and that of mosquito nets to ¥2,636,000 for 1937.

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PRODUCTION OF HEMP TISSUES

(Compiled by the Ministry of Commerce and Industry)

Year	No. of Mills	No. of Looms	No. of Operatives	Broad Weave	Narrow Weave	Others	Total
	(At the end of year)			(Unit: ¥1,000)			
1930	14,222	20,708	21,261	6,131	5,500	2,991	14,623
1931	14,375	20,414	20,519	6,118	5,363	1,954	13,436
1932	13,821	19,192	19,593	8,002	6,279	1,299	15,580
1933	12,775	18,139	18,679	7,550	5,728	2,197	15,477
1934	12,062	18,413	18,675	9,530	7,116	1,868	18,515
1935	10,926	17,854	19,313	10,686	7,052	2,481	20,220
1936	10,880	17,315	18,371	12,533	5,115	2,203	19,851
1937	9,352	17,055	19,091	18,567	5,116	3,295	26,978

Hosiery

In 1937, hosieries produced underwears, stockings, gloves, etc. to the amount of ¥115,500,996. The production of underwears reached 7,895,437 dozens valued at ¥47,183,873; stockings 16,187,649 dozens valued at ¥30,863,188; gloves 8,015,723 dozens valued at ¥14,673,884.

VALUE OF PRODUCTION BY HOSIERIES

(Compiled by the Ministry of Commerce and Industry)

Year	No. of Mills	No. of. Operatives	Value of Products
	(At the end of year)		(In ¥1,000)
1933	5,243	38,241	73,476
1934	5,853	41,658	85,632
1935	6,198	45,605	84,931
1936	6,250	46,947	91,551
1937	6,776	51,332	115,501

Dyeing and Bleaching

In 1937, bleaching houses earned ¥24,545,944. In the same year dyeing houses earned ¥168,934,148, consisting of ¥76,928,913 for dyeing cloth, ¥81,862,659 for printing and ¥10,142,576 for dyeing miscellaneous articles.

EARNINGS OF DYEING AND BLEACHING HOUSES

(Compiled by the Ministry of Commerce and Industry)

Year	No. of Bleaching Houses	No. of Operatives	Earnings	No. of Dyeing Houses	No. of Operatives	Earnings
	(At the end of year)		(In ¥1,000)	(At the end of year)		(In ¥1,000)
1933	521	6,350	19,336	11,659	57,674	105,193
1934	578	8,031	17,099	11,613	61,776	120,795
1935	632	8,114	19,822	11,570	65,986	134,107
1936	619	9,432	22,795	11,784	74,580	168,676
1937	571	9,496	24,545	11,778	75,757	168,934

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CHAPTER XIX

MACHINERY AND ENGINEERING

Machinery

Introduction

The manufacture of machinery in Japan started after the Restoration. The progress at first was very slow, and it was only after the Russo-Japanese War of 1904-1905 that the public began to take any real interest in investment in this kind of industry. Improvement was gradually being made before the Great War, but with the outbreak of war the situation completely changed. Prior to the War Japan had to import large quantities of machinery, but during the War imports were stopped, and a great stimulus was thereby given to home production. During the war years Japan became able to supply not only most of her own needs, but also some of those of foreign countries. Factories for manufacturing arms and various kinds of machinery, as well as shipbuilding-yards, were established in many parts of the country, and these profited both financially and in the experience they acquired in skilled mechanical work of various kinds. The great boom in shipbuilding stimulated the establishment of many new works for turning out engines and other equipment for steamers, while the difficulty of obtaining imported machines for spinning, weaving, papermaking, etc., caused a rapid establishment of new works for their manufacture. This cutting off of imports also served to encourage the manufacture of motors, electrical machinery, automobiles and aeroplanes. With the great post-war slump, naval disarmament, general depression the world over, embargo on gold, high tariffs, and all the other ills from which industry suffered the machinery production industry was heavily hit. The outbreak of trouble in Manchuria in September, 1931, and the military operations which followed, created a new demand for arms, while the reimposition of the gold embargo, and subsequent decline of the value of the yen served to revive the industry.

Machinery Manufacturing Industry in 1938

The machinery manufacturing industry in this country has been very active since it was decided to perfect national defence. The advance achieved by the industry during 1937 and 1938 was quite remarkable, all the companies concerned recording an improvement in their business conditions without exception, under the influence of the enormous spending envisaged from the budget, and the Governmental encouragement for the expansion of the productive power of the companies.

Particularly were the leading companies affected because they were required to expand their producitve equipments, and many companies increased their capitalization.

Increase in Deliveries Ever since the quasi-emergency began, and by the occurrence of the China Affair in 1937, the production of machinery has shown an increase every successive business term. The big six machinery manufacturing companies, the Mitsubishi Heavy Industry, the Hitachi Seisakusho, the Kokusan Kogyo, the Shibaura Seisakusho, the Niigata Iron Works, the Ishikawajima Works and the Daido Denki Seiko manufactured various sorts of machinery to a total value of ¥585,516,000 during 1938 against ¥339,002,000 for the preceding year. Their total annual production during the past six years was :

1932	¥75,310,000
1933	98,140,000
1934	163,907,000
1935	247,819,000
1936	288,707,000
1937	339,002,000
1938	585,616,000

The increase in production has been especially remarkable since 1934. When considered in terms of index numbers, the increase was from 100 in 1932 to 777 in 1938. The following table shows the production by each of the big six:

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	1937	1938		
	Total	First Half	Second Half	Total
		(unit: ¥1,000)		
Ishikawajima	23,988	15,352	16,845	32,197
Daido Seiko	9,254	8,580	12,864	21,444
Hitachi Seisakusho	104,412	116,446	137,521	253,967
Shibaura Seisakusho	41,383	22,684	28,106	50,790
Niigata Iron Works	25,380	9,488	10,807	20,295
Mitsubishi Heavy Industry	134,585	86,963	119,860	206,823
Total	339,002	259,513	326,003	585,516

Fixed assets of the six companies increased with production and reached ¥248,459,000 at the end of the second half of 1938 fiscal year, an increase of ¥185,796,000 or nearly 300 per cent as compared with the first half of 1932 in which it amounted to ¥62,663,000. It gained by ¥83,777,000 or 49 per cent as compared with the similar period of 1937. Details follow:

	2nd Half of 1937	1st Half of 1938	2nd Half of 1938
	(unit: ¥1,000)		
Isnikawajima	6,287	8,680	11,414
Daido	8,336	11,273	15,165
Hitachi	56,381	66,381	78,926
Shibaura	18,907	22,055	24,738
Niigata	5,208	6,465	7,127
Mitsubishi	69,563	87,590	111,089
Total	164,682	202,444	248,459

The expansion of floating assets was wider ranged, and the aggregate floating assets of the six companies reached ¥722,207,000 at the end of the second half of 1938 fiscal year, or 7 times as large as the amount in the first half of 1932. It gained by ¥382,315,000 or 112 per cent over 1937, as it is shown in the following table:

	2nd Half of 1937	1st Half of 1938	2nd Half of 1938
	(unit: ¥1,000)		
Ishikawajima	17,724	22,048	23,353
Daido	13,800	20,573	26,172
Hitachi	121,272	150,832	190,369
Shibaura	55,030	70,225	81,021
Niigata	8,978	11,968	16,473
Mitsubishi	123,088	319,518	384,819
Total	339,892	595,164	722,207

Other 15 representative machine manufacturing companies also increased their assets by ¥53,608,000 or 30 per cent in fixed assets and ¥157,890,000 or 42 per cent in floating assets. Details follow:

	2nd Half of 1937		2nd Half of 1938	
	Fixed Assets	Floating Assets	Fixed Assets	Floating Assets
	(unit: ¥1,000)			
Tsurumi Iron and Shipbuilding	35,803	35,113	37,141	44,375
Kawasaki Shipbuilding	49,930	121,390	50,380	114,822
Uraga Dockyard	8,527	23,401	5,297	27,624
Mitsubishi Electric Machinery	16,015	50,172	19,189	72,831
Fuji Electric Machinery	6,377	18,801	8,051	36,725
Ikegai Iron Works	3,369	9,531	5,996	19,517
Okuma Iron Works	2,120	7,685	4,717	11,054
Tokyo Automobile	6,307	15,684	23,848	44,933
Nippon Rolling Stock	5,799	12,543	7,512	21,373
Riken Heavy Industry	6,881	9,467	17,015	29,061
Toyoda-shiki Loom	4,968	17,285	5,132	16,229
Shimazu Works	4,085	7,250	6,588	11,593
Nippon Musical Instrument	2,708	6,415	3,494	9,792
Tokyo Gas-Electrical	5,895	7,113	13,932	34,096
Tokyo Electric	14,958	30,550	19,058	36,265
Total	173,742	372,400	227,350	530,290

Figures for the total production of machinery and tools are as yet unavailable, especially details of the branches of the industry which are directly re-

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lated to armaments are kept in secrecy. But, it is estimated to have reached as much as ¥3,735,000,000 against ¥2,557,201,000 for the previous year.

GROWTH OF MACHINERY INDUSTRY

Year	No. of mills	No. of operatives	Value of production (unit: ¥1,000)
1929	8,314	190,154	682,162
1930	8,458	205,308	615,682
1931	8,513	—	443,340
1932	9,388	230,896	543,842
1933	10,648	249,323	888,195
1934	12,103	314,669	1,159,167
1935	13,659	367,263	1,462,539
1936	15,052	456,963	1,716,352
1937	18,609	601,684	2,557,201

Note: The number of mills is revised. In addition to the above there were 386 governmental factories with 18,787 operatives and 75 public factories with 5,277 operatives in 1937. Figures for the total value of probuction in 1937 do not include the value of automobiles and motor cycles.

PRODUCTION OF ENGINES

(Value in yen)

Year	Steam Engines		Steam Turbines		Internal Combustion Engines: Gas Engines		Light Oil Engines		Oil Engines	
	No. Produced	Value	No. Produced	Value	No. Produced	Value	No. Produced	Value	No. Produced	Value
1929	931	2,615,111	15	754,858	128	104,545	965	9,660,598	23,828	9,900,571
1930	74	298,341	42	2,220,460	575	340,416	1,337	11,852,363	104,854	9,671,130
1931	97	80,769	17	1,458,889	10	8,800	778	5,008,217	15,295	5,223,870
1932	77	150,006	86	1,022,760	103	76,472	2,371	20,587,362	16,558	4,420,307
1933	162	580,519	51	7,269,146	142	116,780	5,546	32,360,597	17,229	4,049,818
1934	105	617,215	102	6,893,407	54	15,948	4,866	19,784,471	53,889	6,856,672
1935	144	1,308,033	187	10,551,116	14	43,260	8,439	21,092,789	35,603	8,832,063
1936	129	2,405,409	106	8,352,713	4	7,850	8,354	30,948,045	37,291	8,485,516
1937	130	486,027	229	13,552,628	168	235,110	7,456	54,149,245	40,283	9,417,941

Year	Internal Combustion Engines: Heavy Oil Engines			Water Wheels: Turbine Water Wheels		Pelton Water Wheels			Production of Fittings Value	Grand Total Value
	No. Produced	Value	Total	No. Produced	Value	No. Produced	Value	Total		
1929	1,579	7,557,746	27,123,260	261	2,031,407	23	221,580	2,253,087	1,189,408	33,935,624
1930	2,274	6,759,923	29,723,832	115	1,890,568	17	35,811	1,926,376	2,207,825	36,377,837
1931	2,002	8,248,660	18,494,447	111	765,540	7	81,521	847,063	1,333,930	22,215,098
1932	1,783	5,790,541	30,874,682	173	575,847	1	1,492	577,339	1,493,765	34,118,552
1933	3,961	11,618,068	46,605,230	91	183,076	57	318,189	501,265	2,867,389	59,365,582
1934	4,151	15,267,978	41,925,069	164	1,319,476	21	133,348	1,452,824	3,483,848	54,372,363
1935	4,310	17,680,899	47,649,011	124	1,541,528	5	298,999	1,840,527	7,558,079	68,906,766
1936	12,510	20,987,381	60,428,792	202	4,419,243	26	425,778	4,845,021	10,433,286	86,465,221
1937	12,762	27,602,967	91,405,263	163	6,223,151	10	325,668	6,548,819	15,440,838	127,433,575

PRODUCTION OF BOILERS

(Value in yen)

Year	Water-Tube Style		Cast Iron		Others		Fittings and Accessories value	Total value	Machinery for Producing Gas value
	No. Produced	Value	No. Produced	Value	No. Produced	Value			
1929	179	2,375,285	295	42,032	1,529	1,968,055	1,264,520	5,649,982	106,443
1930	143	2,573,598	374	249,798	844	1,097,745	1,283,860	5,169,731	952,585
1931	86	2,388,832	89	50,330	1,180	1,197,505	2,724,523	6,369,190	727,929
1932	86	1,185,444	264	178,000	1,257	2,384,306	701,659	4,449,409	586,440

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Year	Water-Tube Style		Cast Iron		Others		Fittings and Accessories Value	Total Value	Machinery for Producing Gas Value
	No. Produced	Value	No. Produced	Value	No. Produced	Value			
1933	120	2,071,541	281	217,976	2,020	5,617,207	3,647,849	11,554,573	1,210,160
1934	155	8,327,410	14	386,254	1,531	5,965,028	6,413,992	21,092,684	1,092,612
1935	255	19,863,758	382	437,146	1,743	3,942,038	10,226,313	34,469,255	1,594,975
1936	309	16,084,129	426	587,000	1,794	6,939,190	8,122,970	31,733,289	1,805,807
1937	826	19,243,758	5	458,630	2,376	8,279,781	11,730,879	39,713,048	3,479,325

PRODUCTION OF PUMPS, COMPRESSORS AND FANS

(Value in yen)

	Pumps		Hydraulic Compressors		Gas Compressors		Blowing Machines (Fans)	
	No. Produced	Value	No. Produced	Value	No. Produced	Value	No. Produced	Value
1929	170,258	8,608,986	756	439,835	1,244	1,535,262	12,004	838,693
1930	515,642	8,002,940	1,084	452,580	9,239	3,152,991	1,475	599,142
1931	398,632	6,837,801	686	358,938	2,230	1,627,198	13,266	748,891
1932	290,480	6,510,822	1,102	720,903	2,199	1,123,213	28,433	755,241
1933	290,477	9,669,019	833	810,502	1,969	1,721,220	4,152	1,143,718
1934	427,999	13,027,236	1,152	1,175,656	3,323	3,993,231	5,425	2,410,354
1935	322,667	15,153,628	1,166	1,346,068	5,026	5,350,943	12,369	3,914,662
1936	461,113	19,680,578	1,479	1,828,575	3,664	6,278,294	11,231	3,634,164
1937	358,232	27,896,976	1,669	3,574,041	9,900	11,692,697	15,112	6,887,000

PRODUCTION OF OPTICAL INSTRUMENTS

Value in yen

Year	Lenses, Including Prisms	Microscopes	Telescopes	Field-glasses	Glasses
1930	402,739	94,172	16,470	2,955,885	317,550
1931	433,338	72,076	20,885	98,741	230,338
1932	572,961	54,750	182,302	227,325	360,114
1933	787,249	261,727	1,433,169	3,304,068	126,050
1934	954,515	328,834	2,160,119	5,539,078	62,400
1935	1,276,617	391,474	5,488,746	2,235,208	90,483
1936	1,536,575	553,498	4,319,450	2,109,484	52,644
1937	1,675,576	428,472	89,136	3,859,539	71,099

PRODUCTION OF MEASURING AND WEIGHING INSTRUMENTS

Value in yen

Year	Rules	Measures	Scales	Gas Meters	Water Meters	Accessories and Fittings	Total
1929	1,027,579	849,754	3,239,202	5,202,256	576,789	477,360	11,372,946
1930	794,776	298,269	3,033,458	2,998,262	1,379,397	411,724	8,915,886
1931	581,717	248,705	2,443,134	1,998,534	1,345,382	264,173	6,881,645
1932	705,516	175,568	2,228,220	1,870,250	1,485,165	466,348	6,931,071
1933	869,288	298,100	3,692,690	2,042,099	1,391,487	467,937	8,761,607
1934	1,019,479	228,432	3,848,631	2,064,405	1,141,105	508,076	8,810,128
1935	1,224,720	580,202	4,200,844	2,236,139	1,660,923	642,901	10,545,729
1936	1,318,589	709,227	4,597,311	3,938,352	1,660,144	896,845	13,120,468
1937	1,365,288	900,049	5,456,722	4,865,278	1,941,244	1,161,861	15,690,442

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PRODUCTION OF VARIOUS METERS

(Value in yen)

Year	Thermometers No. Produced	Thermometers Value	Clinical Thermometers No. Produced	Clinical Thermometers Value	Electricity Meters No. Produced	Electricity Meters Value	Others Value	Total Value
1929	732,099	425,584	912,172	795,286	184,181	2,128,677	2,890,857	6,240,404
1930	745,307	381,415	1,046,500	841,766	209,287	2,772,177	2,984,421	6,979,779
1931	676,743	310,924	1,237,192	777,377	213,011	2,657,049	3,066,257	6,811,607
1932	511,786	273,356	1,388,889	883,335	395,298	3,997,290	2,622,110	7,776,091
1933	750,742	431,194	1,518,544	839,151	439,268	7,312,489	4,696,288	13,279,122
1934	987,023	393,973	1,884,875	1,095,826	539,273	7,247,533	7,838,757	16,576,086
1935	1,024,870	388,441	1,886,433	1,088,657	517,888	8,901,676	12,851,744	23,230,418
1936	1,064,192	341,085	2,069,867	1,137,237	719,498	8,175,176	19,637,206	29,290,707
1937	1,326,141	270,932	2,338,080	1,449,331	928,835	12,582,718	24,113,695	38,416,676

PRODUCTION OF CLOCKS AND WATCHES

(Value in yen)

Year	Electric Clocks No. Produced	Electric Clocks Value	Stand Clocks No. Produced	Stand Clocks Value	Wall Clocks No. Produced
1929	6,870	303,946	1,232,269	2,664,390	506,504
1930	11,699	579,919	1,155,988	2,055,593	474,565
1931	11,250	366,148	993,287	1,350,822	362,011
1932	6,151	216,019	857,594	1,552,117	436,513
1933	7,654	240,388	1,270,467	2,047,417	514,626
1934	51,373	574,365	1,728,567	2,637,488	876,747
1935	78,675	892,791	1,930,234	3,076,711	543,069
1936	92,352	978,035	2,155,829	3,378,601	1,057,501
1937	411,493	2,720,009	2,244,210	4,176,048	892,221

Year	Wall Clocks Value	Watches No. Produced	Watches Value	Fittings Value	Total Value
1929	2,176,758	238,236	1,365,932	2,555,567	9,066,593
1930	1,911,182	181,233	1,013,042	5,846,179	11,405,915
1931	1,390,718	169,358	657,528	2,310,248	6,075,464
1932	1,629,130	160,288	681,156	2,590,187	6,668,669
1933	2,122,065	153,247	794,183	3,160,690	8,364,743
1934	2,748,623	158,520	936,942	4,684,064	11,581,482
1935	3,000,328	165,962	952,875	5,136,344	13,059,049
1936	3,279,386	235,666	1,435,043	5,755,982	14,827,047
1937	3,950,736	1,131,901	6,576,064	3,341,156	20,764,013

PRODUCTION OF CRANES, ELEVATORS, etc.

(Value in yen)

Year	Cranes No. produced	Cranes Value	Hoists, Conveyors, etc. Value	Elevators No. produced	Elevators Value
1929	2,538	4,052,380	4,157,486	502	1,408,330
1930	3,138	5,834,200	3,254,024	815	1,800,499
1931	396	1,823,835	2,174,962	519	1,502,950
1932	637	2,303,674	2,269,622	691	1,509,437
1933	1,278	5,402,508	4,607,460	614	1,238,638
1934	1,078	8,306,927	7,716,384	904	2,889,608
1935	1,339	12,961,504	10,134,238	640	2,118,757
1936	1,509	14,642,286	10,961,871	1,232	3,845,689
1937	2,943	18,846,957	21,146,541	1,724	4,210,432

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PRODUCTION OF VARIOUS MACHINERY FOR INDUSTRIAL PURPOSES

Value in yen

Year	Agricultural machines	For Building and Civil Engineering Work	Instruments for Farming, etc.	For Mining	For Spinning and Textile Industries	For Ceramic and Cement Industry
1929	4,418,756	1,273,047	4,181,265	3,557,658	30,058,863	2,774,032
1930	3,589,150	751,150	3,016,369	3,124,345	21,221,689	1,387,210
1931	2,914,996	981,111	2,459,796	2,047,128	22,756,086	709,668
1932	4,297,720	898,830	3,187,430	3,060,091	27,478,898	1,044,278
1933	4,756,029	1,559,468	5,023,786	6,190,028	44,151,201	4,351,629
1934	5,720,304	1,351,098	5,178,672	9,672,126	64,653,507	5,258,333
1935	8,599,530	1,639,373	5,814,586	14,326,438	86,016,362	3,869,844
1936	11,021,222	2,793,359	5,171,958	13,405,110	99,338,746	5,216,179
1937	14,157,224	5,320,806	8,448,974	31,771,077	129,100,591	4,748,478

Year	Printing	For Sawmills	For Paper Manufacturing	For Various Chemical Industries	For Food Manufacturing	Printing Type	Miscellaneous
1929	7,076,059	1,625,210	1,409,687	3,875,862	4,930,476	2,681,617	4,319,305
1930	6,006,587	1,034,264	957,295	2,895,738	5,887,896	1,903,982	3,151,624
1931	5,320,524	1,419,285	695,861	2,638,421	3,443,043	2,462,696	3,696,522
1932	6,615,661	1,354,372	509,207	4,869,055	3,563,442	1,855,639	5,271,977
1933	6,992,743	1,976,830	1,642,611	14,341,447	5,495,501	2,085,210	6,788,473
1934	7,498,270	2,336,224	2,731,426	21,662,391	7,447,799	1,988,371	8,835,473
1935	7,333,681	3,171,813	3,890,798	23,577,954	9,421,217	2,251,215	11,331,071
1936	9,470,848	—	4,184,929	28,563,890	12,697,653	2,590,738	15,177,776
1937	12,438,256	—	5,558,253	48,236,336	14,827,568	3,640,077	40,713,451

PRODUCTION OF MISCELLANEOUS INSTRUMENTS

Value in yen

Year	Safes	Gas Utensils	Water-service Apparatus	Valves, Cocks, etc.	Fly Wheels, Gears, Axles, etc.	Fittings and other Accessories	Others
1929	1,935,008	940,621	2,724,438	3,929,240	3,497,804	21,253,630	42,687,650
1930	1,025,262	317,309	1,478,908	2,227,996	6,565,132	20,002,974	32,278,969
1931	1,200,092	406,968	1,136,255	1,641,080	5,962,705	11,660,398	32,121,271
1932	1,264,764	723,906	2,019,744	2,369,581	7,714,205	29,484,929	48,954,102
1933	1,486,533	1,049,967	1,610,242	3,623,998	14,310,795	38,256,100	72,104,704
1934	1,588,840	970,178	1,899,536	7,155,687	14,622,842	46,770,100	89,859,874
1935	1,785,588	1,913,606	1,571,696	8,270,095	21,689,987	85,077,533	98,318,435
1936	2,353,585	1,219,673	1,972,403	12,037,373	18,503,304	99,472,973	299,660,394
1937	2,741,006	1,895,527	3,004,867	20,338,559	35,858,286	151,883,655	465,386,885

PRODUCTION OF MUSICAL INSTRUMENTS, etc.

Value in yen

Year	Pianos	Organs	Violins, Mandolins, etc.	Others	Total	Gramophones	Arms
1929	2,254,873	1,048,930	166,123	1,554,083	5,024,018	1,939,877	18,646,292
1930	1,878,800	1,016,210	119,188	1,147,472	4,161,670	2,096,439	13,141,067
1931	2,078,406	1,199,649	77,464	910,694	4,266,213	2,811,850	13,443,520
1932	1,907,456	941,951	52,184	994,383	3,868,974	3,110,657	23,185,829
1933	2,325,781	961,622	96,027	1,421,028	4,804,458	4,657,102	32,217,961
1934	2,465,038	931,591	134,802	1,943,023	5,474,454	6,355,129	42,162,028
1935	2,619,122	991,996	179,771	2,353,701	6,144,590	5,347,772	59,914,364
1936	2,788,388	929,808	249,192	2,600,399	6,567,787	5,614,129	57,179,357
1937	2,986,431	1,019,772	260,031	2,980,118	7,245,352	5,667,568	86,772,732

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PRODUCTION OF SCIENTIFIC AND MEDICAL INSTRUMENTS AND TESTING MACHINES, etc.

Value in yen

Year	Experimental and Testing Machines	Scientific Instruments	Surgical, or Orthopædic Instruments	Surveying and Drawing Instruments	Registers, Typewriters, Adding Machines, etc.	Cameras, Magic Lanterns, Movie Cameras, etc.
1929	736,400	7,175,891	2,295,556	904,369	1,529,458	769,608
1930	496,019	918,322	2,284,228	564,193	1,274,223	746,914
1931	481,364	476,407	1,902,771	427,924	1,388,942	1,126,227
1932	428,942	585,089	2,372,813	978,680	2,021,363	917,335
1933	1,414,604	871,644	4,572,566	778,229	2,157,272	1,085,272
1934	1,604,568	1,063,271	4,167,285	925,448	3,590,114	1,587,971
1935	1,469,971	1,879,028	4,970,556	1,153,736	3,697,656	2,570,575
1936	1,908,867	1,671,733	6,124,429	1,231,638	5,222,226	3,270,352
1937	4,124,885	2,635,676	6,503,048	1,866,674	8,152,960	5,183,197

PRODUCTION OF ELECTRICAL MACHINERY

(Value in yen)

Year	Dynamos		Electric Motors		Rotary Converters		Frequency Changers	
	No. Produced	Value	No. Produced	Value	No. Produced	Value	No. Produced	Value
1929	13,949	7,913,875	77,039	16,032,609	6,610	1,714,285	9	52,151
1930	10,914	4,415,105	115,420	14,795,641	136	1,578,456	8	109,278
1931	3,953	4,865,869	88,083	10,369,400	1,161	1,082,559	6	22,251
1932	9,748	4,638,302	99,809	9,886,162	1,461	599,177	11	12,184
1933	58,600	7,720,547	195,005	21,553,794	1,269	1,470,000	3	14,006
1934	26,378	11,243,516	387,750	34,750,828	703	1,358,357	2	6,280
1935	13,285	14,784,166	374,319	43,914,591	10,042	1,776,216	2	13,276
1936	46,457	19,059,308	397,242	45,081,810	1,622	1,695,975	21	242,815
1937	51,085	21,067,519	281,302	50,951,124	1,944	1,385,897	18	4,260

Year	Transformers		Rectifiers		Electric Fans		Electric Heaters		Insulated Wires	Cables
	No. Produced	Value	No. Produced	Value	No. Propuced	Value	No. Produced	Value	Value	Value
1929	329,388	12,330,728	2,393	189,520	79,834	1,719,114	255,848	1,904,604	36,651,108	21,315,991
1930	387,333	9,307,652	3,628	160,218	88,047	1,855,294	218,797	989,583	27,134,916	18,051,756
1931	341,561	5,883,660	275	315,327	44,019	761,538	535,869	1,130,569	21,441,985	10,421,985
1932	290,887	6,618,334	2,881	156,547	35,328	610,008	542,766	1,311,409	26,329,442	10,189,503
1933	324,167	9,976,642	1,097	278,657	46,041	866,070	733,819	1,415,757	39,487,609	17,850,301
1934	416,970	15,400,423	3,640	238,892	76,234	1,188,010	985,948	2,124,990	42,929,887	16,185,546
1935	288,774	19,936,149	19,588	523,097	45,342	911,892	912,524	2,646,725	56,721,405	21,920,622
1936	202,606	26,259,229	11,277	781,886	97,484	1,670,406	722,452	2,527,817	65,799,222	36,591,859
1937	261,737	35,126,286	10,482	915,674	110,434	2,592,883	772,140	3,986,756	98,875,009	61,054,819

PRODUCTION OF ELECTRICAL INSTRUMENTS

(Value in yen)

Year	Instruments for Wireless Communication Value	Instruments for Telegraphic & Telephonic Comm's Value	Electric Batteries: Storage Batteries No. Produced	Storage Batteries Value	Dry Cells No. Produced	Dry Cells Value	Total Value	Other Electrical Instruments
1929	4,714,704	9,111,019	793,456	6,480,389	25,881,277	5,940,331	12,420,720	39,624,228
1930	6,357,315	9,109,054	205,753	4,144,403	70,576,043	9,658,359	13,802,762	29,294,850
1931	9,582,428	6,234,448	206,278	3,337,901	23,552,992	4,242,700	7,580,601	21,929,303
1932	11,552,221	7,034,435	281,980	3,425,373	33,032,783	5,172,392	8,597,765	24,167,329
1933	19,293,426	7,696,588	358,871	4,819,752	41,729,522	6,636,878	11,456,635	39,175,923
1934	26,420,734	13,143,143	154,111	6,575,986	51,425,306	7,268,713	13,844,699	50,722,078
1935	24,591,013	12,824,613	101,984	7,566,928	69,600,657	8,513,616	16,080,544	78,233,349
1936	59,816,291		131,520	8,235,060	79,696,249	8,267,764	16,502,824	79,232,599
1937	80,746,200		185,746	15,283,967	84,883,948	11,165,184	26,449,151	99,511,612

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PRODUCTION OF ELCTRIC BULBS, SEARCHLIGHTS, etc.

(Value in yen)

Year	Electric Bulbs No. Produced	Electric Bulbs Value	Searchlights No. Produced	Searchlights Value	Others Value	Total Value
1929	134,183,114	17,763,744	10,344	2,464,676	2,507,385	22,736,805
1930	114,811,775	15,192,305	20,752	2,400,744	3,539,177	21,132,225
1931	202,054,444	18,038,888	—	968,606	3,459,829	22,467,323
1932	286,653,068	19,685,338	169	831,379	4,692,485	25,209,302
1933	340,392,875	21,970,879	174	679,973	6,942,939	29,593,791
1934	310,750,142	19,997,704	154	893,804	7,115,004	28,006,512
1935	308,683,271	21,209,930	283	100,473	9,040,724	30,351,127
1936	294,034,025	21,357,909	—	108,897	10,732,675	32,199,481
1937	332,822,266	28,820,274	116	351,477	17,868,915	47,040,666

PRODUCTION OF LOCOMOTIVES AND ROLLING STOCK

(Value in yen)

Year	Steam Locomotives No. Produced	Steam Locomotives Value	Electric Locomotives No. Produced	Electric Locomotives Value	Gas Locomotives No. Produced	Gas Locomotives Value	Fittings, etc. Value	Total Value
1929	229	13,629,665	36	1,285,567	78	484,280	2,631.372	18,030,884
1930	233	9,400,067	41	884,035	129	1,192,624	270,255	11,748,481
1931	109	5,029,536	47	1,506,247	163	1,454,003	216,223	8,206,009
1932	60	2,976,606	47	503,464	223	1,333,485	298,250	5,111,805
1933	167	6,270,177	29	609,386	288	1,486,822	1,340,408	9,706.793
1934	192	12,485,274	71	2,392,319	236	824,323	1,091,564	16,793,481
1935	347	21,878,540	51	846,003	336	2,196,869	812,492	25,733,904
1936	424	26,190,414	56	1,619,549	490	3,289,994	5,461,250	36,633,207
1937	435	25,009,198	50	1,775,408	725	4,557,331	8,802,674	40,144,611

Year	Coaches and Freight Cars No. Produced	Coaches and Freight Cars Value	Fittings for Coaches and Freight Cars Value	Electric Cars No. Produced	Electric Cars Value	Fittings of Electric Cars Value	Rikisha No. Produced	Rikisha Value	Waggons Value
1929	3,996	14,532,052	919,049	535	5,882,521	1,618,233	1,668	107,750	184,914
1930	3,831	9,306,425	1,582,700	355	3,607,416	3,672,732	947	75,610	161,005
1931	1,508	3,881,066	221,088	180	2,019,861	1,492,455	1,448	72,060	165,710
1932	1,106	3,980,922	181,345	178	1,259,789	213,153	489	50,400	458,515
1933	1,452	8,064,776	853,179	129	1,663,722	501,857	550	58,220	341,099
1934	2,640	15,070,988	2,703,857	189	1,530,634	285,731	848	64,561	118,757
1935	4,804	18,986,601	3,035,150	237	2,783,499	225,086	760	62,660	216,087
1936	6,201	21,547,844	10,854,654	199	2,353,285	2,684,690	40	8,000	67,249
1937	8,882	20,092,279	13,010,064	383	5,951,990	5,404,922	650	64,750	183,674

Note: In all the tables given above the value does not necessarily correspond with the number of production, because it includes value for production the number of which is not clearly reported.

Aircraft

Introduction Captain Tokugawa was the first pilot to fly a heavier than air machine in Japan. This was in 1910. The manufacture of aircraft was commenced in the Army and Navy arsenals and manufacture under licence was farmed out to private companies, in this way the manufacture of aeroplanes was greatly encouraged and military and naval aircraft can now be satisfactorily manufactured at home.

History Dr. Ichita Kishi, a physician, constructed at his own expense various workshops in his own residence at Tsukiji, Tokyo, and, in 1914, with the help of several expert engineers, succeeded in constructing an aeroplane engine, the first to be maufactured in this country. A trial flight of the aeroplane using this engine was very succesful, so he manufactured his second aeroplane in 1916. In 1917, Mr. Nakajima, a retired engineer captain of the Navy, manufactured various kinds of aeroplanes with the help of Messrs. Mohei Ishikawa and Seibei Kawanishi. In

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1920, the **Aichi Tokei Denki Kaisha**, Ltd. (Aichi Clock Electric Machinery Co., Ltd.) established an aeroplane department and in the same year turned out a seaplane. From that time this department has developed rapidly. In 1921, the Kawanishi Machine Company established an aeroplane factory in Hyogo, and started the manufacture of seaplanes in 1923. Also, in 1921, the Mitsubishi Aircraft Co., Ltd., brought nine experts in aeroplane manufacturing from Great Britain and began to manufacture both aeroplanes and engines on a large scale. The Kawasaki Shipbuilding Co., Ltd., following in the steps of the Mitsubishi Aircraft Co., Ltd., began manufacturing aeroplanes in 1922.

Present State of the Industry The aircraft manufacturing industry has shown considerable activity in recent years. Aside from military requirements, manufactures have received good orders from public bodies who have raised subscriptions to denote aeroplanes to the army and navy. Japanese manufactured civil planes have had many successes of late and orders have been coming in for these. Manufacturers of aircrafts at present are as follows :

MANUFACTURERS OF AIRCRAFT

Year	Makers of Bodies and Motors	Makers of Balloons and Airships
1927	6	2
1928	6	3
1929	6	3
1930	6	3
1931	7	2
1932	7	2
1933	8	2
1934	8	2
1935	8	2
1936	9	2

Automobile Manufacturing

History The first automobile to be manufactured in Japan was by the Tokyo Motor Car Works, under the management of Mr. S. Yoshida, in the year 1909, but until the present progress has been very slow. In 1910, several military motor cars were manufactured for the Army in the Osaka Arsenal, and in 1911, the Tokyo Automobile Factory commenced the manufacture of "DAT" cars.

Note: Conditions of aircraft and automobile industries since 1936 are not made public.

The Tokyo Gas and Electric Co., Ltd., began to manufacture military automobiles "T.G.E." in 1916, and trucks in 1917. In 1918, the Military Automobile Subsidy Act was put into force and this company was the first to get a subsidy from the Army Department under the act. In 1920 the Tokyo Ishikawajima Shipbuilding Co., Ltd., began to manufacture passenger cars. Companies other than the above which are making automobiles are Hakuyosha, Ltd., and the Oriental Automobile Co.

Present State of the Industry The motor car industry is perhaps the only one of all the heavy induistries in Japan of which the country has not anything to feel proud of to-day. While there are more than 176,000 cars, buses and trucks of all kinds in the country, almost all of them are imported, about 80 per cent of them being Chevrolets and Fords. Of the balance, a considerable number are other American and European makes. However, inasmuch as the motor car industry is as yet undeveloped a great future can be prophesied for it.

Passenger Cars The "Atsuta-go", modelled after the Nash and White, and from this year, the "Nissan" are the only passenger cars manufactured in Japan aside from the baby cars.

Buses and Trucks Bus and truck manufacturing is slightly better than passenger car making. The "Chiyoda" manufactured by the Tokyo Gas and Electric Co., and the "Sumida" made by the Jidosha Kogyo Kaisha have long histories. These companies are also jointly making the "Isuzu," designed by the Department of Commerce and Industry. These three classes of buses and trucks are supplied to the market in considerable numbers. Kyodo Kokusai Jidosha, which was established in 1933 by these two companies, is selling domestic trucks and buses of five classes. The Mitsubishi Heavy Industry Co., Ltd. is making the large-sized bus "Fuso-go" at its Kobé plant, the Kawasaki Sharyo Kaisha, Ltd. the truck and bus "Rokko".

Baby Cars and Motor Cycles Small motor cars are defined, in dimensions and power, by the "Regulations of Motor Cars" and include such small-sized cars as the "Dutsun" car, rear cars, etc. Rear cars have made a marvellous development in Japan as a means of carrying small parcels. Their production totals 15,000 a year, for they are not only in use throughout Japan but are exported to Manchoukuo, the

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South Sea Islands, etc. The sales of small-sized cars like the "Datsun", are rapidly increasing.

Accessories and Parts Associations and parts of motor cars used in Japan were almost exclusively of American make before replacement of the embargo on gold in 1931. Owing to the low exchange rate which followed thereafter their importation became very difficult and domestic makes took their place. At present, even Chevrolet and Ford parts are being replaced by demestic makes. They are also being exported.

PRODUCTION OF AUTOMABILES AND MOTOR CYCLES

(Value in yen)

Year	Imported Parts Assembled		Others		Accessories and Parts	Total	Motor Cycles	
	No.	Value	No.	Value	Value	Value	No.	Value
1926			32,665					18,624,309
1927			10,789					25,256,332
1928			23,347					43,049,420
1929	11,221	12,484,951	18,058	71,177,299	6,219,850	89,884,750	204	112,925
1930	20,596	34,903,822	1,254	3,626,252	4,493,958	43,024,032	793	413,808
1931	19,935	32,099,506	971	2,576,231	6,535,494	41,211,231	1,451	826,320
1932	13,853	28,869,297	710	4,748,608	6,095,992	39,703,897	2,113	1,619,279
1933	14,373	37,690,059	1,657	9,493,251	10,960,059	58,143,369	4,613	3,651,570
1934	29,889	75,955,529	2,770	15,671,197	22,736,076	114,362,802	7,750	6,029,283
1935	27,021	69,928,985	5,307	22,908,967	28,234,962	121,072,914	8,845	7,342,114

Imports of Automobiles In 1914 imports barely amounted to ¥500,000, but by 1929, they amounted to ¥30,000,000. Owing to the depression there was a drop to ¥20,000,000 in 1930, and to ¥14,000,000 in 1933. The figures then took an upward course, rising to ¥32,302,000 in 1934, ¥32,589,000 in 1935, ¥37,036,000 in 1936, and ¥30,682,000 in the first half of 1937.

IMPORTS OF AUTOMOBILES & ACCESSORIES

(Value in yen)

Year	No. of Automobiles	Value	Value of Accessories	Total Value
1926	2,362	5,324,535	10,397,666	15,722,201
1927	3,895	8,063,063	10,218,909	18,281,971
1928	7,873	13,770,655	18,474,167	32,244,822
1929	5,018	9,545,870	24,062,513	33,608,383
1930	2,591	4,896,992	15,178,000	20,773,000
1931	1,887	3,378,000	12,951,000	16,329,000
1932	997	2,894,000	11,927,000	14,821,000
1933	491	1,864,392	12,517,753	14,382,145
1934	896	3,357,061	28,945,163	32,302,224
1935	943	3,302,241	29,387,106	32 589,347
1936	1,117	3,577,000	33,459,000	37,036,000
1937 (Jan.-July)	895	3,009,000	27,673,000	30,682,000

Note: Datails of conditions of the industry and the trade in automobiles are not published.

Bicycle Manufacturing

History A bicycle was first introduced into Japan in 1881 by an Englishman. In 1889, an American brought a bicycle with him from America. In 1904, frames and other accessories were imported from Great Britain, and the making of bicycles at a lower cost became comparatively easy and bicycles became very popular.

Before 1913, accessories other than saddles, rims, and chains were being manufactured at home. Factories capable of manufacturing these latter articles on a large scale did not exist and it was impossible for small scale producers to compete against foreign

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products. From 1913 on, however, the demand for bicycles increased at great speed, and as the manufacturing of each of the above parts on a large scale became possible, bicycles came to be produced at a very low cost, though until the World War, those manufactured in Japan could not compete with European-made ones. During the War, the art of manufacturing advanced so much that domestic bicycles could well compete in both quality and price with imported ones, and not only were home demands satisfied, but the Japanese product was exported to China, Russia, India and other countries.

Conditions Suitable for Bicycles Conditions in this country are well suited to the use of this vehicle. The factors which have made for the increased demand are :

(1) Individual wealth is comparatively small and the use of automobiles has not yet become universal.

(2) Roads are mostly too narrow, though greatly improved of late, to take automobiles.

(3) The making of bicycles, especially accessories like rims, is purely artisans' work, and is a type of work in which the Japanese people excel.

PRODUCTION OF BICYCLES IN JAPAN

(Value in yen)

Year	No. Produced	Value	Value of Accessories Produced
1929	90,285	2,593,051	16,138,063
1930	136,985	2,790,331	12,206,374
1931	105,088	2,022,013	13,747,235
1932	63,988	1,315,748	20,666,605
1933	118,405	2,164,804	26,396,495
1934	152,920	2,542,376	34,462,225
1935	90,885	2,260,889	38,889,853
1936	145,791	5,210,056	44,044,488
1937	138,895	2,977,815	50,889,157

The principal places of production are Tokyo, Osaka, Aichi, Hyogo, Gifu and Fukuoka prefectures.

Imports and exports of cycles and accessories since 1927 are as follows :

Year	Imports	Exports
	(In yen)	
1929	1,280,000	3,429,000
1930	1,563,000	5,274,000
1931	1,153,000	7,119,000
1932	795,000	6,028,000
1933	619,000	12,114,000
1934	73,308	18,904,257
1935	85,545	17,436,446
1936	27,000	20,575,000
1937	—	23,451,000
1938	—	13,650,000

Note:—Tyres are not included.

Shipbuilding

Introduction

The mercantile shipbuilding industry in Japan developed with the shipping business, while the development of warship building was mainly due to the urgent demands created by the Sino-Japanese and the Russo-Japanese Wars.

Owing to the construction of new vessels to be placed on subsidized lines, easy money and low interest rates, the shipbuilding industry which had been depressed since the close of the World War, revived and boomed temporarily in 1928. Tonnage output, which in 1919 amounted to as much as 674,000 tons, dropped to 53,000 tons in 1926. This was increased to 112,583 tons in 1928 and to 167,365 tons in 1929. However, as the improvement was brought about artificiallyl and not by general improvements in economic conditions, the industry soon became dull again, and was further depressed by the enforcement of the conditions of the London Disarmament Agreement. Naval orders to private shipbuilding companies were reduced by 30%, which, together with the decreased orders from private transportation companies reduced the 1931 output to 84,004 tons and in 1932 to 58,763 tons.

Owing, however, to the subsidies granted by the Department of Communications since 1932 for the improvement of steamers, the shipbuilding industry has been fairly active. The subsidies were granted with an aim of constructing 200,000 tons of new steamers, and closed at the end of March, 1935. In addition to this, due to the low exchange rate, enquiries for steamers are forthcoming from Brazil, Siam, Italy, France, Sweden, Soviet Russia, Manchoukuo, China, etc. (See Chapter XXVI, Sea Transportation.)

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PRODUCTION OF VESSELS

(Value in yen)

Year	Steel Vessels No.	Steel Vessels Value	Ships Other Classes No.	Ships Other Classes Value	Total Value	Fittings of Ships
1929	846	45,108,579	2,611	79,600,721	52,709,300	1,090,042
1930	269	111,590,483	2,376	3,547,239	115,137,722	807,727
1931	245	34,991,786	1,840	3,184,897	38,176,683	638,378
1932	509	44,224,579	1,987	1,880,400	45,104,979	475,363
1933	335	37,208,750	2,558	2,767,288	38,976,038	316,170
1934	277	53,481,053	2,588	3,994,369	57,475,422	448,353
1935	328	81,875,746	2,234	4,875,522	86,751,268	836,511
1936	355	104,184,841	2,864	6,541,823	110,926,664	949,253
1937	581	208,820,307	4,578	16,503,625	225,323,932	2,472,764

NUMBER OF DOCKYARDS, EMPLOYING MORE THAN 5 PERSONS AND THOSE EMPLOYED

End of	Dockyards	Officials	Technicians	Operatives	Others	Total
1929	—	2,546	3,376	49,855	3,762	59,539
1930	—	2,224	3,002	38,036	3,675	46,937
1931	—	2,053	2,805	33,439	1,207	39,514
1932	—	1,832	2,495	33,611	1,262	39,200
1933	360	2,069	2,677	39,068	1,878	45,692
1934	394	2,267	3,026	50,116	1,520	56,929
1935	395	2,302	3,416	53,918	1,692	61,328
1936	444	2,636	3,520	70,053	2,046	78,255
1937	559	3,874	5,019	89,736	2,532	101,161

Trade in Machinery

Imports of Machinery

Imports of machinery in 1938 totalled ¥313,358,000 against ¥242,235,000 for 1937. Imports of machinery by Japan, excluding automobiles and their accessories, from 1919 to 1928, were somewhere between ¥100,000,000 and ¥140,000,000. There was a sharp reduction in 1930, and in 1931 the bottom was reached, but since then there has been a yearly increase. (See Chapter XI.)

IMPORTS OF MACHINERY (In ¥1,000)

Articles	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936	1937	1938
Watches, and parts thereof	2,853	2,094	2,684	4,021	3,742	5,645	2,893
Clocks, and parts thereof	147	112	191	170	299205		192
Microscopes, etc.	255	126	230	279	301	394	156
Ammeters, voltmeters, etc.	101	78	64	60			
Wattmeters	211	99	63	74	2,711	3,263	1,694
Other meters	1,074	1,526	1,479	2,246			
Surgical or orthopædic instruments	311	156	200	238	118	249	129
Surveying and drawing instruments	363	812	97	515	256	385	790
Registers, calculating machines, typewriters, etc.	590	574	1,020	1,247	2,001	2,012	150
Scientific instruments	1,039	1,049	1,003	1,529	1,265	2,698	1,414
Cameras, and parts thereof	966	765	1,418	2,582	3,949	6,392	1,209
Musical instruments	296	185	182	197	240	319	119
Telegraphic and telephonic instruments	1,664	2,989	1,468	1,513	1,292	1,939	3,478
Fire-arms	5,826	6,451	1,031	1,117	—	—	—
Railway carriages, and other vehicles	—	—	—	—	44,677	58,791	63,517
Boilers	1,192	1,790	4,090	6,109	3,930	5,286	5,560
Fuel economizers	—	—	393	732	329	166	462

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Articles	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936	1937	1938
Steam turbines	182	58	430	1,331	1,385	1,055	411
Internal combustion engines (weighing not more than 250 kg.)	2,292	1,826	3,253	343	—	—	—
Internal combustion engines (weighing not more than 2,500 kg.)	9,507	13,954	17,277	14,801	—	—	—
Internal combustion engines (others)	667	366	247	413	—	—	—
Water-turbines and Pelton wheels	9	—	150	90	15	8	163
Dynamos, motors, etc. (weighing not more than 100 kg.)	1,405	1,372	829	1,044			
Dynamos, motors, etc. (weighing not more than 5,000 kg.)	233	192	145	209			
Dynamos, motors, etc. (others)	4	166	248	1,003	1,805	1,841	2,766
Transformers	111	64	85	75			
Dynamos combined with motive machinery	47	112	2	6			
Cranes	4	58	12	7	—	14	397
Capstans and other winding machines	34	117	35	90	86	193	
Gas compressors	809	669	1,742	1,053	1,815	2,318	2,522
Sewing machines and accessories	3,265	2,183	5,866	6,473	7,939	10,574	386
Pumps	370	726	999	711	760	1,257	1,947
Blowing machines	161	145	231	192	591	790	400
Hydraulic presses	6	4	54	1,480	31	146	445
Pneumatic tools and machines	276	256	638	587	634	789	433
Metal or wood-working machines	5,807	16,246	21,433	18,295	—	—	—
Spinning machines	7,998	3,520	6,394	4,612	2,278	3,103	1,635
Weaving looms	106	12	40	224	238	384	—
Tissue-finishing machines	342	116	62	264			
Knitting machines	75	82	1,773	1,645	410	709	234
Paper-making machine	37	9	—	616	284	418	1,325
Printing machines	291	20	224	502	400	754	331
Card clothing	—	—	—	3,869	1,911	2,309	441
Felt for paper making	—	—	—	1,250	1,340	1,547	838
Rolls and rollers	—	—	—	916	576	473	482
Milling-cutters, gear-cutters, etc.	—	—	—	417	434	757	844
Handicraft and agricultural machines	—	—	—	1,287	1,451	2,285	428
Total including others	—	—	—	—	153,087	242,235	313,358

Note : Amounts of fire-arms, internal conbustion engines and metal or wood-working machines are not made public.

Exports of Machinery

In 1938 Japan witnessed the highest record in exports of machinery of her own making. The value of exports was ¥267,237,000. The future of Japan's machinery manufacturing depends upon the degree to which her exports expand, and especially upon the development of the market in Manchoukuo. The invasion of Japanese products into the Dutch East Indies, British India and other foreign markets is a matter of future prospect. The exportation of Japanese made spinning and weaving machines is very promising. The Toyoda Automatic Weaving Machines are very much in demand wherever the spinning industry prospers. Diesel-engines to be fitted into fishing vessels are built in Japan and shipped to the Dutch East Indies. Japanese made machines exported during the last 4 years follow :

	1935	1936	1937	1938
		(In ¥1,000)		
Hanging clocks	1,567	1,584	2,083	1,333
Table clocks	1,832	1,916	2,442	1,096
Surgical instruments	2,203	2,516	3,390	3,330
Electric batteries	1,723	1,909	2,262	3,233
Meters	1,318	1,543	2,270	3,097
Physical and chemical instruments	1,217	1,204	2,553	1,486
Musical instruments	628	693	850	786

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	1935	1936	1937	1938
		(In ¥1,000)		
Telephonic instruments	5,066	5,562	6,663	10,043
Phonographs	3,601	4,491	5,225	5,384
Measuring instruments	709	1,239	2,104	1,570
Steam boilers	1,901	1,731	3,580	4,405
Motors and dynamos	2,811			
Transformers	1,243			
Switch boards	653	15,963	15,773	26,613
Other electrical machinery	3,334			
Pumps	1,622	1,952	2,917	5,246
Metal or wood working machinery	1,941	4,907	6,233	10,324
Spinning machinery	8,977			
Weaving machines	3,568	15,121	25,440	29,984
Printing machines	1,104	1,000	1,448	2,197
Locomotives	13,776	15,087	9,314	16,338
Railway carriages and other vehicles	—	58,810	61,478	57,148
Ships	—	8,165	23,148	16,756
Cranes	1,122	1,417	1,740	3,868
Internal combustion engines	1,910	4,058	4,685	4,995
Sewing machines	365	575	1,037	651
Total including others	—	174,541	227,699	267,237

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CHAPTER XX

UTILITIES

Electricity

At the end of 1936 the number of concerns engaged in the electric business was 1,172, and the number of private electric plants in factories, etc. was 8,695. The total capacity of these 9,867 plants aggregated 6,777,422 kw., the hydro-electric 3,759,334 kw. and the thermal-electric 2,924,778 kw. Plants under construction were to have a further combined capacity of 2,067,860 kw.

Important items of electric industry are not made public since October, 1937.

ELECTRIC POWER GENERATED FOR INDUSTRIAL PURPOSES

(in kw.)

End of	Hydro-electric	Thermal	Others and Total
1912	233,339	228,864	462,203
1917	511,090	364,474	875,563
1918	597,124	386,842	983,966
1919	710,929	422,314	1,133,243
1920	825,387	552,159	1,377,546
1921	914,744	611,974	1,526,718
1922	1,070,060	709,113	1,779,173
1923	1,307,706	755,079	2,062,785
1924	1,474,357	763,146	2,237,503
1925	1,813,508	954,633	2,768,141
1926	1,965,970	1,236,644	3,202,614
1927	2,111,087	1,356,044	3,467,131
1928	2,290,351	1,531,703	3,822,054
1929	2,581,949	1,611,674	4,193,623
1930	2,797,637	1,601,677	4,399,314
1931	3,056,936	1,599,588	4,656,524
1932	3,105,930	1,827,131	4,933,061
1933	3,168,705	1,912,037	5,080,742
1934	3,268,834	2,223,113	5,491,947
1935	3,407,997	2,638,572	6,046,569
1936	3,759,334	2,924,778	6,777,422
1937	—	—	7,276,829
1938 (Oct.)	—	—	7,529,673

TOTAL VOLUME OF ELECTRIC POWER GENERATED FOR LIGHTING AND INDUSTRIAL PURPOSES

(In kw. h.)

		Rate of Increase
1926	9,091,211,608	17.5
1927	9,746,104,610	7.2
1928	11,060,496,894	13.5
1929	12,207,749,306	10.4
1930	12,160,082,835	—
1931	11,892,215,264	—
1932	12,557,696,988	5.6
1933	16,961,724,058	35.1
1934	18,793,610,146	10.8
1935	21,548,700,173	14.7
1936	24,132,870,000	8.9

GROWTH OF DEMAND FOR POWER FOR LIGHTING

End of	No. of Consumers	No. of Lamps
1927	10,547,235	32,322,991
1928	10,847,432	33,909,420
1929	11,170,618	35,893,353
1930	11,352,372	36,839,607
1931	11,446,539	37,413,988
1932	11,530,440	38,048,413
1933	11,383,235	38,382,771
1934	11,715,694	40,532,219
1935	11,948,953	42,477,828
1936	12,176,098	44,405,699
1937	12,568,725	46,969,219

ELECTRIC LIGHTING IN VARIOUS PREFECTURES AT THE END OF 1935

(Number of lights per 100 persons)

Prefecture	No.	Prefecture	No.	Prefecture	No.	Prefecture	No.
Tokyo	123.8	Yamanashi	36·4	Osaka	87.4	Hiroshima	61.9
Kanagawa	87.2	Aichi	70.6	Kyoto	125.6	Tottori	47.8
Saitama	43.4	Miyé	50.3	Hyogo	83.0	Shimané	50.0
Gumma	45.4	Gifu	54.3	Nara	64.7	Okayama	60.8
Chiba	40.6	Nagano	49.3	Shiga	57.0	Yamaguchi	55.8
Ibaraki	27.9	Fukui	75.4	Wakayama	59.4	Kagawa	50.6
Tochigi	35.7	Ishikawa	70.7	Tokushima	44.0	Ehimé	47.2
Shizuoka	57.0	Toyama	58.5	Kochi	45.1	Kumamoto	51.2
Nagasaki	38.9	Miyazaki	39.7	Niigata	50.4	Yamagata	36.4

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Prefecture	No.	Prefecture	No.	Prefecture	No.	Prefecture	No.
Fukuoka	57.4	Kagoshima	29.0	Fukushima	31.5	Akita	29.9
Oita	54.9	Okinawa	6.8	Iwaté	26.0	Hokkaido	37.7
Saga	48.0	Miyagi	40.2	Aomori	37.2	Average	61.3

POWER SUPPLY COMPANIES

Year		Generating Water	Steam	Purchasing	Total
1932	Opened	366	59	391	816
	Unopened	8	5	21	34
	Total	374	64	412	850
1933	Opened	345	56	417	818
	Unopened	7	3	15	25
	Total	352	59	433	843
1934	Opened	331	60	413	804
	Unopened	11	3	12	26
	Total	342	63	425	830
1935	Opened	319	59	410	788
	Unopened	12	3	15	30
	Total	331	62	425	818
1936	Opened	307	64	396	767
	Unopened	13	7	14	34
	Total	320	71	410	801
1938 Oct.	Opened	—	—	—	829
	Unopened	—	—	—	32
	Total	—	—	—	861

PROFITS OF ELECTRIC INDUSTRY

Year	Paid-up Capital	Profit	Rate of Profit against Paid-up Capital
	(In Yen)		
1926	2,453,588,000	279,331,000	11.0
1927	2,677,153,000	279,541,000	10.5
1928	2,868,717,000	282,880,000	10.0
1929	3,019,222,000	301,900,000	10.0
1930	3,180,810,000	255,800,000	8.0
1931	3,234,181,000	227,061,830	7.0
1932	3,326,834,000	195,887,000	5.9
1933	3,494,202,000	183,100,000	5.2
1934	3,956,686,518	205,005,470	5.2
1935	4,124,389,526	225,730,583	5.5
1936	4,296,016,000	289,414,000	6.8

According to the report of the Ministry of Commerce and Industry on the business conditions of 403 electric companies in 1937 the aggregate capital amounted to ¥3,149,087,285, reserve fund ¥204,320,669, net profit ¥195,560,074, dividend ¥171,874,648. According to the report of the Ministry of Communications the total number of electric companies, electric railway companies, self-supplying factories and governmental offices was 10,627 at the end of October, 1938, and the total amount of capital of electric companies and electric railway companies reached ¥5,631,266,861.

Electricity in 1936 and 1937

The progress of the electric light and power industry in Japan has been remarkable, especially in the last few years on account of the Governmental policy of expansion of heavy industries which has inevitably led to a corresponding increase in the supply of electric power. The consumption of electric power by the heavy and chemical industries has increased remarkably representing over 50 per cent of the total consumption of electric power for industrial purposes. According to the report of the Department of Communications the consumption of electric power by the various industries in 1932-36 was as follows:

CONSUMPTION OF ELECTRIC POWER BY INDUSTRIES

(Compiled by the Ministry of Communications)

(In 1,000 kw. h.)

	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936
Fibre Industry	1,103,153	1,254,846	1,424,818	1,689,579	1,802,421
Mining	976,184	1,157,110	1,296,205	1,440,458	1,686,288
Metal Industry	519,850	630,107	1,200,700	1,666,182	2,219,902
Machine and Tool Manufacturing	152,621	217,102	292,408	373,872	466,466
Chemical Industry	2,896,845	2,415,964	4,044,205	5,051,275	5,895,349
Ceramic Industry	459,504	537,380	587,993	745,254	822,819
Foodstuffs	60,166	71,244	74,819	99,171	122,051
Others	179,243	222,690	243,220	314,536	350,400
Total	6,347,566	7,506,443	9,264,568	11,380,327	13,265,696

Capacity of Power Plants in 1936 The total power generated by power plants in 1936 was 6,777,422 kw., 85 per cent of which was supplied for industrial purposes, and 15 per cent was consumed by the plants themselves. Hydro-electric power generated represented 55 per cent and thermal-electric power 45 per cent. The rate of increase in the past 10 years was

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95 per cent in the total, 78 per cent in hydro-electric power, and 115 per cent in thermal-electric power.

CAPACITY OF POWER PLANTS IN JAPAN PROPER
(At the end of 1936)
(In kw.)

Description of Power Plants	Supplied to Others	For Self Consumption	Total
Total hydro electric	5,246,966	189,642	5,436,608
Completed	3,651,547	107,787	3,759,334
Under Construction	1,595,419	81,855	1,677,274
Total thermal-electric	2,441,211	865,742	3,306,953
Completed	2,125,036	799,742	2,924,778
Under Construction	316,175	66,000	382,175
Total internal combustion	17,476	84,245	101,721
Completed	17,389	75,921	93,310
Under Construction	87	8,324	8,411
Total	7,705,653	1,139,629	8,845,282
Completed	5,793,972	983,450	6,777,422
Under Construction	1,911,681	156,179	2,067,860

Electric Lights Electric lighting facilities were available in all the 11,500 towns and villages in Japan proper, except in 199 small villages located in the remotest districts and lone islets. The number of electric lamps installed by the end of 1936 was 44,405,699, an increase of 1,927,871 or 4.5 per cent over the previous year. This figures out at 63 lamps per 100 of population.

Electric Power Consumed in 1936 The demand for electricity, both for lighting and for power, grew steadily during the year, the volume utilized for the various industrial purposes in 1936 reaching 4,899,377 kw., an increase of 154 per cent in the past 10 years, and 49 per cent in the past 5 years.

ELECTRIC POWER CONSUMED IN 1936
BY KINDS OF INDUSTRY

	kw.	Percentage
Fibre and Textiles	647,477	13
Metal Works	876,988	17
Machine and Tool Mfg.	286,924	6
Ceramic Industry	335,292	7
Chemical Industry	1,033,190	22
Saw mills and Timber Works	170,825	3
Printing and Bookbinding	26,023	1
Foodstuffs	337,984	6
Miscellaneous	78,470	2
Mining	380,165	8
Agriculture and Fisheries	88,699	2
Others	637,337	13
Total	4,899,377	100

The total consumption of electric power in 1936 was 24,132,870,000 kw. h. According to the statistical year-book of the League of Nations, Japan occupies the third position among the important consumers of electric power in the world, surpassed only by the United States and Canada.

Business Results The total amount of the authorized capital of the electric power supply companies in Japan proper in 1936 reached ¥5,491,000,000 an increase of ¥288,000,000 over the previous year. Shares and loans amounted to ¥2,199,000,000, corresponding to 52 per cent of the paid-up capital and 37 per cent of the fixed assets. The profit amounted to ¥289,000,000 or 6.8 per cent on the paid-up capital. Of the 820 companies 4 per cent were able to pay over 10 per cent dividend, 35 per cent over 5 per cent dividend, the companies which paid dividends numbering 62 per cent.

Activities in China With the progress of the China Affair the electric power companies of Japan found new fields for their activities and are extending their operations to those parts of China where peace has been restored. The Japan Electric Power Suppliers' Association has established the North China Electric Development Company with an authorized capital amounting to ¥5,000,000 (one-fourth paid-up) for supplying electric power to the Tientsin district with the present capacity of 30,000 kw. The proposed plan for North China is to increase the capacity to 100,000 kw. with a capitalization of ¥50,000,000.

For the reorganization of electric power business in Central China the five largest electric power companies of Japan are going to form an association in accordance with the Governmental

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plan to supply power to Shanghai and Nanking districts, and engineers have been sent to make a thorough investigation there.

State Control of Electric Power The problem of State control of electric power has been a subject of discussion for several years past among the persons directly concerned, and the project was put to a most careful examination, in view of the vastness of the sphere involved, before it was framed into a bill and passed by the 73rd Diet.

For several years past this project sponsored by the Government had met with vigorous opposition from experts and electric power companies both in and out of the Diet house and the project seemed to have arrived at a deadlock. In the meanwhile the situation at home and abroad had developed to such a stage that the Government found it necessary to strengthen its control on many industrial and commercial enterprises, and the power control was taken up once more as one of the most important measures for consolidating national life. The Konoé Cabinet commanded the implicit confidence of the whole nation and the country looked to it for the solution of many a pending problem. Communications Minister Ryutaro Nagai had been one of the ardent advocates of the State control of electric power for years and he immediately took up the problem and ordered the formation of the Extraordinary Commission for Enquiry into Electric Power Problem. On October 13, 1937, the Commission was organized under the presidency of the Minister of Communications with 33 members, including 4 Government officials, 3 members of the House of Peers, 8 members of the House of Representatives, 5 big electric power owners, 3 representative consumers, 5 bankers, and 5 electric experts. The Commission submitted its final recommendations on November 19, after the conclusion of its deliberations lasting for a month. The Government approved the report and framed on its basis the electric Power Control Bill and placed it before the Diet session on January 25, 1938. The bill was passed, on March 26, after heated debates between the two sides and with amendments on several important points, accompanied by revisions of existing laws relating to electric industry and commerce.

The purpose of the State control of electric power is stated in Article I of the newly enacted law as follows: Generation and transmission of electric power shall be controlled by the Government in order to supply more abundant volume of electric power and at cheaper prices so as to make it more easily available to the people. Article II states that the State control of electric power is to be carried out through a new semi-Governmental corporation.

The new concern is called Nippon Has-So Den Kabushiki Kaisha (Japan Electric Power Generating and Transmitting Joint Stock Company). The Company will have under its control (a) all the important new equipment to be installed for generating hydro-electric power as well as the existing equipment which cannot be dispensed with for rational utilization of water power resources, (b) important thermal power plants and (c) important equipment for power transmission.

The State power control will not be extended over water power resources already developed, inasmuch as the volume of water utilized for the purpose of generating power by the existing plants is more or less fixed and no measure of control is felt necessary other than that of transmission lines for the full utilization of these resources. But equipment such as that used for the purpose of generating a supplementary supply of power, and the hydraulic equipment already in operation which must be radically reconstructed in order to ensure better and more complete utilization of resources will come under State control.

All the new equipment coming within the scope of State control shall be operated by the new company, and plants which are already in operation shall be placed under the management or direction of the new company. The hydraulic electric power generated by the existing plants shall be sold to the new company, which will have the lines to transmit it to the distributors.

In carrying out the control measures, important matters relating to supply and demand, plans for the construction of the generating and transmitting equipment are to be decided on by the Government on the basis of the recommendations submitted by the Electric Power Council which is to be created with a membership including the most skilled technicians and experienced administrators, the execution of the plans and the actual operation of business being left to the new company. The new company will be given governmental assistance in rais-

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ing funds and guaranteeing dividends, and will be awarded a reduction of or exemption from taxes and such other privileges necessary for business operation. The officers of the company are to be appointed by the Government; all additions to or alterations in the laws relating to the company, the issuance of debentures, the disposition of profits and other important matters are to be carried out with the approval of the Government, which will also issue orders relating to the business management of the company.

In enlarging the scope of power distribution, a rearrangement and coordination of areas shall be effected. Improvement of business conditions and a more extensive use of power all over the country are among the objects aimed at by the Government. For the purpose of lowering and equalizing the rate of distribution Governmental supervision shall be augmented.

A fair quantity of surplus power shall be kept in store at all times in preparation for emergencies and reserve equipment shall be porperly arranged. Power generated for private use will also be subjected to State control to a certain extent. With a view to ensuring the supply of power and meeting the immediate needs the measure for control of consumption will be carried out according to the requirements of the circumstances.

Proposed Plan of the Nippon Has-so Den Kabushiki Kaisha The proposed plan of the new semi-Governmental electric company revealed by the Government on February 7, 1938 at the special committee of enquiry on the power control bill of the House of Representatives is as follows:

1. The company shall be capitalized at ¥880,000,000, of which ¥780,000,000 shall be obtained through conversion of the fixed assets and rights of the existing companies and equipment and the new equipment to be installed in the first 2 years of the establishment of the company. The remaining ¥100,000,000 shall be raised from among the general public.

2. The construction plan of the company includes the establishment of the following plants over a period of ten years: Hydraulic generating plants with a capacity for 3,200,000 kw.; Thermal generating plants with a capacity for 4,500,000 kw.; Transmission lines 13,000 km.; Transformer stations for 10,400,000 k.v.a. The expenses for the construction of the new plants and stations will amount to ¥1,890,000,000 during the 10 years after the establishment of the company in accordance with the 10-year programme.

Business Plan When the 10-year programme is complete the company will be able to supply electric power to the quantity of 7,300,000 kw. or over 45,000,000,000 kw. h. The income will be ¥526,640,000; the expenditure ¥446,990,000; net profit 79,650,000; dividend ¥60,200,000 (at 7 per cent); and reserves ¥19,450,000.

The capacity of generating and transmitting power will be as stated in the construction plan mentioned above in addition to 3,500,000 kw. of purchased electric power. The fixed assets of the company will be ¥2,670,000,000.

Start of the New Company The special commission for the valuation of the fixed assets and rights of the existing companies came, on December 14, 1938, to the conclusion that the total amount of their value for 33 electric companies reached ¥653,100,000, and decided on the capital of the new company as ¥753,100,000, adding to the above, another ¥100,000,000 which is to be obtained by floatation of shares. Of the 33 companies those companies which were valued as surpassing ¥10,000,000 were as follows:

Tokyo Electric Light Co.	¥136,700,000
Daido Electric Power	102,300,000
Nippon Electric	100,600,000
Kwansai Kyodo Electric	57,800,000
Toho Electric Power	40,600,000
Ujigawa Electric Power	35,800,000
Sanyo Central Electric	18,000,009
Kyushu Electric	17,000,000
Hiroshima Electric Power	16,500,000
Showa Electric Power	15,800,000
Yamaguchi Prefectural Electric	15,600,000
Chugoku Godo Electric	12,600,000

On April 1, 1939, the members of the Board of Directors were appointed and the arrangements with other companies involving the taking-over of staffs and employees and the transfer of assets and equipment were completed. The important contract in respect of the taking-over of electric power amounting to 2,200,000 kilowatts from fifty-two companies and of the supply of 3,400,000 kilowatts of electric power to seventy companies has been executed smoothly.

The company enjoys no privilege in the way of exemption from taxes but debentures it issues have the guarantee of the Government, so that the company will have no difficulties in matters of finance.

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Gas Industry

Introduction

When compared with the electric industry, the gas industry has been very slow in its development. The introduction of gas took place in 1885, when it was used in Yokohama for street lighting purposes. Later in the same year Tokyo adopted it for the same purpose. The capital invested in 1885 was ¥54,000, and a slow but steady increase took place until 1925, when the invested capital stood at ¥276,373,000. After that year the industry made great strides as the following figures show:

	Coal Consumed	Output	Amount Supplied to Consumers	No. of Consumers	No. of Lights and Burners	Byproducts		Gas Motors	
						Coke	Coaltar	Number	Horsepower
	Metric ton	Thousand cubic metres	Thousand cubic metres			(Unit: metric ton)	(Unit: 1,000 litres)		
1932	1,283,216	734,188	712,717	1,785,205	3,921,620	851,268	66,032	437	12,517
1933	1,402,000	770,447	709,967	1,866,369	4,145,549	933,596	73,252	476	13,947
1934	1,461,000	1,046,639	741,787	1,906,409	4,242,215	971,242	75,923	528	42,486
1935	1,522,000	1,219,746	771,534	1,995,000	4,453,919	1,012,443	83,865	529	41,777
1936	1,614,000	858,965	810,095	2,112,000	5,771,537	1,068,968	86,204	548	45,023
1937	2,243,000	—	859,424	2,233,000	6,173,970	1,134,220	90,162	653	42,977

BUSINESS RESULTS OF GAS COMPANIES

(In ¥1,000)

March	Paid-up Capital	Fixed Assets	Profit	Percentage of Profit against Fixed Capital	Dividend Rate
1932	395,632	571,564	51,452	8.7%	8.3%
1933	400,908	580,053	50,317	9.1	8.0
1934	419,096	584,323	53,029	9.1	7.8
1935	440,210	585,998	60,295	13.6	7.6
1936	458,196	591,637	70,302	11.9	7.8
1937	460,403	608,919	78,232	12.8	8.4
1938	326,654	402,211	54,035	13.4	8.4

Gas Industry in 1937

At the beginning of 1937 the gas companies in operation numbered 111, and those which were about to be launched out numbered 10. The former had increased by 3 while the latter had decreased by an equal number as compared with the previous year. The business conditions of these gas concerns were as follows:

BUSINESS CONDITIONS OF GAS INDUSTRY IN 1937

(In ¥1,000)

Producers	Authorized Capital	Paid-up Capital	Loans	Reserves	Working Expenditure
Six big municipalities	271,395	195,110	18,113	19,737	230,419
Other municipalities	62,368	38,152	6,696	4,246	44,687
Private companies	295,884	227,140	141,898	117,769	13,279
Total	629,647	460,402	176,707	222,752	288,385

The authorized capital increased by ¥8,257,000 and the paid-up capital by ¥2,207,000 over the previous year.

The volume of gas supplied in 1937 reached 810,095,000 cubic metres, an increase of 4.9 per cent over the previous year. The aggregate income amounted to ¥186,904,000 against ¥108,645,000 of disbursement, increasing ¥15,766,000 (9.2 per cent) and ¥7,966,000 (7.9 per cent)

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respectively over the previous year. The average rate of dividend was 8.4 an increase of 0.6, and had a balance of ¥7,000,000 which was carried over to the first half of 1938. The reason for better business conditions in 1937 is to be found in the unprecedented activity of the heavy industries during the year, the prosperity of the gas industry being more noticeable in the larger cities.

The principal material being used for the production of gas is coal, but coke and oil are also used to a considerable extent. The use of the best kind of coal is indispensable both for gas production itself and for obtaining the best coke. The coal used by the gas producers in Japan proper is mined mostly in the Japanese islands. Coke used for various purposes in gas industry in a year is estimated at about 245,000 metric tons. The amount of coal consumed for the production of gas as well as coke in 1937 was estimated at 2,243,000 metric tons.

The by-products such as coke, coaltar, and chemicals, are numerous and are increasingly demanded by various other industries. The future of the gas industry, therefore, is bright and may undergo a considerable readjustment in scope and extent. But the revenue for the industry through supplying gas to private homes cannot be expected to increase because of the strict price-control effected by the Government in the interest of people's economy.

Warehousing

History

Since warehousing depends on the storing of large quantities of goods, transportation facilities are the factors which influence its success, an expansion of one calls for an expansion of the other and, in Japan, it was the development of transport facilities in the days of Meiji which gave rise to the modern warehousing business.

Warehouses of kinds have always existed. Emperors in olden times kept rice and cereals in warehouses for military purposes. Later, cereals were kept to provide for relief of the people in case of poor crops, but in either case, the warehouses were used for military or political, not commercial, purposes. When the Tokugawas came to rule the country as Shoguns about three hundred years ago, both Yedo (present Tokyo) and Osaka became great cities where trade and commerce flourished. Transportation by sea developed, and many feudal lords came to reside in these cities, bringing with them, or having sent to them, the agricultural products of their country districts. The produce was stored at the lords' residences, which became, in a sense, public warehouses. The produce was sold by public tender and to the successful bidder a memorandum was given against receipt of payment in cash. This memorandum was equivalent to the warehouse receipt of the present day, and the holder of the memorandum was authorized to keep his cereals in the warehouses for the time stipulated on it. Loans were often raised with memoranda as collaterals.

After the Restoration, owing to development of commerce and activity in the movement of goods, many warehouse businsses were started, the first company, to operate on a modern basis being the Soko Kaisha in Fukagawa, Tokyo, established in 1881 with a capital of ¥65,000. Dissolution took place 3 years later. In Osaka, the Konoiké family organized the Osaka Soko Kaisha with a capital of ¥200,000 in 1882. In 1883, the Sanbashi Kaisha in Kobé, and in 1884, the Otsu Soko Kaisha in Otsu in Shiga prefecture, were established. In 1886, the Tokyo Soko Kaisha, Ltd., was founded by the Iwasaki family. After that year there was no great change until after the Sino-Japanese War, when with increased foreign trade and improved transportation ficilities by land and sea, the number of warehouse companies rapidly increased. In 1906, there were 536 people engaged in the warehouse business, either on private account or on an incorporated basis.

Present State of the Business

At the end of 1938 the number of warehouses managed by the member companies of the Japan Warehouse Association was 188, the value of commodities stored, being, on the average throughout the year, ¥773,045,000. According to an investigation made by the Department of Commerce and Industry, the number of warehouse managements in the country totalled 462, capitalized with ¥178,805,734, and profit gained ¥5,046,841 in 1937.

Value of Commodities The quantity and value of commodities stored in the ware-houses were as follows:

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STOCKS IN WAREHOUSES IN JAPAN PROPER

(According to the Japan Warehouse Association)

Year	Average			End of June			End of December		
	Warehouses	1,000 Parcels	Value ¥1,000	Warehouses	1,000 Parcels	Value ¥1,000	Warehouses	1,000 Parcels	Value ¥1,000
1930	98	23,691	483,436	99	24,866	603,941	97	21,270	356,844
1931	96	22,322	432,715	96	22,113	458,917	96	24,134	410,988
1932	97	26,732	510,957	98	29,712	546,683	98	23,134	486,144
1933	101	27,041	577,555	99	28,901	629,965	105	28,892	585,085
1934	107	37,467	719,276	108	40,208	775,846	107	33,016	661,809
1935	108	31,750	645,913	107	33,449	686,155	111	27,284	537,809
1936	127	29,461	614,381	114	30,935	683,639	155	26,026	539,635
1937	173	33,020	807,692	175	34,045	936,759	183	33,550	722,408
1938	186	33,933	773,045	187	35,691	762,675	188	30,967	718,828

Stocks in Warehouses by Districts

End of	Tokyo-Yokohama District			Kobe-Osaka District			Other District		
	Warehouses	1,000 Parcels	Value ¥1,000	Warehouses	1,000 Parcels	Value ¥1,000	Warehouses	1,000 Parcels	Value ¥1,000
1930	19	4,825	144,265	14	9,099	146,342	64	7,345	66,236
1931	19	6,020	159,453	14	9,581	164,500	63	8,532	87,033
1932	20	6,782	182,114	14	8,849	213,263	64	7,492	90,765
1933	21	7,337	187,227	14	11,350	270,406	70	10,204	127,451
1934	21	8,770	202,383	14	10,670	297,127	72	13,575	162,293
1935	20	6,314	165,953	16	8,339	217,798	75	12,630	154,158
1936	24	5,808	134,335	19	7,913	254,411	112	12,305	149,889
1937	24	6,054	186,143	21	9,822	302,009	138	17,674	234,256
1938	27	5,564	199,322	21	8,801	279,648	140	16,602	239,858

STOCKS IN WAREHOUSES BY IMPORTANT COMMODITIES

(Quantity in 1,000 parcels)

At the end of	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936	1937	1938
Rice	4,188	10,386	9,966	14,381	18,630	9,714	6,525	7,729	6,906
Other Cereals and Flour	1,186	1,741	1,384	2,118	2,267	2,870	2,870	3,804	3,802
Sugar	894	1,597	2,637	2,156	818	910	1,011	1,420	654
Foodstuffs	4,443	1,911	1,464	1,493	2,373	2,776	3,914	3,264	3,257
Cocoon	247	269	246	338	218	211	298	369	306
Cottons	103	83	242	368	383	127	303	149	117
Wool, etc.	23	75	115	153	126	139	77	114	88
Yarns	240	309	212	194	223	245	173	547	535
Textiles	158	219	165	305	301	1,162	362	961	817
Paper and Materials	1,233	1,022	541	418	680	810	720	71	679
Fertilizers and materials	3,882	3,026	2,400	1,959	1,610	2,127	2,550	2,738	2,522
Iron and Metal Manufactures	2,516	1,856	1,603	3,303	2,809	3,452	3,826	5,027	5,502
Chemicals, Dyestuff, Fats	615	605	470	472	572	914	1,181	1,017	852
Total	21,270	24,134	23,134	28,892	33,016	27,284	26,026	33,550	30,967

(Value in ¥1,000,000)

At the end of	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936	1937	1938
Rice	29.0	77.2	86.7	122.3	198.2	108.7	75.3	89.5	87.1
Other Cereals and Flour	7.1	6.4	14.6	9.5	15.3	19.3	27.9	36.6	38.4
Sugar	14.2	22.2	46.9	39.5	12.4	15.1	15.3	26.9	12.5
Foodstuffs	24.5	24.0	21.0	18.1	30.7	35.4	43.5	43.0	53.0
Cocoons	10.4	10.6	15.2	18.2	9.6	15.2	17.2	20.1	16.6
Cotton	14.5	9.6	46.1	68.1	82.7	22.8	68.3	22.8	8.4
Wool, etc.	8.0	21.6	43.9	35.1	37.2	21.1	22.2	41.5	26.1

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Yarns	103.1	119.2	126.6	123.3	115.8	102.3	77.3	103.4	94.9
Textiles	23.4	24.9	21.1	44.2	45.1	49.4	43.9	81.4	142.3
Paper and Materials	49.5	42.6	29.0	22.2	25.5	31.3	29.6	41.9	37.9
Fertilizers and Materials	15.7	17.0	12.7	7.6	6.6	9.6	15.5	19.3	15.1
Iron and Manufactures	24.7	17.1	14.6	27.4	22.6	36.0	34.9	73.0	77.7
Chemicals, Dyestuff, Fats	12.7	10.7	9.3	13.7	12.9	17.5	21.4	32.8	30.4
Others	23.6	21.0	20.1	26.5	33.7	37.3	48.2	89.7	77.8
Total	356.8	410.9	486.1	585.0	661.8	537.8	539.6	722.4	718.8

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CHAPTER XXI

FOODSTUFFS

(Manufactured)

Wheat Flour

Historical Survey

Before the Russo-Japanese War It was not until after the Russo-Japanese War (1904–5) that the wheat flour industry made any progress in Japan. Prior to the war there was a fairly large consumption, but manufacturing was only in the infant stage, most of the production being with the help of water-wheels. The daily output by this method was only 10 to 50 or 60 bags; the quality was poor and not uniform and, being packed in straw bags, the product was not at all satisfactory. It was only in the year 1895 that wheat flour was first produced on a modern basis by machinery. In that year, the Nippon Seifun Kaisha, Ltd., began to operate mills with a capacity of 200 koku per day, and gradually, mills with capacities of 50 to 100 koku a day were established, but progress was very slow. However, the demand for flour increased and as production could not keep pace with it imports naturally increased. In 1895, imports were 280,000 bags, valued at ¥400,000, ten years later imports had increased to 4,990,000 bags, valued at ¥9,950,000. Imported and water-mill produced domestic flour together satisfied practically the whole of home consumption, while domestic flour made by machinery formed but a very small part of the supply. The imported flour coming chiefly from the United States of America, was of a far superior quality to the home product.

Yield of Wheat Before 1901, the land used for wheat planting averaged between 440,000 and 480,000 cho, and in 1905, it was 450,000 cho. The yield of wheat gradually increased up to 1901, when it was 4,370,000 koku, but during the next few years there was a gradual decrease until in 1905 the yield was 3,600,000 koku.

As regards imported wheat, the amount imported usually depended upon the domestic wheat crops, but showed in general a gradual increase. In 1895 imports were only 1,600 koku with a value of ¥7,500. In 1902 they had increased to 38,000 koku, valued at ¥240,000. The year 1903 proved to be a lean year for domestic wheat, and imports suddenly increased to 560,000 koku, of a value of ¥4,760,000. After that, owing to the prosperity which visited Japan after the war with Russia, wheat continued to be imported in large quantities. In 1904 it was 170,000 koku, valued at ¥1,530,000, and in 1905, 450,000 koku, valued at ¥4,000,000.

After the Russo-Japanese War Many flour mills were established on a modern basis during the time of the great boom which followed the Russo-Japanese War, and production capacity was greatly expanded, but a contraction was brought about by the closing down of many of the newly established mills when the reaction later set in. In 1914, when the World War started the capacity of production by machinery was 9,060 barrels and this, by 1922, had increased to over 20,000 barrels. During those seven years the industry experienced unprecedented prosperity, and with this development on modern lines, domestic producers who make flour in the old-fashioned way have lost nearly all their customers and, further, imported flour has been practically shut out of the country.

The Industry at Present

Production and Imports of Wheat After 1918 the demand for wheat flour, keeping pace with the advance in the standard of living, greatly increased. The extended westernization of the country in recent years largely accounts for this and has brought about a consequent heavy demand for wheat. Home production has not increased to meet the demand, the result being, as the following tables show, heavy annual importations of wheat. An attempt, therefore, has been made by the Government to increase domestic production through tariff and increase of wheat acreage, in which they were highly successful. The production increased

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very much in 1933 in proportion to the increased acreage, which was further accelerated in 1935, when an all-time record high was established. The production in 1936 decreased by 7.2 per cent as compared with the preceding year. But, 1937 production recorded highest in the history with 9,996,048 koku. In 1938, the wheat production was estimated at over 10 million koku, but on account of the damages by typhoon and the attack of insects and bacteria the actual crop was reduced to 8,900,000 koku.

PRODUCTION OF DOMESTIC WHEAT AND ITS ACREAGE

Year	Production koku	Acreage cho
1930	6,124,000	491,000
1931	6,405,000	501,000
1932	6,497,000	508,000
1933	8,013,000	616,000
1934	9,450,700	648,000
1935	9,655,824	663,868
1936	8,961,329	688,959
1937	9,996,048	724,602
1938	8,971,563	725,100

QUANTITIES OF WHEAT IMPORTED

(Quantities in piculs)

Year	Countries from Which Imported: China	U.S.A.	Canada	Australia	Manchoukuo	Total including others	Value (In 1,000 yen)
1931	23	884,210	2,597,625	8,554,294	—	12,039,531	32,935
1932	—	195,634	1,983,110	10,264,635	—	12,443,434	49,572
1933	—	49,367	1,874,606	6,593,331	—	8,520,470	44,384
1934	17,820	2,220,803	1,325,549	4,455,025	—	8,155,061	40,748
1935	3,000	45,994	881,786	5,558,084	—	7,417,300	43,199
1936	321,947	61,818	164,000	2,812,246	236,149	5,171,076	33,650
1937	25,202	18,860	65,500	1,679,998	205,988	3,114,102	29,604
1938	53,665	—	—	510,235	298,172	1,104,416	9,557

EXPORTS OF WHEAT FLOUR

(Quantities in piculs)

Year	Countries to Which Exported: Manchoukou	China	Kwantung Province	Dutch East Indies	Others and Total	Value (In 1,000 yen)
1931	—	1,684,775	490,162	14,068	2,252,011	9,517
1932	858,103	1,049,163	2,572,327	5,998	3,694,883	20,539
1933	1,427,036	482,700	803,963	14,068	5,304,249	34,955
1934	1,402,032	17,133	2,899,819	8,988	4,427,819	28,451
1935	2,035,048	29,123	2,366,348	10,323	4,819,629	33,699
1936	736,486	89,965	1,065,858	19,500	2,165,330	17,621
1937	231,900	1,283,384	1,047,577	9,700	2,683,066	30,745
1938	1,198,597	1,880,771	1,679,180	200	4,758,869	60,715

FLOUR PRODUCTION, CONSUMPTION, ETC

(In bags)

Year	Production	Import	Export	Home Consumption and in Stock
1930	40,962,000	877,000	5,396,000	36,443,000
1931	42,088,000	258,000	6,080,000	36,266,000
1932	41,989,000	112,000	9,976,000	32,125,000
1933	41,395,892	40,246	14,321,472	26,114,666
1934	46,084,000	45,400	11,966,000	34,175,000
1935	49,700,000	93,000	13,026,000	36,767,000
1936	38,993,000	1,04,000	5,852,000	33,242,000
1937	38,335,000	410,000	7,251,000	31,159,000
1938	42,964,000	19,000	12,862,000	30,121,000

Note: A bag=37 kin.

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Flour Industry in 1938

The wheat flour industry which had been dull in the first half of 1937 was quickened into activity in the second half, and the monthly production in 1938 always kept the mark of over 3 million bags and the total for 1938 was 42,964,000 bags according to the investigation of the Nisshin Flour Company, (The Department of Commerce and Industry puts it as 41,971,000 bags). It is an increase of 4,679,000 bags or 12 per cent over the previous year.

The home consumption of wheat flour remained almost the same as that for the previous year, while the exports showed a great increase with the total volume of 4,758,869 piculs valued at ¥60,715,000 which represents an increase of 77 per cent in volume and 97 per cent in value over the previous year, mainly because of a greater demand in Manchoukuo and North and Central China where peace and order was restored. Manchoukuo bought 1,198,597 piculs as against 231,900 piculs for 1937. China who had bought only 17,133 piculs in 1934, bought as much as 1,880,771 piculs in 1938 setting the highest record in the recent years.

The price was high all through the year with the rise in price of wheat and Tokyo futures fluctuated between ¥4.73 and ¥5.10 per bag, making an average of ¥4.93 for the year, 3 sen cheaper as compared with the previous year.

Sugar

History and Development

The art of making sugar was introduced from China about two hundred years ago, but no great progress is recorded in sugar manufacture until after the Restoration, and even then it remained as a farmers' sideline until the end of the Sino-Japanese War of 1894-5, when Formosa, well-known for its sugar production, was ceded to Japan by China. This marked a new era in the sugar industry. In 1896, a sugar refining company was organized in Osaka and from that time the industry began to develop.

The Government undertook to levy a duty on raw sugar in 1899, and, by successive steps, this duty has reached the present rate. In 1911, a tariff of a similar nature was imposed, for the first time, on refined sugar.

In view of the fact that Formosa is ideal both in temperature and rainfall for cane growing the Government decided to encourage the establishment of sugar mills in the Island. With this in view it established the Temporary Sugar Bureau as a branch of the Government of Formosa. The Bureau subsidized sugar companies in establishing sugar mills and purchasing required machinery.. It imported cane seedlings and distributed them to cane growers. It gave, too, subsidies for the purchase of fertilizes, and in various other ways succeeded in dispensing as subsidies, up to 1924, a sum amounting to more than thirteen million yen. As the result of these subsidies, the industry has developed to the present stage. In 1902, the production of raw sugar in Formosa was only about 600,000 piculs, but by 1931 this had increased to over 13,000,000 piculs.

In 1901, the Taiwan Sugar Co., Ltd., was organized. Raw sugar mills with all new machines were established and war was declared against the old-fashioned machines which were only able to produce raw brown sugar. Development was destined to be slow, for the plantations and mills were subject to attacks from the native savages, but this difficulty was gradually overcome and during the prosperity that visited Japan after the Russo-Japanese War, many new companies were organized and the industry developed rapidly.

Present State of the Industry

The sugar industry in Shikoku, Kyushu, and the Loochoo Islands is making no headway, but that in Formosa and the South Sea Islands is rapidly progressing, and at present it is the Formosan sugar that controls the sugar market in Japan. Refining is making good progress in Japan proper.

PRODUCTION OF SUGAR

(Unit 1,000 piculs)

Year	Formosa	Japan Proper	Hokkaido (Beet)	Korea	South Sea Islands	Total
1924-1925	7,992	1,201	167	6	148	9,516
1925-1926	8,332	1,399	190	9	152	10,083

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Year	Formosa	Japan Proper	Hokkaido (Beet)	Korea	South Sea Islands	Total
1926-1927	6,852	1,299	286	5	209	8,653
1927-1928	9,667	1,438	343	9	181	11,640
1928-1929	13,155	1,523	343	10	164	15,197
1929-1930	13,508	1,222	424	11	345	15,511
1930-1931	13,287	1,273	361	15	642	15,580
1931-1932	16,484	1,651	405	29	696	19,266
1932-1933	10,561	1,712	402	—	729	13,406
1933-1934	10,783	1,551	383	—	750	13,469
1934-1935	16,094	1,752	587	—	1,135	19,568
1935-1936	15,034	1,981	515	—	819	18,351
1936-1937	16,789	1,559	678	—	961	20,037
1937-1938	16,496	1,715	694	—	1,241	20,210
1938-1939*	22,650	2,063	687	—	1,274	26,739

* Estimate

Source: The report of the Japan Sugar Association.

EXPORTS OF REFINED SUGAR BY DESTINATION

(In piculs)

Year	China	Manchoukuo	Kwantung	Total including Others
1930	3,007,528	114,804	326,541	3,637,298
1931	1,695,667	88,922	370,810	2,622,211
1932	466,877	54,790	799,840	1,389,507
1933	901,525	96,703	1,015,941	2,172,317
1934	1,041,527	162,255	715,093	2,019,868
1935	1,481,898	227,389	792,578	2,669,213
1936	905,171	193,222	1,780,225	2,978,643
1937	1,159,358	216,087	1,001,814	2,482,145
1938	701,882	293,775	1,271,668	2,267,853

IMPORTS OF REFINED SUGAR BY ORIGINS

(In piculs)

Year	Java	Others & Total
1929	3,673,640	3,795,281
1930	4,072,494	4,077,603
1931	3,304,251	3,305,275
1932	644,927	671,299
1933	2,184,499	2,210,124
1934	1,727,188	1,732,188
1935	2,323,117	2,341,841
1936	3,396,964	3,900,079
1937	2,698,347	2,845,068
1938	635,183	639,858

SUPPLY AND DEMAND OF SUGAR IN JAPAN PROPER

(Compiled by the Formosan Government-General)

(In 1,000 piculs)

	1933	1934	1935	1936	1937	1938
Production in Japan proper	2,118.7	1,946.1	2,316.8	2,505.2	2,237.4	2,410.3
Imports from foreign countries	2,210.1	1,732.1	2,341.8	3,600.0	2,845.0	639.8
Imports from territories	10,541.1	11,616.3	15,152.5	13,076.6	13,043.4	12,411.8
Exports to foreign countries	2,172.3	2,019.8	2,669.2	2,978.6	2,482.1	2,267.8
Exports to territories	162.3	211.4	227.9	241.2	236.5	245.0
Consumption in Japan proper	12,535.3	13,063.3	16,914.0	15,962.0	15,407.2	12,949.1
Consumption per capita (Unit: kin)	18.56	19.06	24.30	22.61	21.52	17.85

Various Sugar Companies

The following table shows capacities, standings, etc., of the principal sugar companies in Japan as of 1937-1938:

CAPITAL, CAPACITIES, ETC. OF SUGAR COMPANIES

1937-38

Company	Capital		Per Diem Capacity		Production of sugar	
	Authorized	Paid-up	Raw sugar	Refined sugar	Raw	Refined
	in yen	in yen	in long ton	in long ton	(piculs)	
Taiwan Seito Co., Ltd.	63,000,000	43,080,000	11,814	432	4,510,000	1,333,000
Dai-Nippon Seito Co., Ltd.	61,970,000	56,332,500	11,619	810	3,977,000	1,179,000
Ensuiko Seito Co. Ltd.	60,000,000	36,937,500	5,250	400	2,506,385	915,522
Meiji Seito Co., Ltd.	58,000,000	45,000,000	8,710	1,050	2,974,000	1,760,936
Teikoku Seito Co., Ltd.	27,000,000	20,050,000	3,774	—	1,070,000	—
Showa Seito Co., Ltd.	15,000,000	11,250,000	3,930	—	861,628	—

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Brewing

Beer

Historical Beer was brewed in Japan about 80 years ago by a certain scholar, Mr. Ko Kawamoto, who, as he learned how to brew it when he visited Admiral Perry's fleet, on the latter's visit to Japan, tried to brew on his own private account. In 1870, beer was brewed for the first time on a modern industrial basis by an American, Mr. Gobland, at Amanuma, Yokohama. Four years later, Marquis K. Kuroda saw that the soil of Hokkaido was particularly suitable for barley, so he established a brewery in Sapporo, and soon others were built in Meguro, Tokyo, in Suita, Osaka, in Hodogaya, Yokohama, and other places, and the industry has so developed that at present Japan has six beer brewery companies and fifteen breweries with a total capacity of about 2,000,000 koku.

At the end of Feburary	No. of Brewery	Production of Beer (In Koku)
1930	14	846,014
1931	14	797,544
1932	14	797,283
1933	14	959,762
1934	14	980,175
1935	14	1,047,213
1936	15	1,312,496
1937	15	1,275,055

Japan as Beer Consuming Country In spite of the increase in consumption, Japan still occupies an insignificant position as beer producer and consumer in the world. Her production of about 1,000,000 koku in 1933 stands at the fourteenth in the list of beer producing countries with the U. S. A.'s 27,000,000 koku as the first. Also her per capita consumption of 2.77 litres was the tweny-eighth in the list of beer consumers with Belgium's 176.46 litres at the head. This is easy to explain. Most of her people take saké, the production of which is about 4.5 times as large as beer. Saké is the standard drink, only a very small quantity of which is enough for average man. In other countries, beer is a staple, an article of food. But in Japan it is something of luxury, reserved for the people of middle and upper classes. A bottle of beer, which contains about one-fifth of a gallon of beer, sells about at 50 or 60 sen, which is too high for average Japanese farmers or wage-earners. If the Japanese of these classes take as much beer as the Belgians do they would spend greater portion of their income on beer.

Beer in 1938. The amount of beer production of four major companies in 1938 reached 1,476,000 koku, an increase of 215,000 koku or 17 per cent over the previous year.

Exports of Beer The exports of beer in 1938 amounted to 240,488 koku, an increase of 105,511 koku over the previous year. The exports to Manchoukuo increased by 4,739 koku. China bought more, and China bids to be an increasingly large market for Japanese beer. Japanese beer companies are planning for a vigorous extension of their trade in North China.

EXPORTS OF BEER

(Quantity in koku and value in ¥1,000)

Destination	1935		1936		1937		1938	
	Qty	Value	Qty	Value	Qty	Value	Qty	Value
Manchoukuo	29,160	1,196	28,497	1,158	7,507	308	12,246	525
Kwantung L. T.	50,780	2,011	41,466	1,750	52,680	1,980	41,481	1,646
China	11,792	544	12,679	555	23,523	944	149,811	6,034
Hongkong	2,302	116	2,841	149	2,121	106		
British India	1,4167	639	13,926	650	16,959	753	12,986	639
Straits Stmts	2,444	108	2,880	140	2,973	141	—	—
Dutch India	3,669	189	3,108	164	2,481	126	—	—
Others and total	135,107	5,870	132,503	5,912	134,977	5,686	240,488	10,019

Japanese Saké

History Japanese saké, brewed from rice, has been the principal alcoholic liquor of the Japanese from olden times. It is brewed everywhere in the country, but the most famous places are the "Nada Gogo," five villages in Hyogo prefecture, the climatic conditions of which are peculiarly suited for its production. In recent years, Hiroshima and Fukuoka prefectures have also be-

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gun to brew saké of superior grade. The best rice for saké brewing is raised in Kumamoto, Hyogo and Okayama prefectures.

As saké has been the chief drink of the people for many centuries it has been heavily taxed all along. In 1879, a tax of ¥2 per koku was levied and since then the rate has been gradually increased until it now amounts to ¥40 per koku and brings in an annual revenue to the Government of ¥200,000,000.

No study of brewing saké on a scientific basis was started until as late as 1895. In 1904, a Brewery Experimental Station was established by the Government, at Oji, Tokyo, various experiments were made, and many good experts trained. The art of brewing has now advanced a great deal and the quality of saké brewed has become practically uniform. The quantity now brewed annually is about 5,000,000 koku, nearly all of which is consumed at home, only a negligibly small quantity being exported to China and several other countries.

Present Condition Production of saké in recent years is as follows:

PRODUCTION OF SAKÉ BY KINDS

(In 1,000 koku)

Year (Oct.-Sept.)	No. of Brewery (Sept.)	Refined Saké	Unrefined Saké	White Saké	Sweet Saké	Distilled Saké	Total
1930-31	9,905	3,851	6	6	70	455	4,121
1931-32	9,570	3,284	5	6	87	445	3,829
1932-33	9,236	3,807	5	6	100	509	4,429
1933-34	8,971	4,012	6	6	92	528	4,646
1934-35	8,745	3,772	5	6	87	499	4,371
1935-36	8,580	3,784	5	6	97	534	4,426
1936-37	8,428	3,983	5	5	105	542	4,641

The peculiarity of brewing saké is that large quantities of raw materials cannot be fermented at once. According to the growth of saccharomyces saké, steamed rice, yeast, and water are gradually added and fermentation is brought about slowly. If this method is adopted, with only a very small quantity of saccharomyces saké a large amount of raw materials may be formented and saké of good flavour may be brewed. If, on the other hand, a large quantity of raw materials is fermented at one time by using a great deal of saccharomyces saké, the resultant saké will not taste good.

Consumption of Saké Nothing is more directly affected by prosperity or depression than the consumption of saké, and it can be quite well understood that consumption, owing to the economic depression, has considerably decreased during the last few years. The farming districts are now feeling the depression very severely, and as saké is consumed more in rural than in urban districts, the saké brewers have suffered in proportion.

Supply and Demand in 1937 According to the report of the Japan Saké Brewers' Association the shipment of refined saké in the saké year October 1936 to September 1937 amounted to 3,998,369 koku, which is slight decrease from the previous year.

SUPPLY AND DEMAND OF SAKÉ

(Saké Brewers' Association figures)

(In Koku)

Saké Year (October-September)	Production	Shipped	Stock
1931-32	3,531,544	3,700,364	2,524,896
1932-33	4,094,399	3,685,328	2,300,333
1933-34	4,314,096	3,857,112	2,526,894
1934-35	4,068,794	3,852,846	2,407,572
1935-36	4,282,610	4,089,128	2,366,661
1936-37	4,378,687	3,998,369	2,314,734

The following are the annual figures for the production of wine in recent years:

PRODUCTION OF WINE

Year March-Feb.)	No. of Winery	Production in koku
1932-33	9,025	7,741
1933-34	10,124	13,613
1934-35	11,710	18,424
1935-36	12,190	19,066
1936-37	12,408	19,276

VALUE OF PRODUCTION OF ALL KINDS OF SPIRITS

Year	Value in yen
1933	399,054,125
1934	384,199,683
1935	404,133,245
1936	435,661,300
1937	543,581,832

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Flavours

Oriental flavours are produced in considerable quantities as indispensable for Japanese cooking. The production of soy, or Japanese sauce made of wheat, in factories amounted to 6,072,953 hectlitres valued at ¥82,118,689 in 1937, that of miso, or bean-mash, 215,459 metric tons valued at ¥26,619,372. Saké-lees is used as soop or a soft drink, the production in the same year amounted to 79,813 metric tons valued at ¥8,371,042. The production of vinegar amounted to 461,971 hectlitres valued at ¥2,403,341.

VALUE OF PRODUCTION OF SOY, MISO, ETC.

(Unit: ¥1,000)

Year	Soy	Miso	Vinegar	Saké-lees	Sauce and Ketchup
1933	61,257	16,535	1,953	6,558	3,165
1934	65,477	18,201	2,026	6,114	3,548
1935	65,767	20,124	2,214	6,748	4,163
1936	71,025	22,582	2,051	6,706	4,801
1937	82,118	26,619	2,403	8,371	5,756

Soft Drinks

As Japan is geologically blessed with mineral springs, the people were not slow to study their medicinal effects, and hot springs were used as baths from olden times. As to the utilization of mineral spring water for drinking purposes, mineral water from Rokko Mountain in Hyogo prefecture was the first of its kind that was put on the market. This was as late as 1833, and the drink was named "Mitsuya Hiranosui". Three years later, some Englishmen taught the making of artificially aerated water and with the importation of Cood's bottles and syphon-bottles the manufacture of sweetened aerated water originated. These drinks soon became very popular and the industry made rapid development. After the Russo-Japanese War, "Champion" cider was put on the market to be soon followed by lemonade, citron, and different kinds of syrup, etc.

At present the total production of soft drinks amounts to 710,000 koku a year, of which sweetened drinks accounts for 93%, the rest being ordinary unflavoured aerated water or soda-water. Producers of soft drinks may be roughly divided into two classes. The first of these is composed of those who manufacture the drinks along with beer. These have good equipment and produce on a large scale. The second class is made up of those many who produce on a small scale and sell their products locally.

VALUE OF PRODUCTION OF SOFT DRINKS

(In yen)

	Cider	Ramune	Syrup	Others	Total
1931	8,509,936	1,803,975	970,528	2,668,945	13,953,384
1932	6,976,626	1,676,215	1,073,595	3,721,403	13,447,839
1933	14,132,015	1,424,789	1,182,207	2,950,569	19,689,580
1934	7,801,890	1,600,975	1,848,819	5,495,852	16,747,536
1935	10,365,531	1,611,915	1,615,720	4,023,263	17,616,429
1936	8,741,824	1,724,488	2,118,519	6,394,987	18,979,818
1937	10,703,174	2,108,597	2,625,136	6,367,072	21,803,979

CONSUMPTION OF SOFT DRINKS

(In litre)

	Lemonade, etc.	Cider (Import included)	Soda water, etc.	Fruits Juice, Syrup, etc.	Acid Drinks made from Milk and Milk products
1933	24,152,273	53,684,554	7,384,382	10,036,299	1,224,910
1934	22,728,171	53,705,621	7,334,329	13,522,424	1,659,844
1935	18,298,972	56,474,509	8,013,707	16,211,910	1,729,480
1936	17,566,476	49,663,655	9,628,547	15,600,323	2,132,598
1937	18,486,295	52,177,373	8,291,972	17,673,521	2,752,981

Note: As to ice, milk, etc. see Chapter XXXII, Medicine and Sanitation.

Soft drinks which are now selling in Japan can be classified from the standpoint of water and gas used into the following:

(1) Those manufactured of natural spring water and natural carbonic acid.

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(2) Those manufactured of natural spring water and artificial carbonic acid.
(3) Those manufactured of filtered or well-water and artificial carbonic acid gas.

Canning

Introduction

The canning industry in Japan was started as early as 1870, but the real impetus to its development was given by the Sino-Japanese and the Russo-Japanese Wars as they created a great demand for canned provisions for the Army and Navy. The Treaty of Portsmouth also served to further encourage this industry by giving Japan fishing rights in Kamchatka and the Maritime Province of Siberia, and together with the development of can manufacturing and floating canneries, the above have been the cause of the great progress in the canning industry as a whole.

Present Conditions of the Industry

At present, the packing industry in Japan is in a fairly developed state in all of its branches. Canned meats have reached a stage where the quantity of production cannot be increased. The demand for meat in Japan has expanded so far that supply cannot keep pace with demand, a shortage of cattle is being felt and a plentiful supply for canning is not forthcoming. On the other hand, canned vegetable, such as canned bamboo shoots, are finding good markets in the U.S.A. and China. Of all the fruits procurable in cans pineapples are the most popular with the Japanese They are produced in Formosa, and of the 450,000 cases or more that are packed in that island about 400,000 cases are consumed in Japan proper while a greater part of the balance is sold in Formosa, and only a few thousand cases are exported to foreign countries. As to canned fish and shellfish, the production of canned crab and salmon dominates all others. In no other places are canned crabs produced in such large quantities as in Japan, and most of this production is exported to the U.S.A., annual exports being valued at about ¥10,000,000. Red and silver salmon are finding a good market in Great Britain. In view of the fact that catches of salmon on the coast of the U.S.A. and Canada are decreasing the exportation of canned salmon is expected to increase, as also is the exportation of crab-meat, for the demand for it in the U.S.A. is increasing steadily.

PRODUCTION OF CANNED PROVISIONS
(Quantity in kg. and value in yen)

Kinds	1936 Quantity	1936 Value	1937 Quantity	1937 Value
Canned meats	2,914,390	2,609,676	5,670,606	5,607,707
Canned fishes	59,034,014	29,989,998	73,214,369	38,345,455
Canned fruit	22,538,061	7,143,832	28,698,403	9,663,009
,, vegetable	10,853,720	4,372,457	20,209,783	7,692,875
Other canned food	37,294,046	16,153,693	41,807,328	21,387,540
Total	132,634,231	60,269,656	169,600,489	82,696,586

The exports of canned provisions from Japan for 1938 amounted to ¥92,819,000 showing an increase of ¥5,914,000 over 1937. The low exchange rate was a potent factor to have caused the heavy gain in exports. Of the exports, ¥12,212,000 was for the United States; ¥40,832,000 for the United Kingdom.

VALUE OF PRODUCTION OF BREAD AND SWEETMEAT
(In yen)

Year	Confectionaries	Bread (including sweet bread)	Mizu-amé (wheat-gluten)
1933	84,979,668	6,062,534	12,841,616
1934	95,088,745	5,870,740	14,020,795
1935	113,597,091	7,845,029	16,453,729
1936	119,285,645	10,261,173	20,173,231
1937	147,992,513	13,227,103	21,115,889

VALUE OF MILK PRODUCTS
(In yen)

Year	Condensed milk	Batter	Total including Others
1933	10,631,066	1,802,266	18,865,731
1934	9,393,650	2,827,081	21,210,448
1935	10,981,471	3,353,572	22,277,166
1936	10,662,310	3,054,820	24,036,598
1937	14,273,479	4,376,013	32,604,489

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VALUE OF PRODUCTION OF ARTIFICIAL BATTER, ETC.

(In yen)

Year	Ham and Bacon	Artificial Batter	Salt	Vermicelli, Buckwheat-vermicelli, etc.	Starch
1933	845,873	409,999	3,502,992	4,947,501	7,131,470
1934	1,185,868	575,965	4,121,651	5,492,733	9,683,397
1935	1,288,078	619,655	4,268,815	6,545,790	12,624,831
1936	1,781,196	928,591	4,168,491	7,716,469	17,018,911
1937	2,570,197	1,403,233	4,720,265	9,256,749	28,298,060

PRODUCTIOM OF TEA

(Quantity in metric ton, Value in ¥1,000)

Year	Green Tea (Superior)		Green Tea (Common)		Japanese Black Tea		Black Tea		Total including others
	Qty	Value	Qty	Value	Qty	Value	Qty	Value	Value
1933	122	386	21,874	11,154	2,037	710	17	17	13,462
1934	115	419	22,741	11,891	1,998	756	1,414	842	15,122
1935	194	567	24,788	13,035	2,451	793	1,324	706	16,576
1936	220	555	26,845	15,697	4,641	1,535	552	1,190	19,990
1937	218	459	29,332	20,998	3,258	1,419	4,099	3,741	29,217

The above table is made from the "Factory Statistics" figures, and include only production by the tea makers who employ more than 5 operatives. Figures of the production by all tea makers are given in Chapter XIII, Agriculture, Tea.

VALUE OF TOTAL OUTPUT OF THE FOODSTUFFS MANUFACTURING INDUSTRY

Year	Value in yen	Year	Value in yen
1928	1,136,544,134	1933	1,017,580,798
1929	1,124,226,990	1934	1,040,681,846
1930	949,929,039	1935	1,159,491,963
1931	834,687,469	1936	1,245,961,247
1932	886,272,905	1937	1,518,338,412

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CHAPTER XXII

CHEMICAL INDUSTRY

Paper

Historical and General

Paper-making in Japan remained a handicraft for over twelve centuries after a Korean priest, Doncho, introduced the technique in 610 A.D. (Some writers maintain that paper existed in this country prior to that date.) During this long period of time, various grades of paper were produced from fibres of certain shrubs such as "kozo[1]," "mitsumata[2]," "gampi[3]," etc.

Foreign-style paper was made for the first time in the 7th year of Meiji, 1874, in a small mill, the Yukosha, Tokyo, through the assistance of an English engineer. Several more mills were established the following year, but the development of the industry was naturally slow on account of the small demand. In the beginning, the raw materials used for foreign-style paper were chiefly rags, but in 1889, wood pulp was used for the first time in a mill which belonged to the Oji Paper Mills, Ltd. At first, the smallness of quantity required and competition from abroad made the industry struggle severely, but as with all other industries, the wars with China in 1894–95 and with Russia in 1904–5 gave it a great chance of development. In 1910, the Tomakomai Mill of the Oji Paper Mills, Ltd., which had been under construction since 1906 began operation. With the establishment of the Tomakomai Mill Japan became selfsupplying with respect to newsprint. Again, the Oji Paper Mills, Ltd., took the initiative in establishing a pulp mill, in 1912, in Odomari, Saghalien Island, but was quickly followed by the Fuji Paper Mills, Ltd., and the Karafuto Industrial Co., Ltd. The industry was just getting well settled when the Great War broke out and prosperity was forced upon it. Importations of foreign-style paper was practically stopped. Demand at home advanced, exports increased and the industry expanded at a great speed. The production of foreign-style paper in 1881 was only 3,968,000 lbs., it increased to 327,614,000 lbs. in 1914, 519,141,000 lbs. in 1919, 317,383,000 lbs. in 1924, and 1,418,187,000 lbs. in 1929.

In 1932 the Oji Paper Mills, Fuji Paper Mills and Karafuto Industrial Company were merged into one firm under the name of the Oji Seishi Kabushiki Kaisha (Oji Paper Manufacturing Company, Ltd.). It has a subscribed capital of ¥300,000,000, and is virtually monopolistic having control over 80% of the total paper production in the country and producing about 85% of the total foreign-style paper. The real strength of the Oji Paper Manufacturing Co., Ltd. lies in its almost complete monopoly of pulp production. In 1937 it turned out 1,702,654 lbs. which was equivalent to 80 per cent of domestic production.

Paper Industry in 1938

The economic control in 1937 and 1938 was aimed at the expansion of the heavy industries at the sacrifice of various peacetime industries. But the paper manufacturing industry in Japan is one of the best organized and voluntarily controlled enterprises in the country and it has been able to cope with the emergency period with the minimum amount of sacrifice on its part. The conditions of paper industry and trade in 1938, therefore, were steady, the exports increasing inspite of a decrease of demand in foreign markets other than the countries in the yen bloc, and the price remained high in general, so that the paper business for the whole year showed as good as the previous year. The Government control over the consumption of paper by daily press was not very strict in view of the importance on the newspapers for the cultural life of the people.

Supply and Demand According to the report of the Japan Paper Manufacturers' Association the production of paper during 1938 by member companies reached 1,948,455,000 lbs., the quantity sold being 2,030,407,000, a decrease of 180,571,000 lbs. or 8 per cent in the for-

1 Paper mulberry. 2 Golden flowered Edgeworthia (Edgeworthia chrysantha). 3 An indigenous plant (Wikstroemia sikokiana).

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mer, and 2,466,000 lbs. or 0.1 per cent in the latter as compared with the previous year. The decrease was mostly accounted for by the decrease in the production and sale of printing paper, although those of paper for daily press and others showed an increase as it is given in the following table:

PRODUCTION AND SALE OF FOREIGN STYLE PAPERS IN THE PAST FIVE YEARS

(Unit 1,000 lbs.)

	Printing Paper		Paper for Daily Press		Others		Total	
	Production	Sale	Production	Sale	Production	Sale	Production	Sale
1934	449,407	463,061	688,228	687,283	453,840	455,541	1,591,475	1,605,885
1935	509,259	474,436	736,245	729,585	474,133	476,648	1,719,637	1,680,670
1936	544,194	570,080	768,142	766,534	513,510	536,025	1,825,848	1,872,640
1937	655,573	616,599	825,189	811,291	648,264	604,983	2,129,026	2,032,873
1938	400,799	483,388	857,463	852,896	690,193	694,123	1,948,455	2,030,407

Decrease of Imports The imports of paper in 1938 amounted only to 111,192 piculs, a remarkable decrease of 88 per cent as compared with the previous year. The main reason is to be found in the strict trade control by the Government over the peace time goods, especially in the case of imports.

Increase of Exports But the exports of paper in 1938 amounted to 2,483,851 piculs, an increase of 22 per cent over the previous year. Of the total amount, 2,105,845 piculs or 84 per cent went to the yen bloc areas, China buying more than twice as much as in the previous year. The other countries bought 378,006 piculs or 16 per cent against 621,561 piculs or 30 per cent for 1937. Detailed figures are given below.

PRODUCTION OF PAPER SINCE 1928

(Factory Statistics by the Ministry of Commerce and Industry)
(Quantity in 1,000 kg. and value in ¥1,000)

Year	Printing Paper		Copying Paper		Drawing Paper		Wrapping Paper	
	Quantity	Value	Quantity	Value	Quantity	Value	Quantity	Value
1928	355,056	90,172	4,331		1,411		17,704	4,007
1929	366,709	87,745	3,592	1,206	3,899	1,361	10,662	2,800
1930	369,523	74,055	4,661	1,587	731	243	14,557	2,559
1931	321,711	62,416	3,360	1,120	4,074	1,137	9,567	1,839
1932	217,196	54,566	2,366	818	3,374	1,127	22,655	4,369
1933	346,594	68,705	23,563	5,354	3,342	1,462	27,696	6,300
1934	379,062	84,167	11,684	4,216	3,402	1,980	39,180	10,327
1935	408,671	90,263	17,854	5,480	6,678	2,126	49,049	11,028
1936	434,743	94,795	19,850	5,770	5,103	1,563	57,079	14,862
1937	519,898	119,355	27,788	8,723	5,511	2,071	70,706	21,234

Year	Match Paper		Cigarette Paper		Art Paper		"Hanshi"	
	Quantity	Value	Quantity	Value	Quantity	Value	Quantity	Value
1928	1,636	579	7,392	4,192	—	—	2,149	4,752
1929	732	212	7,564	7,382	12,821	5,949	6,927	11,640
1930	1,005	247	6,679	5,077	6,348	2,823	4,585	6,084
1931	812	176	4,210	2,452	8,959	3,703	4,394	5,349
1932	2,088	414	3,655	2,641	8,883	3,367	3,122	5,654
1933	1,952	501	7,656	4,633	10,961	4,075	1,347	5,091
1934	2,787	711	5,658	4,410	15,091	5,655	2,838	6,924
1935	6,815	1,825	10,285	7,480	11,268	3,976	1,953	6,690
1936	5,170	1,405	14,165	9,659	12,537	4,081	3,558	6,080
1937	3,455	1,011	14,281	11,547	14,061	5,381	2,154	9,797

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Year	"Minogami"		"Torinoko" and Imitation Paper	Board		Others and Total
	Quantity	Value	Value	Quantity	Value	Value
1928	194	883	7,278	135,149	17,194	182,476
1929	178	1,048	7,585	162,353	19,476	190,635
1930	128	845	4,368	150,215	15,469	154,574
1931	143	776	5,088	146,863	11,414	134,095
1932	168	954	7,120	139,253	11,646	132,170
1933	163	638	4,442	178,151	16,337	168,473
1934	305	1,010	4,174	198,502	20,079	200,923
1935	339	1,755	6,438	256,336	27,004	224,780
1936	358	1,410	6,952	265,238	27,973	250,983
1937	323	1,720	9,853	337,492	38,503	335,646

CONSUMPTION OF FOREIGN-STYLE PAPER

(Statistics of the Nippon Seishi Rengokai)

(Quantity in 1,000 lbs.)

Year	Production	Imports	Exports	Consumption	Consumption per Capita
1928	1,343,479	99,904	133,812	1,262,074	20.2
1929	1,451,526	79,205	136,876	1,351,284	21.1
1930	1,401,711	98,419	169,992	1,281,888	19.9
1931	1,374,899	146,314	141,197	1,338,331	20.4
1932	1,311,315	116,474	87,963	1,391,471	19.0
1933	1,444,104	104,330	105,200	1,480,931	21.2
1934	1,591,474	138,556	101,523	1,643,542	22.6
1935	1,719,637	167,482	112,899	1,764,976	26.8
1936	1,825,848	193,664	126,559	1,889,641	25.6
1937	2,129,026	135,092	135,653	2,041,665	29.0
1938	1,948,455	14,358	146,101	1,859,566	25.0

Note: The figures for consumption are made out by deducting stocks at year end.

PRODUCTION OF CELLOPHANE

Year	Production		Year	Production	
	Qty in kg.	Value in yen		Qty in kg.	Value in yen
1930	—	85,400	1934	726,842	3,414,839
1931	64,575	176,170	1935	2,382,433	3,940,716
1932	147,000	473,634	1936	3,458,535	6,118,818
1933	574,029	2,008,057	1937	2,395,974	9,645,146

Note: The value is included in the total of the above table.

IMPORTS OF PAPER BY KIND

Kind	Quantity (Unit: picul)			Value (Unit: ¥1,000)		
	1936	1937	1938	1936	1937	1938
Papers for photograph	10,772	19,029	8,970	1,646	2,486	925
Printing paper	1,240,956	711,056	55,266	10,164	9,171	718
Imitation parchment, etc.	69,168	114,616	14,734	2,027	3,540	510
Packing paper and match paper	97,435	145,284	28,881	1,474	2,609	383
Imitation Japanese paper and tissue paper	18,817	13,179	3,341	656	994	350
Total	1,437,148	1,003,164	111,192	15,967	18,800	2,886

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EXPORTS OF PAPER

By Kind

Kind	Quantity (Unit: picul)			Value (Unit: ¥1,000)		
	1636	1937	1938	1936	1937	1938
Printing paper	609,137	617,044	678,654	8,174	10,402	12,942
Paste-board	347,498	500,996	722,609	2,506	4,485	6,837
Cigarette paper	82,703	72,007	104,201	4,480	4,440	5,701
Imitation paper	175,282	227,544	160,045	2,757	4,447	4,092
Paper for photograph	—	207,515	297,449	—	2,054	3,952
Packing paper	71,802	83,125	126,744	1,357	2,101	3,623
Hanshi and Mino	18,690	30,229	36,200	905	1,555	2,898
Toilet paper	86,326	74,380	83,447	1,448	1,723	2,331
Ganpi and usuyo	12,090	15,993	15,843	1,223	2,003	1,996
Yoshino and Tengujo	3,044	4,504	2,948	630	978	927
Total including others	1,688,103	2,033,238	2,483,851	27,545	38,708	52,127

By Countries

To	Quantity (Unit: picul)			Value (Unit: ¥1,000)		
	1936	1937	1938	1936	1937	1938
Kwantung L. T.	684,844	846,708	1,004,831	9,699	13,814	19,393
China	409,329	302,009	729,946	7,413	6,940	16,149
Manchoukuo	144,293	262,960	371,068	3,008	5,931	8,857
U. S. A.	15,349	16,734	8,418	1,116	1,773	1,497
British India	144,005	198,445	177,366	1,025	1,613	1,123
Dutch East Indies	64,221	83,312	30,414	916	1,830	808
Australia	27,074	57,258	30,837	477	1,176	787
Hong Kong	101,966	120,560	48,548	1,213	1,777	718
Thailand (Siam)	42,522	58,899	31,059	565	921	572
Great Britain	3,958	4,102	2,817	515	802	541
Germany	2,676	2,654	2,995	281	372	529
Philippines	22,563	24,828	19,619	317	404	328
Straits Settlements	23,841	31,223	5,397	360	564	101
Total including others	1,688,103	2,033,238	2,483,851	27,545	38,708	52,127

PRODUCTION OF PULP

(Forest Bureau, Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry)

(In tons)

Year	In Japan	In Manchoukuo	Total	Year	In Japan	In Manchoukuo	Total
1933	620,039	17,361	637,400	1936	802,565	13,171	815,736
1934	708,996	13,737	722,733	1937	886,978	15,011	901,989
1935	757,477	13,718	771,195	1938 (estimate)	1,001,228	44,000	1,045,228

IMPORTS OF PULP

Country of Origin	Quantity (in ton)				Value (in ¥1,000)			
	1935	1936	1937	1938	1935	1936	1937	1938
U.S.A.	109,013	153,735	188,115	51,511	22,812	31,758	49,181	15,111
Canada	34,354	27,748	51,929	16,787	5,991	4,150	12,619	5,046
Sweden	50,574	56,228	121,681	24,849	7,735	9,735	26,993	6,276
Norway	48,499	55,778	62,146	18,145	13,201	14,621	17,071	5,400
Others	27,414	32,979	42,737	29,616	5,362	6,842	10,855	9,227
Total	269,853	326,467	466,608	140,908	55,101	67,107	116,720	41,059

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SUPPLY AND DEMAND OF PULP FOR PAPER

(Forest Bureau, Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry)

(Unit in ton)

	Production	Imports	Consumption		Production	Imports	Consumption
1931	565,209	75,194	645,124	1935	724,042	143,534	843,945
1932	547,520	64,208	676,256	1936	747,355	157,358	900,576
1933	614,139	107,774	738,458	1937	829,684	176,131	1,003,215
1934	691,836	140,261	786,399				

Fertilizers

In 1931 the association formed by manufacturers of chemical fertilizers, maintained a high rate of curtailment of production in order to minimize the loss which resulted from the general alarming situation in industries, especially in agriculture, but the dumping of sulphate of ammonia by British and German manufacturers swept the fertilizer market and the prices of bean cake, fish guano, sulphate of ammonia, superphosphate of lime, mixed fertilizers, cyanamide, etc., slumped to destructive levels. The domestic manufacturers did everything possible in their powers to stop importations. They proposed the raising of the rate of import duty, the passing of a law, the establishment of a system of special permits for import and export, and so on, but practically in vain. The price of sulphate of ammonia declined to as low as ¥60 per ton. The situation was very serious, and at last, in November, a special permit system was put into effect through a Departmental ordinance. A ministerial change took place during December and the Seiyukai Party came into power. The Government at once re-imposed the embargo on gold, exports and the stock market immediately became active, and industries, including the fertilizer industry, followed suit.

The problem of food in Japan is a serious one. The Japanese population is increasing yearly by about a million, but the amount of food produced in the country is not enough to feed them. Besides, the arable land in the country is so small and limited that hardly any space is left to effect any further increase, and the only method left, beyond extending abroad, is to increase the yield of crops through intensive farming. For this fertilizers are necessary and the demand has steadily been increasing. The consumption of fertilizers during 1937 was valued at ¥758,754,000, of which ¥387,960,000 were self-supplied fertilizers, while ¥370 million's worth were bought in the market.

General Condition of the Industry

Chemical Fertilizers Of all the chemical fertilizers, superphosphate of lime and sulphate of ammonia are the two representative ones, and because of the largeness of their demand and supply the market trend of these two is practically the market trend of the rest.

Superphosphate of Lime The principal raw material for the manufacture of superphosphate of lime is phosphate rock. During 1930 some 570,000 tons were imported, while some 63,385 tons were produced at home, and during 1937 and 1938 imports were 922,317 and 564,169 tons respectively. This rock is imported from U.S.A., Egypt, and the South Sea Islands.

Superphosphate production has been gaining steadily and in 1937 its production was 1,582,985 metric tons valued at ¥64,542,455. Production during the past few years is reported by the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry as follows:

PRODUCTION OF SUPERPHOSPHATES

(In metric ton)

1930	957,159
1931	862,401
1932	1,041,497
1933	1,116,573
1934	1,126,149
1935	1,331,616
1936	1,437,196
1937	1,582,985
1938 (estimate)	1,284,043

Supply and demand of superphosphate in recent years follow:

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	Production	Exports and Re-exports (1,000 tons)	Consumption in Japan Proper
1930	957	35	922
1931	862	32	808
1932	1,041	81	960
1933	1,116	106	1,009
1934	1,126	121	1,004
1935	1,331	151	1,150
1936	1,437	168	1,242
1937	1,582	170	1,379
1938 (estimate)	1,284	190	1,094

Sulphate of Ammonia The demand for sulphate of ammonia has steadily increased for years. Consumption in 1930 was 488,000 tons, in 1931 it showed a remarkable increase to 618,000 tons. Imports in 1930 were 302,905 tons (value ¥29,612,000), in 1931 they decreased to 224,148 tons and in 1932 a decrease to 119,000 tons was witnessed, value being ¥15,861,000 and ¥7,035,000 respectively. The decrease in imports was made good by the increase in domestic production, which in 1931 was 393,237 tons, and increased to 880,262 tons in 1936 and 931,821 tons in 1937. Japan, in this manner, has become self-supporting in sulphate of ammonia, and has become very uneasy regarding overproduction in the future.

Supply and demand of ammonium sulphate in Japan in recent years follow:

	Production	Imports	Imports from Territories (In metric ton)	Exports	Exports to Territories	Consumption in Japan proper
1930	265,826	302,905	18,065	14,924	83,872	488,000
1931	393,237	224,148	53,260	11,608	41,395	617,642
1932	459,663	118,735	125,123	17,956	67,440	618,125
1933	471,398	108,449	83,722	50,061	62,244	551,264
1934	494,350	160,901	84,749	1,526	88,058	650,416
1935	611,751	238,598	71,551	5,992	103,294	812,614
1936	880,262	314,131	56,436	18,417	182,024	1,050,388
1937	931,821	224,208	17,318	7,512	180,840	934,995
1938 (estimate)	1,463,875	295,823	76,504	—	262,398	1,573,804

Lime Nitrogen While lime nitrogen was a fertilizer difficult to make farmers use it, they now recognize the merit of this nitrogenous fertilizer, and owing perhaps to its reasonableness in price, its consumption increased with a great stride. In 1931 its consumption was 168,448 tons, in 1932 177,632 tons, in 1933 216,525 tons, and in 1934 169,071. Production increased rapidly too. While, in 1924, it barely amounted to about 121,000 tons, it increased up to 290,398 tons in 1936, more than two times as large. 1937 production was 323,508 tons valued at ¥26,050,622.

PRODUCTION OF LIME NITROGEN

(In metric ton and in ¥1,000)

Year	Quantity	Value
1930	228,383	16,959
1931	168,042	8,743
1932	180,583	10,660
1933	223,409	15,159
1934	197,252	14,323
1935	260,632	20,633
1936	290,398	23,276
1937	323,508	26,050
1938 (estimate)	270,655	—

Vegetable Fertilizers Vegetable fertilizers are many in kind. Bean cake, rape-seed cake, cotton-seed cake, rice bran, etc., come into this class of fertilizers, bean cake being the most important. Supply and demand of bean cake for 1930-1938 were:

SUPPLY AND DEMAND OF BEAN CAKE

(In metric ton)

	Production	Imports	Imports from Territories	Exports	Exports to Territories	Consumption in Japan proper
1930	232,727	889,743	17,451	10,557	1,136	1,087,476
1931	279,265	1,032,680	17,960	2,627	—	1,278,097
1932	221,369	629,407	9,394	9,094	—	813,983
1933	244,768	539,586	27,573	2,357	—	770,029

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	Production	Imports	Imports from Territories	Exports	Exports to Territories	Consumption in Japan proper
1934	283,241	646,032	88,411	3,051	800	978,277
1935	226,876	431,978	87,051	2,431	368	714,373
1936	248,733	376,783	121,931	2,384	848	722,165
1937	261,738	394,815	41,262	3,747	584	693,484
1938 (estimate)	280,000	623,054	27,152	2,428	432	927,346

Bean Cake The domestic production of bean cake is very small when compared with the quantity imported, the greater part of which comes from Manchoukuo. In 1916 the consumption of bean cake, was 807,975 tons, which, by 1926, increased to 1,510,088 tons, but since then no increase can be noted as the development of the synthetic nitrogen industry has cut deeply into the development of vegetable fertilizer industry.

Fish and Animal Fertilizers In Japan fish is indispensable as food, but at the same time they are caught for oil extraction and the refuse is converted into manure. (See Chapter XV.)

In addition to chemical, vegetable and animal fertilizers, a great quantity of self-supplied fertilizers are supplied and consumed, the figures for which are given also in statistics attached at the end of this subject.

Statistics

According to the report of the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry the value of production and consumption of various kinds of fertilizers were as follows:

VALUE OF FERTILIZERS PRODUCED IN JAPAN PROPER 1928-1937

(Fertilizers Which Require a Licence for Prodution)

(Unit ¥1,000)

Year	Animal	Vegetable	Chemical	Mixed	Miscellaneous	Total
1928	22,254	39,667	82,483	53,112	318	197,833
1929	19,619	43,521	87,284	60,116	217	210,756
1930	12,703	30,061	76,953	38,551	62	158,330
1931	13,092	24,083	61,557	25,910	85	124,727
1932	19,678	25,806	81,798	30,659	47	157,989
1933	25,891	31,563	102,026	42,408	47	201,936
1934	30,026	33,338	109,867	42,812	86	216,129
1935	27,612	36,395	150,988	53,528	100	268,625
1936	34,738	41,271	179,178	57,802	113	313,125
1937	38,687	53,676	221,177	70,631	830	385,003

CONSUMPTION OF FERTILIZERS IN JAPAN PROPER

(Unit ¥1,000)

Year	Fertilizers Sold on the Market: Manufactured under Licence	Manuf'd without Licence	Balance of Exports and Imports	Raw Materials for mfg. Fertilizers	Total	Self-supplied Fertilizers	Grand Total
1928	197,834	26,000	141,296	69,824	295,306	326,290	621,596
1929	210,750	26,000	156,597	77,265	316,089	334,250	650,339
1930	158,330	26,000	110,393	50,508	244,215	282,270	526,685
1931	124,727	26,000	74,028	39,437	185,318	251,280	436,598
1932	157,989	26,000	56,690	44,907	195,772	260,270	456,042
1933	201,936	26,000	57,824	62,936	222,824	297,900	520,724
1934	216,130	26,000	58,320	71,609	228,841	299,920	528,761
1935	268,625	22,000	71,014	84,938	276,701	328,560	605,261
1936	313,102	27,000	76,434	91,594	324,945	355,560	680,505
1937	385,003	33,000	70,314	117,524	370,794	387,960	758,754

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NUMBER OF PERSONS ENGAGED IN THE FERTILIZER BUSINESS

Year	Manufacturers	Importers	Importers of Fertilizers from Colonies	Traders	Year	Manufacturers	Importers	Importers of Fertilizers from Colonies	Traders
1928	23,822	1,146	437	45,895	1933	23,083	1,035	453	41,614
1929	23,924	1,132	436	45,644	1934	23,529	1,004	451	40,855
1930	23,564	1,105	432	45,098	1935	23,683	995	470	40,563
1931	23,334	1,072	428	43,913	1936	23,788	991	456	40,548
1932	23,218	1,052	434	42,131	1937	23,890	968	455	39,816

Caustic Soda, Soda Ash, Bleaching Powder, Dyestuffs, etc.

Soda Ash Industry

Soda ash occurs in its natural state in some parts of the world, but in this country it has to be prepared from salt, and as salt is a Government monopoly the price is high, so when the Asahi Glass Company, in order to attain self-sufficiency, started the production of soda ash after the World War it did so on uneconomic basis, but the Government came along and by granting liberal subsidies to this and other concerns saved the industry and put it on a paying basis. Brunner, Mond and Company (British) and H. Ahrens and Company (German), who used to be the largest importers, were hit hard by this development in home production. The history of the growth of the soda ash industry in Japan is the history of strife between the Asahi Glass Company, backed by the Mitsubishi interests and protected by the Government, and these foreign concerns. The total production of soda ash in 1937 was 377,000 metric tons while 46,276 metric tons were imported.

Caustic Soda

As a by-product of the production of caustic soda the poisonous gas chlorine freed. This gas is made into commercial bleaching powder, and in the past the commercial production of caustic soda was only possible if a good price was obtained for bleaching powder. The industry, therefore, was greatly dependent on this latter commodity for quantity production. As soda ash is now being produced cheaply, caustic soda is being manufactured from it so domestic production is increasing. The replacement of the gold embargo and the raisng of the tariff virtually sealed the activity of the British importing concern, whose pressure was a great hindrance to the development of the Japanese soda industry, and selfsufficiency in the production of both soda ash and caustic soda has been thereby attained. Brunner, Mond and Company has largely restricted its activities and home production has greatly increased. The Asahi Glass Company and Nippon Soda Kaisha, known as N. S. K., have recently expanded their equipment for producting soda ash to an annual productive capacity of 150,000 tons, which is about 30,000 tons more than the yearly domestic demand. The production of caustic soda in 1937 was 362,141 metric tons and for 1938 it is estimated at 440,-760 metric tons.

Bleaching Powder

The demand for bleaching powder has become active since an improvement was registered by the paper manufacturing companies, who consume 70 per cent of the total production. The business solely depends on the rise and fall of the foreign-style paper manufacturing industry.

PRODUCTION AND IMPORTS OF SODA ASH

	Production (In metric tons)	Imports		Production (In metric tons)	Imports
1929	43,583	76,116	1934	170,622	37,139
1930	57,233	65,206	1935	364,613	38,308
1931	93,244	54,336	1936	367,205	40,895
1932	134,807	46,434	1937	377,000	46,276
1933	272,135	46,447	1938 (estimate)	242,885	21,584

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PRODUCTION, IMPORTS AND EXPORTS OF CAUSTIC SODA

	Production	Exports	Imports	Supply
		(In metric tons)		
1929	57,382	22	42,388	99,550
1930	34,738	17	37,592	72,313
1931	48,536	10	41,595	90,121
1932	75,116	2,238	28,185	101,063
1933	110,953	5,116	12,477	118,314
1934	177,771	12,293	9,928	175,406
1935	233,288	17,495	19,936	235,729
1936	284,999	23,911	11,587	272,677
1937	362,141	3,676	27,429	384,005
1938 (estimate)	440,760	11,615	266	429,411

Note: Figures are revised. As to the value see the table given at the end of this chapter.

PRODUCTION AND EXPORTS OF BLEACHING POWDER

	Production	Exports	Supply		Production	Exports	Supply
	(In metric tons)				(In metric tons)		
1929	50,756	3,109	57,647	1934	66,155	4,247	61,908
1930	49,471	3,446	46,025	1935	77,080	6,489	70,591
1931	45,005	3,544	41,461	1936	79,228	8,505	70,723
1932	47,485	2,858	44,627	1937	91,283	6,990	84,293
1933	61,142	3,392	57,750	1938 (estimate)	84,712	2,950	81,762

Soap Making

Development and Production

The industry was started early in the Meiji Era, but no great progress was made until after the Russo-Japanese War of 1904–1905, when machinery was introduced from abroad. During the World War, the industry enjoyed great prosperity, but the reaction was also very severe when it came in 1920. However, during those difficult times, the foundation of the industry became more consolidated and the quality of soap improved a great deal.

Production of soap in Japan is as per the accompanying table. Tokyo and Osaka are the two principal places of production, the former producing about 50% of the total production in the country, while Osaka produces about 30%. Exports of soap amounted to ¥7,837,000 in 1938 while imports was less than ¥100,000.

PRODUCTION OF SOAP BY KIND

(In ¥1,000)

Year	Toilet	Industrial	Medical	Laundry	Powdered	Others	Total
1929	22,690	2,370	5	10,199	1,767	1,908	38,942
1930	18,564	2,863	397	11,098	1,833	605	35,362
1931	17,246	1,480	173	7,561	2,083	1,355	29,900
1932	19,164	1,450	268	8,389	2,642	428	32,344
1933	21,243	2,558	194	9,584	2,992	1,118	37,691
1934	21,407	1,932	377	13,756	3,331	2,037	42,843
1935	23,326	3,295	477	15,537	4,127	3,491	50,258
1936	23,249	3,742	306	18,223	3,470	2,915	51,908
1937	27,229	4,527	338	18,410	3,987	594	55,087

Vegetable and Animal Oils and Fats

Introduction

For lighting purposes vegetable oils have been used in Japan for centuries. In earlier days perilla oil was used but this was later replaced by rapeseed oil. The production of these oils on an industrial basis only developed after the Russo-Japanese War of 1904–1905.

Production of hardened oil in Japan during 1937 amounted to 97,132 metric tons in contrast to 75,663 metric tons in 1936. It is used mostly for soap making, candles and dietary purposes. Even during the time that Japan was on

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gold, hardened oil was exported, so after the gold embargo was imposed exports increased. The exports amounted to 328 metric tons in 1937 and 209 metric tons in 1938.

The principal vegetable oils produced are soya bean and rapeseed. Linseed oil, perilla oil, hempseed oil, wood oil, sesame oil, cotton-seed oil, castor oil, groundnut oil, copra oil, camellia oil, etc., are also produced in considerable quantities. The production of soya bean oil in 1937 was 51,342 metric tons and rapeseed oil was 34,720 metric tons.

Of the principal vegetable oils produced in Japan, only wood and camallia oils and vegetable wax are pressed from domestically grown seeds, all the others are pressed from materials from abroad. The amount of exports of soya bean oil, rapeseed oil, and other vegetable oils was 501 metric tons in 1937, but decreased to 233 metric tons in 1938.

Statistics Statistics for the vegetable and animal oil industry follows :

PRODUCTION OF VEGETABLE OILS

(Compiled by the Ministry of Commerce and Industry)

(In yen)

Year	Rapeseed Oil	Sesameseed Oil	Groundnut Oil	Cottonseed Oil	Copra Oil	Soya bean Oil
1929	12,214,398	2,398,899	253,659	3,393,863	2,800,842	13,963,580
1930	10,826,085	2,382,457	234,380	2,568,777	2,184,334	9,146,415
1931	8,074,304	2,428,682	276,802	1,456,122	1,890,339	9,143,974
1932	8,398,297	3,122,444	244,834	1,165,868	1,991,043	10,570,255
1933	10,123,029	2,662,503	385,639	2,731,458	2,657,171	13,115,461
1934	13,676,703	2,610,393	487,009	3,169,850	2,648,436	14,054,936
1935	20,019,129	2,835,750	595,030	7,129,750	5,376,497	15,329,198
1936	22,722,629	4,093,982	383,134	7,304,904	5,658,785	18,986,848
1937	15,187,205	4,282,440	795,892	11,203,765	6,605,668	21,406,556

(In yen)

Year	Linseed Oil	Perilla Oil	Paulownia Oil	Camellia Oil	Other Oils	Total Oil
1929	2,945,224	1,442,661	218,218	728,262	3,600,224	44,347,827
1930	1,077,673	2,422,152	207,218	599,905	2,359,477	34,102,586
1931	1,094,542	2,052,760	154,928	428,788	2,134,248	29;211,560
1932	1,015,617	2,358,302	152,654	336,860	2,434,947	31,944,837
1933	3,775,357	5,518,011	184,427	378,188	2,487,087	44,018,331
1934	3,903,933	4,998,884	250,286	402,232	3,402,745	49,605,407
1935	3,691,897	10,494,970	227,418	439,392	6,743,334	72,882,365
1936	3,874,551	17,929,318	344,452	470,853	9,432,094	91,201,550
1937	2,257,634	10,851,487	341,034	532,615	21,782,918	95,247,214

PRODUCTION OF ANIMAL OILS AND TALLOW

(In yen)

Year	Cod Oil	Herring Oil	Sardine Oil	Whale Oil	Other fish Oils
1929	225,088	304,042	3,527,435	704,925	957,117
1930	285,862	137,295	3,491,551	517,520	473,179
1931	278,245	26,686	422,439	168,921	321,170
1932	95,774	59,296	802,350	614,915	1,147,833
1933	296,362	35,854	456,752	498,194	2,018,732
1934	300,741	23,547	602,816	672,638	980,416
1935	1,158,270	19,770	829,438	989,018	5,257,055
1936	2,366,108	16,506	6,056,412	1,617,192	4,669,603
1937	1,714,517	41,720	3,549,421	1,956,365	12,792,003

(In yen)

Year	Puna Oil	Beef Tallow	Pork Tallow	Other Animal Tallow	Total
1929	136,939	1,624,843	144,662	197,814	8,833,065
1930	97,039	996,866	169,454	292,485	6,461,251

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Year	Puna Oil	Beef Tallow	Pork Tallow	Other Animal Tallow	Total
1931	67,000	712,033	160,981	196,883	2,354,356
1932	75,714	666,015	143,921	52,698	3,653,516
1933	90,439	859,306	312,733	508,665	5,077,037
1934	110,803	630,051	287,470	791,678	4,400,160
1935	200,569	2,696,112	378,103	889,938	12,418,273
1936	262,013	943,558	450,064	387,030	16,768,476
1937	349,630	1,508,276	534,257	411,113	22,857,302

PRODUCTION OF VEGETABLE WAX, CANDLES, AND MANUFACTURES OF OILS

(In yen)

Year	Wood Wax	Candles	Boiled Oil	Hardened Oil	Hardened Wax	Oleine	Stearine	Total of manufactures
1929	1,497,875	5,175,200	3,319,275	12,124,719	1,061,950	880,688	219,425	17,559,428
1930	1,808,580	4,785,545	2,859,546	10,109,944	323,545	502,389	200,592	13,884,576
1931	1,293,719	4,471,845	2,756,897	7,175,041	517,986	419,309	213,321	10,949,181
1932	1,249,913	4,952,548	2,924,753	10,039,127	623,182	437,644	4,246,838	15,713,722
1933	1,440,017	5,410,628	3,339,737	13,594,028	513,571	552,401	2,561,846	20,561,585
1934	1,705,148	5,095,485	3,373,463	13,223,601	404,608	693,608	3,895,385	21,590,665
1935	2,228,715	5,201,888	5,837,861	19,173,264	254,064	563,137	5,480,962	31,309,288
1936	2,463,958	7,057,847	7,172,709	21,849,043	440,692	605,173	5,028,891	35,096,508
1937	1,694,821	7,250,847	4,337,093	27,545,731	101,094	684,425	7,209,146	39,877,489

IMPORTS OF VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL OILS, TALLOWS AND MANUFACTURES THEREOF

(In yen)

Year	Olive Oil	Other Vegetable oils	Beef Tallow	Stearine	Oleine	Hardened Oil
1929	245,000	—	5,019,000	337,000	215,000	—
1930	123,000	—	3,894,000	242,000	112,000	—
1931	182,000	—	2,481,000	189,000	100,000	—
1932	327,622	—	2,453,516	171,751	73,998	—
1933	357,324	—	3,411,534	112,541	51,395	—
1934	563,411	—	3,380,160	161,671	32,957	—
1935	908,625	—	2,340,363	126,286	11,802	—
1936	749,000	6,891,000	1,644,000	107,000	—	124,000
1937	1,234,000	9,720,000	1,949,000	140,000	—	104,000
1938	713,000	2,312,000	431,000	—	—	848,000

EXPORTS OF VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL OILS, WAX, AND MANUFACTURES THEREOF

(In yen)

Year	Perilla Oil	Bean Oil	Rapessed Oil	Fish Oil	Whale Oil	Vegetable Wax	Hardened Oil
1930	—	4,359,000	4,672,000	7,600,000	361,000	1,870,000	3,987,000
1931	803,000	1,049,000	1,963,000	1,797,000	146,000	1,154,000	2,997,000
1932	1,100,000	1,010,000	1,308,000	2,768,000	466,000	1,177,101	4,221,000
1933	3,532,000	342,000	2,245,000	2,397,000	131,000	1,139,000	4,939,000
1934	3,709,000	623,000	5,024,000	3,150,000	155,000	1,258,000	5,042,000
1935	10,052,610	1,420,350	11,212,126	6,264,542	628,609	1,444,583	8,920,875
1936	14,981,000	931,000	10,547,000	9,306,000	874,000	—	10,002,000
1937	5,683,000	1,918,000	3,409,000	14,548,000	751,000	—	10,195,000
1938	1,227,000	—	2,095,000	— 6,902,000	—	—	4,651,000

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Rubber Industry

The rubber industry in Japan began with the establishment in 1886 of the Mitatsuchi Rubber Company, a limited-partnership concern, in Tokyo. The industry developed steadily through the Sino-Japanese and the Russo-Japanese Wars of 1894–1895, and 1904–1905. In 1909 there were 20 mills, 900 workers and production reached ¥4,000,000 in value. During the World War the industry further developed. The earthquake of 1923 destroyed about 80% of the rubber manufacturing capacity of Tokyo and Yokohama districts, and many people were gravely doubtful as to whether the rubber factories in those districts would ever revive, but reconstruction quickly took place and the factories rebuilt. In 1937 the total production in the country by mills employing more than 5 persons was as large as ¥201,710,000 in value, but the figure would be much larger if goods produced by people working in their own homes were included.

Rubber Industry in 1938

According to the report of the South Sea Gum Planters' Association the world production of rubber in 1938 amounted to 872,055 tons and Japan consumed 73,478 tons, standing the sixth among rubber consuming countries. The imports of rubber in the same year reached 784,372 piculs valued at ¥51,374,000 a decrease of 278,228 piculs and ¥47,844,000 as compared with the previous year.

The total number of factories and small shops for rubber manufactures in Japan is said to reach 9,900. At the end of 1936 the number of factories which employ more than 5 operatives was 832 of which but 2 employed more than 500 operatives. The control of rubber imports by the Government seriously affected the smaller shops and factories which ran short of the material during the year. Figures for the production of rubber manufactures for 1938 are not yet available, but their exports amounted to ¥21,228,000, showing a decrease of ¥9,372,000 from the previous year.

Reclaimed Rubber With the advance of economic control in Japan the reclamation of rubber from the discarded and waste rubber products began to be encouraged by the Ministry of Commerce and Industry.

At present the reclaimed rubber produced and used in Japan amounts to 8,000 tons or 13 per cent of the total amount of rubber which amounts to 60,000 tons annually. If the amount is increased to 18,000 tons or 30 per cent the imports of rubber may be reduced by ¥10,000,000, after deducting the money paid for the waste tyres imported from America and Canada. To attain the purpose the rubber committee of the Federation of Economic Bodies met on December 8, 1937, and recommended the improvement of the method of reclamation by an alkali process instead of the former oil process, the standardization of the reclaimed rubber and the rates of mixing it with raw rubber according to grades. By the mixture of the best reclaimed rubber with raw rubber improvements may be effected in the manufacture of tyres and special rubber articles in addition to lowering the cost. The hardships experienced in obtaining sufficient supply of raw rubber in 1937 may become a spur for the progress of this new field of chemical industry in Japan.

BUSINESS RESULTS OF RUBBER COMPANIES

	Second Half of 1937		First Half of 1938		Second Half of 1938	
	Percentage of Profit	Percentage of Dividend	Percentage of Profit	Percentage of Dividend	Percentage of Profit	Percentage of Dividend
Tropical Industrial Company	5.2	5.0	1.6	0	4.7	3.0
Borneo Rubber Company	12.0	8.0	4.5	3.0	2.0	0
Malay Rubber Company	19.0	10.0	8.5	4.0	8.6	4.0
Nankoku Industrial Company	13.6	7.0	8.8	6.0	8.1	6.0
Showa Rubber Company	24.5	15.0	20.9	10.0	22.5	10.0
South Sea Rubber Company	24.5	12.0	10.0	8.0	11.1	8.0
Sumatra Development Company	22.2	12.0	11.0	8.0	11.8	8.0
Nippon Sangyo Rubber Company	22.4	15.0	19.3	13.0	20.4	13.0

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PRODUCTION OF RUBBER MANUFACTURES IN JAPAN

Soft Rubber Manufactures

(Value in ¥1,000)

Year	Shoes and Other Footwear		Toys	Tyres and Accessories	For Machinery
	No. Pairs units	Value			
1929	37,913,269	24,934	2,318	25,753	2,126
1930	47,290,089	20,379	2,313	19,285	1,420
1931	32,266,482	15,929	3,320	19,454	636
1932	34,294,225	17,352	5,027	24,080	1,173
1933	40,867,480	21,827	5,562	31,826	1,000
1934	44,305,294	25,102	3,547	40,588	491
1935	54,802,185	28,973	4,619	45,907	1,132
1936	44,390,727	31,790	4,984	51,066	859
1937	64,636,802	45,820	5,024	75,086	2,521

Soft Rubber Manufactures

Year	Belts	Rubber Pipes	Others	Total	Hard Rubber Manufactures	Grand Total
1929	4,698	1,318	9,859	74,871	1,727	76,598
1930	4,576	1,972	9,551	59,563	1,203	60,766
1931	4,005	1,747	9,898	54,992	1,112	56,104
1932	4,438	2,191	10,563	64,827	1,054	65,882
1933	5,662	2,989	16,061	84,981	1,722	86,704
1934	7,165	3,448	20,159	100,503	2,715	103,218
1935	8,262	4,422	23,113	116,406	2,620	119,052
1936	8,749	5,230	29,047	131,729	3,558	135,288
1937	13,871	7,560	44,011	193,896	7,814	201,710

Imports and Exports

The importation of rubber manufactures is decreasing each year. Tyres for automobiles, hose, belting for machinery, old rubber, etc., are the principal imports, but hose and belting of domestc manufacture are rapidly replacing the imported articles. On the other hand, the exportation of rubber manufactures is developing rapidly, especially in the case of rubber shoes.

Cultivation of Gum Trees

Plantation work by the Japanese was started as early as 1906 in the Malay States, and was later extended to Sumatra, North Borneo and other places. Soon afterwards a great interest was taken in the industry, Japanese investments quickly grew, and the work that was originally started as a private enterprise is now mostly carried on by joint stock companies. Majority of the raw rubber consumed in Japan is the production of the Japanese rubber companies which carry plantation work in South Sea Islands.

IMPORTS OF RAW RUBBER AND EXPORTS OF PRINCIPAL RUBBER MANUFACTURES

(In yen)

Year	Imports of Raw Rubber	Exports of Principal Rubber Manufactures			
		Boots and shoes	Tires for Rikisha, Bicycles and Other Vehicles	Toys	Belts, Hoses, etc.
1933	29,685,000	8,213,000	8,839,000	8,633,000	—
1934	57,337,000	3,332,000	9,994,000	6,406,000	5,216,000
1935	51,636,065	2,699,337	9,945,667	4,195,171	6,568,000
1936	72,957,000	1,832,000	9,939,000	4,641,000	7,424,000
1937	99,217,000	2,886,000	12,983,000	4,279,000	10,215,000
1938	51,374,000	1,568,000	7,799,000	2,197,000	9,964,000

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Celluloid

General

The Japanese celluloid industry made considerable development during the World War. Owing to a heavy demand coming from European countries, where factories were closed by the War, Japanese celluloid products once dominated the world's markets, but with the termination of the War, foreign products quickly regained their position in the markets captured by Japan during the War, and for some years the industry was in a state of depression. Gradually penetration was effected by traders and exporters, and overseas markets were largely restored, especially after the replacement of the gold embargo in December, 1931. The domestic market has been prosperous for many years, without being affected very much by changes in economic conditions.

Japanese celluloid products are mainly exported to America, England, South America and Australia. They are now exported to Europe and Africa, in competition with German products, their most formidable rivals. As long as the exchange rate is low and tariff walls are not raised, the export trade is destined to be prosperous.

Celluloid manufacturing is one of the most promising industries in Japan, with total production amounting to ¥33,396,000 in 1936 and exports reaching ¥24,576,000 in 1937, but it is faced with one great difficulty, that of obtaining its chief material cheaply. Camphor is the material, but as this is restricted by monopoly law its price is kept fairly high.

The Dai Nippon Celluloid Kaisha is the largest manufacturer, with a subscribed capital of ¥20,000,000. 75 per cent of the total production in Japan comes from this company, while the remaining 25 per cent is divided among about ten small manufacturing concerns. The company, which has a virtual monopoly of celluloid manufacturing in this country, concentrates its energies on exporting. Nearly 80 per cent of Japan's total exports of celluloid are the produce of this company.

Cellophane is manufactured at the Kanzaki factory of the company, and is now procurable at very low prices.

The company is also the largest shareholder of the Fuji Photo-Film Company established in 1934 with a capital of ¥10,000,000. This company has a capacity of producing 150 million feet, and nearly monopolizes the manufacture of films in Japan, which amounted to ¥4,666,000 in 1936; the other film producing company being the Oriental Photo Industrial Company capitalized with ¥4,300,000.

Statistics Production of raw celluloid, celluloid manufactures, and exports of the same follow:

PRODUCTION OF CELLULOID AND MANUFACTURES THEREOF

Year	Raw Celluloid Quantity metric tons	Raw Celluloid Value	Manufactures of Celluloid Toys (In ¥1,000)	Combs	Others	Total	Grand Total
1929	5,806	12,278	2,025	535	4,668	7,229	19,508
1930	4,146	8,029	1,757	364	2,193	4,315	12,345
1931	4,847	7,800	861	393	1,347	2,602	10,403
1932	5,700	7,974	1,040	1,056	2,145	4,242	12,217
1933	8,893	16,674	2,628	1,503	3,395	7,527	24,202
1934	10,393	20,277	1,636	1,090	4,640	7,367	27,644
1935	13,033	24,649	1,975	1,208	6,208	9,392	34,042
1936	13,813	24,439	1,989	1,169	5,796	8,956	33,396
1937	14,227	25,391	3,408	2,486	6,985	12,879	38,270

EXPORTS OF RAW CELLULOID AND MANUFACTURES THEREOF

Year	Raw Celluloid Quantity metric tons	Raw Celluloid Value	Celluloid Manufactures Toys (In ¥1,000)	Combs	Armlets	Others	Total	Grand Total
1929	208	396	5,572	963	—	1,834	8,370	8,767
1930	161	298	4,423	631	—	1,267	6,322	6,621
1931	304	504	3,041	763	—	920	4,725	5,230

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Year	Raw Celluloid		Celluloid Manufactures					
	Quantity metric tons	Value	Toys	Combs (In ¥1,000)	Armlets	Others	Total	Grand Total
1932	511	875	2,527	1,467	—	1,494	5,490	6,366
1933	1,320	2,363	3,178	3,110	—	2,346	8,635	10,993
1934	1,804	3,303	3,708	4,260	—	3,223	11,191	14,494
1935	2,033	3,469	6,054	4,414	1,983	3,089	15,550	19,021
1936	2,242	3,717	6,338	3,857	1,815	4,271	16,280	19,997
1937	2,100	3,952	7,606	4,854	2,711	5,403	20,574	24,576
1938	1,225	2,730	4,841	2,851	1,664	4,044	13,400	16,130

Note: Incongruity in the figures of celluloid manufactures in the production and exports tables is due to the fact that a large amount of celluloid manufactures is produced by mills where less than 5 persons are employed.

Dyestuffs

Through Governmental protection extending over many years, the Japanese dyestuff industry is now well established. Japan supplies 99 per cent of all sulphuric dyes demanded domestically. Concerning ratios of high-grade dye supplies, Japan can supply 86 per cent of miscellaneous dyes, 49 per cent of acid dyes, 35 per cent of mordant dyes and 26 per cent of cat dyes for internal use. Coal-tar dyes were already exported in 1934 to the volume of 7,023 metric tons, worth ¥4,259,000. Napthol and Indanthrane dyes, of which consumption is approximately 150,000 kin worth about ¥3,000,000, are not manufactured here, but are imported from Germany. Research in producing these dyes is under way by the Mitsui Mining and Japan Dyestuff Manufacturing Companies. The Teikoku Senryo (Imperial Dyestuffs Manufacturing) Company is another producer of dyestuffs capitalized at ¥5,000,000.

On account of the restrictions put on the manufacture of certain of the high-grade dyestuffs by German patents, Japan still finds it necessary to import dyestuffs to the value of more than ¥10,000,000 annually. On account of the development of iron manufacturing industry, however, Japan is now well provided with coal-tar, material required for the production of dyestuffs. Accordingly, efforts are now being made to promote the dyestuff industry with a view to making the country self-sufficient and self-supplied in dyestuffs.

Imports of dyestuff in 1938 were ¥2,838,000 in value, and showed a remarkable decrease as compared with ¥16,928,000 for 1937, details of which follow:

IMPORTS OF DYESTUFF

Colours	1936	1937 (In ¥1,000)	1938
Basic	796	1,246	145
Direct	3,013	4,708	834
Acid	1,776	2,537	644
Mordant and intermediate	2,006	2,651	389
Vat	2,458	4,079	366
Others	2,355	1,707	460
Total	11,404	16,928	2,838

The domestic production of dyes during 1937 compared with the preceding four years and exports of Japan-made dyes since 1933, follow:

PRODUCTION OF SYNTHETIC DYESTUFFS

Year	Basic		Direct		Acid		Mordant	
	Quantity 1,000kg.	Value ¥1,000	Quantity 1,000kg.	Value ¥1,000	Quantity 1,000kg.	Value ¥1,000	Quantity 1,000kg.	Value ¥1,000
1933	717	4,069	1,693	5,707	522	2,249	32	220
1934	765	4,266	2,183	6,816	554	2,091	178	750
1935	677	3,774	2,700	7,726	756	2,781	341	1,409
1936	994	4,569	2,998	8,808	977	3,984	264	1,206
1937	1,058	5,541	3,812	13,584	775	3,831	493	2,099

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Year	Sulphide Quantity 1,000kg.	Sulphide Value ¥1,000	Artificial Indigo Quantity 1,000kg.	Artificial Indigo Value ¥1,000	Vat Colours Others Quantity 1,000kg.	Vat Colours Others Value ¥1,000	Others and Total Value ¥1,000
1933	11,816	5,721	594	2,327	65	445	23,983
1934	12,144	5,107	1,724	3,803	28	400	27,446
1935	12,450	4,673	2,816	5,760	26	627	31,265
1936	11,198	3,684	1,740	4,794	29	506	33,721
1937	13,160	5,410	2,228	6,264	323	1,303	45,140

PRODUCTION OF ANILINE AND INTERMEDIATES

	Aniline Quantity 1,000kg.	Aniline Value (In ¥1,000)	Others and Total
1933	2,995	2,600	10,057
1934	3,821	3,033	8,492
1935	4,043	2,924	12,077
1936	3,943	2,328	13,115
1937	4,788	5,081	25,581

EXPORTS OF SYNTHETIC DYESTUFFS

	Quantity (Metric tons)	Value (¥1,000)
1933	6,125	2,895
1934	6,423	4,259
1935	8,882	7,304
1936	7,000	5,990
1937	6,062	6,269
1938	6,749	7,768

Indigo Indigo is one of the indispensable dyestuffs for dyeing Japanese cloth and the material is obtained from various grasses. The production of this natural material was as follows:

PRODUCTION OF INDIGO BALLS

Year	Coarse Indigo Quantity Metric tons	Coarse Indigo Value ¥1,000	Indigo Balls Quantity Metric tons	Indigo Balls Value ¥1,000
1933	1,181	396	298	83
1934	1,176	314	326	105
1935	1,128	303	269	87
1936	1,169	347	320	109
1937	1,182	346	322	112

Pyrethrum

Hokkaido is noted for producing the pyrethrum flower, the raw material for anti-insect powder largely used for making mosquito incense and anti-bed bug powder. Pyrethrum was formerly exported through Kobé merchants, but owing to inconvenience the Hokkaido Government encouraged direct shipments from Hokkaido, the first direct shipment being made in September, 1933. The Hokkaido Government also caused pyrethrum manufacturers to organize the Manufactured Pyrethrum Industrial Guild, as the first step to the export of manufactured pyrethrum abroad, which had hitherto been exported in the shape of dried flowers. As an international commodity, manufactured pyrethrum is steadily gaining ground, and under the encouragement of their government, the Hokkaido pyrethrum raisers are manufacturing it for direct export to the United States, Saigon, Bangkok, Rangoon, Manila, Singapore, Sourabaya, Batavia, Calcutta and Bombay, and to such European markets as London, Hamburg and Paris. Wakayama prefecture is also noted for raising pyrethrum flowers. Production and exports of pyrethrum during the last few years follow :

PRODUCTION AND EXPORTS OF PYRETHRUM

Year	Production Quantity 1,000kg.	Production Value ¥1,000	Exports Quantity 1,000kg.	Exports Value ¥1,000
1933	6,061	7,809	5,088	6,349
1934	7,798	10,574	5,630	7,447
1935	12,746	7,322	7,665	6,400
1936	11,051	5,710	5,608	3,207
1937	9,560	8,214	8,844	7,693
1938	—	—	4,621	6,103

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VALUE OF PRODUCTION OF CHEMICAL INDUSTRY

(Unit: ¥1,000)

Industrial Chemicals	1935	1936	1937
Sulphuric acid	37,490	47,870	68,712
Hydrochloric acid	3,412	4,372	5,775
Soda ash	27,345	23,145	29,227
Washing soda	201	262	227
Carbonate of soda	2,013	2,253	2,247
Caustic soda	34,971	34,026	64,197
Carbide	33,761	36,620	43,893
Chromic acid	756	930	1,109
Chromic soda	1,839	1,738	1,991
Iodine	274	260	405
Iodide of potassium	694	297	512
Bleaching powder	5,194	4,256	5,609
Compressed gas:			
Oxygen	9,234	9,545	9,599
Hydrogen	1,234	2,177	1,844
Chlorine	1,310	1,765	1,536
Carbon	362	402	503
Others	651	496	855
Total	12,791	14,386	14,338
Acetic acid	4,308	5,207	6,617
Salicylic acid	555	367	1,128
Tannic acid	264	323	334
Naphthalene	1,144	2,109	2,005
Acetone	231	426	641
Methanol	1,296	1,352	2,472
Alcohol	1,637	2,595	3,049
Ether	1,024	987	1,179
Glycerine	8,483	10,508	23,136
Phosphorus	1,318	1,379	1,442
Glauber's salt	1,358	1,532	2,484
Sulphide soda	1,989	2,108	3,894
Silicic soda	1,575	1,547	1,798
Chloride of potash	139	112	101
Nitre	775	1,024	1,522
Ammonium nitrate	321	536	551
Magnesium carbonate	3,436	3,694	4,097
Chloride of lead	955	824	1,738
Alum	733	897	1,054
Sulphuric aluminium	1,295	1,639	2,112
Others	51,053	119,871	207,359
Total of Industrial chemicals	244,630	329,467	506,949
Medicines	93,510	113,319	123,573
Dyestuffs	43,342	46,836	70,730
Tannin extract	353	198	388
Artificial perfumery	4,023	4,943	5,250

	1935	1936	1937
Paints:			
Lacquer	1,089	1,072	2,387
Varnish	7,521	11,318	11,064
Enamel	3,054	6,389	5,940
Paint for boats	1,962	1,963	2,178
Paint for nitrate cotton	1,877	2,383	915
Shoe-cream	693	825	1,222
Total including others	31,414	37,804	46,105
Colours:			
Colours for painting	1,975	2,771	2,119
Indian ink	935	912	1,347
Printing ink	8,155	8,682	8,967
Other ink	2,658	4,348	4,844
Flowers of zinc	7,005	6,697	11,208
Total including others	32,774	36,715	45,532
Soap	50,258	51,908	55,087
Articles for toilet:			
Perfume	1,191	1,297	1,446
Perfume oil	2,979	3,904	6,093
Tooth powder	10,237	7,534	11,219
Face-paint	8,289	7,809	7,871
Beauty-wash	1,030	3,280	4,684
Toilet-cream	8,344	9,748	12,217
Total including others	38,110	43,438	49,292
Explosives	21,512	25,018	35,918
Vegetable oil and wax	70,906	90,157	100,313
Camphor	8,619	8,931	9,676
Camphor oil	1,485	1,642	1,281
Peppermint oil and menthol	9,167	9,280	11,149
Other vegetable volatile oil	954	876	1,317
Animal oil and wax	12,418	16,768	22,857
Wood wax	2,228	2,463	1,694
Candles	5,201	7,057	7,250
Worked oils	31,309	35,096	39,877
Rubber manufactures	119,027	135,288	201,710
Phenol manufactures	4,908	7,447	14,973
Gramophone disk	15,618	19,299	15,263
Pulp	35,680	47,796	65,415
Paper	224,781	250,983	335,646
Celluloid	34,042	33,396	38,270
Vulcanized fibre	4,195	4,017	7,329
Rayon Yarn	160,084	212,974	332,357
Film for photograph	3,194	4,666	6,715
Dry-plate	2,113	2,042	1,899

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	1935	1936	1937
Negative paper	3,695	4,129	5,546
Fertilizers	250,542	291,531	379,883
Worked fur	984	626	1,134
Glue and gelatine	6,843	5,528	9,084
Polishing powder	1,334	1,860	2,206
Other articles for polishing	2,890	3,428	6,247
Carbon manufactures	8,769	12,455	17,441
(Electrode)	(6,231	9,581	12,106)
Coke	52,358	79,278	150,147
Grand total	1,877,578	2,202,362	3,070,245

Note: Figures are for production of factories where more than 5 operatives are employed, and do not coincide with figures given elsewhere for certain articles.

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CHAPTER XXIII

MISCELLANEOUS INDUSTRIES

The Kiln Industry (Cement, Ceramics and Glass), Matches, Lacquer-ware, etc.

Cement

History

In 1871, cement works were established by the Government in Fukagawa, Tokyo. This was the origin of the cement industry in Japan. For ten years the works gradually expanded so that by 1891, the total capital invested in the industry was ¥1,000,000, the works numbered ten and the capacity was about 300,000 barrels a year.

In 1898, there were sixteen works with an aggregate capacity of 1,000,000 bbls, and imports were entirely excluded. In 1912, there were nineteen companies and twenty three mills. The total capital invested amounted to ¥18,000,000 while the capacity increased to 4,000,000 bbls.

During the World War, the industry enjoyed unprecedented prosperity and expanded rapidly. New companies were formed and new mills added. At the end to 1926, companies numbered twenty-one with thirty four mills, the total authorized capital was ¥118,000,000 of which ¥85,000,000 was paid up, and the total production capacity increased to 17,500,000 bbls.

During the last twenty years, demand for cement increased every year with five exceptions, there was a 2% decrease in 1912 and a 10% in 1915 and 1919. The average rate of increase was about 11%. But in 1930, domestic consumption suddenly decreased by 12%, the first time that any such sharp decrease had ever been experienced. The decrease was due to the general depression and the economic retrenchment policy of the Government following the removal of the gold embargo in January, 1930. In 1931, there was a further decrease, but in 1932, with general activity in industry being felt, there was some recovery over the previous two years.

The Industry in Recent Years

For some years in the past, the interest of cement industry in Japan centred on the question of the adjustment of over-extended capacity of production. The result is a large curtailment of production.

In 1925 capacity was about 50 per cent larger than the output, which became almost 100 per cent in 1934. In recent years the greatest consumption of cement, including domestic consumption and export, was 480,000 tons of May, 1934, while the production capacity at the end of November of the same year was 1,020,000 tons a month. For almost a year 57 per cent of the Cement Association's (Cement Rengokai) capacity has been curtailed.

The cause of this abnormal condition of the industry is found in the fact that in fixing production curtailment ratio of the member companies of the Rengokai, it has been based on the capacities of production of the members. This led the member companies to expand capacities to get larger shares of business. The situation culminated in the latter part of 1934 in forcing the Department of Commerce and Industry to apply the Major Industries Control Law to the cement industry.

PRODUCTION OF CEMENT

(Compiled by the Ministry of Commerce and Industry)

Year	Portland Cement		Others		Total value in Yen
	Barrels	¥	Barrels	¥	
1930	14,552,558	50,749,224	3,358,179	10,530,398	61,279,622
1931	15,885,398	51,779,580	3,052,971	9,837,362	61,616,942
1932	17,215,073	67,782,953	142,599	450,254	68,233,207
1933	21,789,392	84,566,744	153,926	515,065	85,081,809
1934	26,689,637	90,814,136	39,002	1,389,466	92,203,602
1935	30,854,313	99,146,671	706,233	1,693,554	100,840,225
1936	32,375,874	95,591,214	2,085,229	5,706,847	101,298,061
1937	33,215,239	102,552,588	2,879,613	7,546,948	110,099,536

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CONSUMPTION OF CEMENT CLASSIFIED BY USES

(In 1,000 metric tons)

Uses	1936	1937	1938	Uses	1936	1937	1938
Railways	246.7	284.7	241.5	Mining	62.3	101.5	124.1
Electric works	248.1	421.4	510.6	Retails	1,268.8	1,300.7	1,151.0
Harbours	102.2	109.0	97.0	Cement products	111.2	162.1	152.9
Roads and bridges	267.8	239.8	187.4	Miscellaneous	20.6	20.3	27.5
Other public works	373.5	374.6	345.7	Total	3,730.1	4,163.4	3,884.0
Buildings	1,028.7	1,148.9	1,045.8				

EXPORTS OF CEMENT

(Quantity in metric tons and value in ¥1,000)

	1935		1936		1937		1938	
Descriptions	Qty	Value	Qty	Value	Qty	Value	Qty	Value
Manchoukuo	3,968	65	3,971	59	222	13	34,354	625
Kwantung L. T.	108,682	2,001	107,198	1,874	13,227	286	45,791	904
China	22,357	237	22,550	250	13,249	138	75,659	911
Hong Kong	70,003	716	54,910	581	15,887	151	9	1
British India	17,185	234	13,497	170	15,558	184	5,380	65
Straits Settlements	84,595	958	90,299	994	81,830	877	34,150	352
Dutch East Indies	44,532	549	48,978	606	84,480	1,044	88,817	1,150
Philippines	1,018	16	2,534	35	8,060	102	60,864	658
Others	302,739	3,301	298,224	3,429	353,795	4,039	146,408	1,746
Total	655,083	8,081	702,164	8,001	586,312	6,836	491,432	6,411

1938 Cement Industry

The China Affair seriously affected the cement industry in 1937 and 1938. The total production of cement in 1937, however, reached 6 million metric tons increasing by half a million metric tons as compared with the previous year. The total production in 1938 reached 5,519,062 metric tons decreasing 514,000 metric tons from the previous year, owing mainly to the halt in construction activities due to the State economic control, and the decrease of demand for Japanese cement in foreign markets.

The restoration of peace and order in Chinese areas occupied by the Japanese forces recovered the exports to China, but the total exports amounted to 491,432 metric tons decreasing by 94,880 metric tons or 16 per cent as compared with the previous year.

The curtailment of capacity in the factories which belonged to the member companies of the Cement Manufacturers' Association had to be kept at an average of 63 per cent throughout the year 1938, and the Association decided on August 18, 1939, to keep 60 per cent curtailment to the end of November, 1939.

CURTAILMENT OF PRODUCTION OF CEMENT

(The Cement Manufacturers' Association)

	Percentage	
	1937	1938
January	63.0	65.0
February	63.0	65.0
March	61.0	63.0
April	58.0	61.5
May	58.0	61.5
June	56.0	59.0
July	56.5	61.0
August	56.0	61.0
September	60.0	64.0
October	62.0	66.0
November	62.0	66.0
December	65.0	69.0

Increase of Stock According to the report of the Warehouse Association the amount of stocks of cement which was 216,099 metric tons in 1937 increased to 258,977 metric tons in January, 1938, to 298,265 in July, and decreased to 228,399 at the end of the year. But it began to increase in January, 1939.

According to the report of the Cement Manufacturers' Association the amount of stocks of cement and clinker combined was 450,353 metric tons in January, 1938, and increased to 525,419 metric tons at the end of the year. The estimate for the end of 1939 is put at 600,000 metric tons.

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Capacity of Production The production capacity of cement companies is on a steady increase inspite of the adverse business conditions. The monthly production capacity of the member companies of the Cement Manufacturers' Association was 835,000 tons in January, 1937. It increased to 832,000 tons in November, and 900,000 tons in December, an increase of 65,000 tons over 1936. Japan proper may be able to get a supply of cement amounting to 1,230,000 tons monthly including 200,000 tons of cement produced by companies outside the Association and 130,000 tons imported from Korea. The monthly production capacity of the member companies of the Association in 1938 increased from 900,000 metric tons in December, 1937, to 938,460 metric tons in December, 1938.

EXPANSION OF THE PRODUCTIVE POWER OF THE CEMENT MANUFACTURERS' ASSOCIATION

(Monthly Capacity)

(In 1,000 tons)

	1936	1937	1938
January	792	836	911
February	792	837	911
March	791	861	911
April	792	861	921
May	793	861	921
June	792	872	917
July	802	873	917
August	802	882	918
September	815	882	917
October	815	882	919
November	815	882	919
December	835	900	938

Rise in Cost and Price The rise in cost of production in 1938 badly affected the profit of cement companies.

The Tokyo price of cement steadily rose during 1938, from ¥1.25 per bag (50 kg.) in January to ¥1.35 in December, making an average for the year ¥1.28 against ¥1.25 for the previous year.

Extension to North China The total annual output of the ten Chinese cement companies is estimated at 1,170,000 tons, and the actual shipment by these companies to districts in North China amounts to 100,000 tons, against the demand amounting to roughly from 250,000 to 330,000 tons. The leading Japanese cement companies such as Asano, Onoda, Iwaki, Osaka Ceramic and Ubé are preparing to gain larger markets in North China in 1938 and after.

At the end of 1937 Japanese cement companies met together to consider the question of a joint exportation of their products to North China, in view of the prospective increase of demand for cement in that area with the advancement of reconstruction works and the revision of tariff rates which had been prohibitive, and arrived at an understanding.

Their expectation seems to have been fulfilled for the exports of cement to China in 1938 reached over five times as much as in 1937, amounting to 75,659 metric tons valued at ¥911,000 against 13,249 metric tons valued at ¥138,000 of the previous year. When compared with the normal year of 1936, the amount increased over three times in which it amounted to 22,550 metric tons.

SUPPLY AND DEMAND OF CEMENT

(Compiled by the Cement Manufacturers' Association)

(In metric tons)

	Production Capacity Cement	Clinker	Shipments to Japan Proper		Production Capacity Cement	Clinker	Shipments to Japan Proper
1933	4,781,031	4,728,289	3,981,391	1936	4,264,475	4,359,188	3,730,192
1934	4,729,994	4,803,113	3,886,870	1937	4,650,393	4,666,478	4,163,462
1935	4,500,362	4,490,648	3,515,224	1938	4,288,564	4,384,022	4,884,000

	Exports to Foreign Countries	Shipments to Manchoukuo	New Contracts	Outstanding Contracts	Stocks
1933	489,500	332,184	4,760,700	874,400	204,200
1934	319,954	449,523	4,558,200	479,800	241,500
1935	432,599	123,280	4,488,300	675,700	296,000
1936	351,849	157,252	4,488,300	797,300	382,400
1937	434,199	12,658	4,943,600	1,015,700	316,400
1938	276,525	—	4,309,600	12,083,209	5,846,300

Note: Figures are for the member companies of the Association alone.

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Ceramics

Introduction

Pottery making has an old history in Japan. As far back as can be traced in history some potters appear to have had their secret proprietary methods of production. In the Meiji Era, especially after the Russo-Japanese War, along with the advance in industry in general, pottery making was industrialized, a procedure which was thought difficult of accomplishment, and to-day annual production amounts to from ¥60,000,000 to ¥80,000,000 in value, while exports amount to over ¥30,000,000. It is now one of the principal industries in Japan.

The chief places of production are Nagoya and Seto, both in Aichi prefecture, and the eastern part of Gifu prefecture. The quantity produced in these places amounts to about 70% of the country's total production. Seto is such a famous place for pottery that the Japanese commonly call chinaware "Seto-mono." Besides the products named above "Kutani" ware of Ishikawa prefecture, "Shimizu" ware of Kyoto prefecture, and "Arita" ware of Saga prefecture, are all famous though produced in small quantities only. Nagoya district is one of the largest pottery producing places in the world.

Pottery was being made, crudely admittedly, at the time of the Emperor Jimmu, the first Emperor of Japan, who lived about 650 B.C. At the time of the Emperor Suinin, that is, 66 A.D., a Korean prince was nationalized, and one of his retainers, who knew the potter's art, was able to give instruction on foreign manufacturing methods. Later, at the time of the Emperor Kammu, i.e., 781 A.D., pottery was imported from China, and the art made further progress.

In 1221 A.D., a man named Kagemasa Kato studied the art of pottery making in China. When he returned, he settled in Seto village, Aichi prefecture, and made chinaware of superior quality, the origin of the present "Seto" ware.

After that, many master artisans arose and tea-things, rice bowls, pitchers, incense burners, etc., now of great rarity and value were produced.

Present Condition of the Industry

In 1937 total production of chinaware amounted to ¥115,191,376, while there were as many as 6,566 factories and 62,231 employees. The value of total production including tiles and drainage pipes reached ¥145,612,876.

The following table shows how this industry has developed recently.

FACTORIES AND PRODUCTION OF CERAMICS

(Compiled by the Ministry of Commerce and Industry)

Year	Factories	Operatives	Tablewares	Furnitures	Building Materials	Insulators	Toys	Others	Total
					(Value in yen)				
1929	6,685	44,366	41,866,937	13,690,379	3,133,863	7,210,453	1,074,811	7,791,027	74,767,470
1930	6,435	41,226	34,737,320	11,879,836	2,235,018	6,006,096	935,719	6,625,941	62,419,930
1931	6,353	40,320	31,926,067	9,388,264	2,304,914	4,154,698	1,163,012	5,320,929	54,197,884
1932	6,474	43,948	35,733,104	11,593,447	2,934,639	4,742,886	2,595,435	7,663,341	65,262,852
1933	6,586	53,292	45,204,776	14,910,054	6,131,345	5,886,047	2,003,566	10,110,712	85,246,500
1934	6,473	57,172	54,001,916	15,573,166	5,876,879	6,166,129	2,981,099	7,764,502	92,363,691
1935	6,624	61,135	54,616,818	15,504,495	6,754,686	9,245,261	3,471,091	9,775,659	99,368,010
1936	6,686	63,955	58,801,046	16,845,708	7,357,239	10,865,483	3,878,602	10,423,633	108,171,711
1937	6,566	62,231	58,791,085	16,161,223	8,859,706	15,155,087	4,015,185	12,209,090	115,191,376

Factories and Production of Tiles and Drainage Pipes

(Value in yen)

Year	Tiles					Drainage Pipes		
	Factories	Operatives	Roof Tiles Value	Others Value	Total Value	Factories	Operatives	Value
1929	12,485	40,695	26,868,109	3,733,339	30,601,448	838	3,319	4,578,015
1930	11,962	38,066	19,752,659	2,887,521	22,640,180	832	3,150	4,301,342
1931	11,725	38,072	18,345,402	2,654,000	20,999,402	784	2,865	3,814,048
1932	11,445	38,268	18,070,815	2,784,285	20,855,100	827	2,966	3,092,524
1933	11,213	37,628	19,125,574	3,111,841	22,237'415	918	3,310	3,760,772
1934	11,021	38,680	20,740,445	3,192,184	23,932,629	937	3,453	4,228,313
1935	10,809	39,398	21,277,565	3,374,301	24,651,866	944	3,913	4,431,993
1936	10,688	39,576	23,076,803	3,535,245	26,612,048	891	3,593	4,964,409
1937	10,211	35,795	21,571,140	3,339,705	24,910,845	921	4,324	5,510,655

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Exports of Chinaware Though exports of chinaware amounting to ¥1,300,000 were made as early as 1886, the exports business did not develop to any great extent until the Russo-Japanese War. In 1904, the Nippon Toki Kaisha, Ltd., was organized, to be quickly followed by the Toyo Toki Kaisha, Ltd., and the Nagoya Seito-sho. Each of these companies established large mills with up-to-date equipment and began to produce chinaware on a big scale. Painstaking studies were made to improve the products and build up an export business, and these, together with other special factors, account for the remarkably large increase in exports. The special factors are :

(1) Japan is able to produce specially thin chinaware that other countries cannot.

(2) Japanese artisans are especially clever at their work.

(3) The cost of production is reasonable.

Just at the time when the industry was organized on a modern basis, the World War broke out. Pottery works in belligerent countries in Europe were closed down and exports from Japan increased by leaps and bounds. A temporary set-back was experienced when the War ceased, but a recovery was soon made and there was a steady growth until 1929, then there was a falling off until 1932, when some slight gain was made over the previous year. Exports in 1938 declined on account of the State control of trade.

EXPORTS OF CHINAWARE TO DIFFERENT COUNTRIES

(In ¥1,000)

Countries	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936	1937	1938
Manchoukuo	—	531,128	1,238	1,222	1,391	2,222	3,821
China	554	991	1,387	1,339	1,127	1,145	2,453
Kwantung L. T.	756	1,193	2,084	2,162	1,859	2,353	4,643
Hong Kong	142	247	442	493	481	366	191
British India	3,463	3,965	3,204	3,529	3,696	4,240	2,580
Straits Settlements	374	900	1,290	763	514	1,174	307
Dutch East Indies	2,424	3,728	3,269	2,133	2,388	3,109	2,714
French Indo-China	36	144	134	245	270	231	131
Philippines	635	959	580	945	1,148	1,431	628
Great Britain	825	1,296	1,161	1,186	1,275	1,171	888
France	311	643	355	261	317	426	133
Germany	100	146	221	226	245	303	296
Italy	236	371	343	110	—	—	—
Holland	848	981	761	498	607	542	607
U. S. A.	6,180	10,180	14,310	15,776	15,530	19,460	8,696
Canada	1,317	1,399	1,508	1,458	2,025	2,038	1,235
Argentine	150	395	628	767	595	1,259	786
Brazil	118	370	554	672	461	1,036	576
Egypt	408	438	627	488	495	364	415
Australia	1,768	2,707	2,331	2,804	2,291	2,598	2,915
Others and Total	22,937	35,634	41,879	43,318	43,548	53,971	40,477

Domestic Consumption There are no statistics to rely upon for the exact amount of domestic consumption, but if we subtract exports from the total production we have an approximate value. Figures shown in the second column of the first table "Factories and Production of Ceramics" give some idea of the amount. Though tile making is growing fast on account of the increase in building of Western style houses, the market had been depressed because of lack of control over production and sales until 1934 when it began to regain prosperity.

The peculiarity about chinaware intended for domestic use is that it must be made by small factories on the family basis. The reason is that the taste of the Japanese for chinaware is very varied, differing according to each individual as to the form, colour, design, etc., and making it impossible to produce on large scale mass production principles.

Glass and Glass Manufactures

Origin and Development

As far as historical record shows, the art of glass manufacturing was developed in the Nara period, that is about 700 A.D. Later, technics of manufactur-

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ing were imported both from the South Sea Islands and China, and put into practice in Osaka, Kyoto and Tokyo, where the industry developed. After the Meiji Restoration, the Government established a model factory to encourage the development of the industry and various attempts were afterwards made to make glass and glassware both by the Government and by individual concerns, but it was not until after the Russo-Japanese War of 1904–1905, that the industry made any great progress.

Present Condition

Due to the strenuous efforts of manufacturers and advantages from a low exchange rate since the gold embargo was replaced, the glass industry in Japan is doing remarkably well.

Glass Tableware Glass tableware was early manufactured in Kagoshima and the old province of Satsuma in Kyushu Island. After the Meiji Restoration it was manufactured by the Shinagawa Shoshi Seizosho (Shinagawa Glass Co.) which was under Government control. At present it is manufactured by the Fukushima Glass Co. organized in 1896, Koidé Shoshi Seizosho (Koidé Glass Co.) established in 1898, Marasa Glass Co., organized in 1918, and the Kawai Shoshi Shokki Seizosho (Kawai Table Glassware Co.) organized in 1920, etc. Production by these and other manufacturers is given below

Other Glass Articles Glass articles for scientific and medical purposes were manufactured as early as 1850. There are many manufacturers of these articles in Tokyo district.

The manufacturing of eye-glasses was first practised as early as 1600. In 1873, a certain Mr. Matsugoro Asakura from Tokyo, went to Austria and learned the art of manufacturing eye-glasses on modern principles. His son and several others are now manufacturing them.

Red glass was manufactured by the Kagoshima clan prior to the Meiji Restoration, and later by the Shinagawa Shoshi Seizosho, which was under Government control. Also a certain Mr. Tokijiro Iwashiro succeeded in manufacturing lenses for the use of searchlights, and light-houses. The right of manufacturing these lenses was later transferred to the Nippon Kogaku Kogyo Kaisha, Ltd., (The Nippon Optical Science Industrial Co., Ltd.). Mr. Iwashiro's son later succeeded in manufacturing cut glass.

Glasses for optical work were mostly imported from Germany before the World War, but when the supply was cut off by the war, it was determined that "lenses for optical science must be produced at home at any cost." The Nippon Kogaku Kogyo Kaisha, Ltd., to which all the results of studies made by the naval arsenal were transferred in 1914, and the Osaka Industrial Research Institute, which started research work in 1921, continued investigations. The Osaka Institute succeeded in 1925 in discovering a formula for manufacturing lenses, superior to German makes at reasonable cost. The Nippon Kogaku Kogyo Kaisha, Ltd., also succeeded in finding a way to make these lenses, and it is probable that the importation of lenses of these classes from Germany will, in a not distant future, become unnecessary.

Glasses for the chemical industry, that is, hard glasses, are manufactured in several mills in Japan. High grade hard glass which is not in any degree inferior to the best imported is now manufactured by several firms for thermometers, gauges and the chemical industry.

Sheet Glass

Though many efforts were previously made to manufacture sheet glass, it was not until 1904 that a Mr. Magoichi Shimoda, after two years of experimental manufacture, was successful in producing a product that could be put on the market.

In 1907, the Asahi Glass Co., Ltd., was organized in Amagasaki, Hyogo prefecture, by the family of the late Baron Yanosuké Iwasaki. An export and five skilled workmen were brought over from Belgium and commenced to manufacture it from 1909. The company struggled for 7 years against difficulties in technique and pressure of foreign competition, and in the end succeeded in producing about 120,000 cases a year. In 1914, a patent, which enabled the company to produce sheet glass by a mechanical process was bought from the American Window Glass Co., Ltd., and a factory was established at Makiyama in Tobata, Fukuoka prefecture. On account of the cutting off of imports from Europe during the World War, the company not only increased production, but exported their products to places far afield as South Africa and London. In 1916, the company established a factory in Tsurumi, Yokohama, and in 1917 another in Yawata, Fukuoka prefecture. In 1923 and 1924, the factories in Makiyama and Tsurumi were extended, and at present the company is capitalized at ¥40,000,000 and has a productive capacity of 545,000,000 sq. feet, besides soda products, culcium chloride, fire

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brick and corhart electrocast-brick. Its head office is now at Marunouchi, Tokyo.

At present the Asahi Glass Co. Ltd., the Nippon Sheet Glass Co. Ltd., the Nippon Thick Glass Co. Ltd., and the Tokunaga Sheet Glass Co. Ltd. are manufacturing sheet glasses.

SUPPLY AND DEMAND OF SHEET GLASS

(Unit: Case which contains 100 sq. feet of sheet glass)

	Production	Imports	Exports	Domestic Consumption
1929	1,803,863	300,106	58,416	2,045,553
1930	2,045,611	356,752	57,897	2,344,466
1931	2,220,206	300,023	28,080	2,522,149
1932	2,305,626	247,144	51,204	2,501,566
1933	2,802,555	222,896	137,096	2,888,355
1934	2,897,747	179,476	283,183	2,794,040
1935	3,131,212	94,445	253,727	2,971,930
1936	3,487.096	137,740	251,207	3,373,629
1937	4,285,327	78,417	306,121	4,085,076
1938	3,174,972	10,076	262,217	2,922,831

PRODUCTION OF GLASS AND GLASSWARE

(Value in ¥1,000)

Year	Table Ware	For Decorative Purposes			For Illuminating Purposes		Bottles
		Beads and Balls	Arm Rings	Others	Shades and Globes	Others	
1929	3,360	465	1,070	175	1,326	435	17,813
1930	2,870	893	859	79	838	244	14,765
1931	2,455	71	570	68	388	944	10,927
1932	4,193	373	683	357	391	733	11,193
1933	4,143	302	696	159	499	1,280	16,845
1934	5,454	469	853	246	471	1,414	20,349
1935	6,631	239	1,030	291	569	1,119	23,716
1936	6,472	423	1,972	227	1,928	754	25,319
1937	7,023	962	1,161	260	1,014	1,089	31,325

(Quantity in 1,000; value in ¥1,000)

Year	Sheet Glass Thickness under 2.2 mm.		Sheet Glass Thickness under 4 mm.		Others		Looking Glasses		Others and Total Value
	Quantity cases	Value	Quantity cases	Value	Quantity cases	Value	Quantity cases	Value	
1929	1,606	12,121	53	426	143	2,256	45	789	44,669
1930	1,863	12,915	169	2,291	12	220	44	25	40,583
1931	2,104	13,690	99	1,010	16	332	53	128	34,338
1932	1,757	9,908	337	2,137	210	2,124	80	235	37,233
1933	2,039	15,237	427	3,988	335	3,147	74	288	52,526
1934	2,124	15,335	513	4,449	259	3,641	0.450	433	58,857
1935	1,009	7,642	1,770	14,196	350	5,141	0.270	368	68,173
1936	956	6,699	2,161	17,146	369	8,107	76	497	78,360
1937	3,320	27,465	570	7,779	301	5,444	0.560	721	96,375

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EXPORTS OF GLASS AND GLASSWARE

(Value in ¥1,000)

Kinds	1936		1937		1938	
	Quantity	Value	Quantity	Value	Quantity	Value
Window glass in 1,000 sq. ft.	25,120	1,233	27,866	1,560	23,068	1,364
Thermos in 1,000 doz.	395	2,885	410	3,131	262	2,138
Glass bottles in 1,000 doz.	27,332	5,834	36,225	8,030	29,485	7,001
Glass cups in 1,000 doz.	7,455	4,097	8,942	5,064	6,311	3,583
Glass tableware in 1,000 doz.	1,548	1,415	2,238	2,541	1,831	1,571
Watch glasses in gross	133	162	146	183	—	—
Glass beads and balls in 100 kin	20,950	1,056	26,640	1,432	21,309	1,223
Spectacles in 1,000 pcs.	27,016	2,552	30,792	3,243	18,183	1,657
Looking glasses in 1,000 pcs.	75,238	3,413	87,896	3,955	66,790	2,981
Other glasses & manufactures	—	2,981	—	6,296	—	4,368
Total	—	25,627	—	33,572	—	25,886

IMPORTS OF GLASS

(Value in ¥1,000)

Kinds	1936		1937		1938	
	Quantity	Value	Quantity	Value	Quantity	Value
Uncoloured plate glass under 2.2 mm. in 1,000 sq. m.	1,120	694	590	584	54.8	71
Uncoloured plate glass under 4 mm. in 1,000 sq. m.	23	147	18	107	7.7	52
Other uncoloured plate glass in 1,000 sq. m.	79	953	46	609	14.6	566
Other plate glass in 1,000 sq. m.	56	226	72	292	16.4	71
Plate glass having inlaid metal wire or net in 1,000 sq. m.	6	86	19	133	2.1	18
Dry plates for photography in 100 kin	6	710	4	491	2	—
Others	—	1,025	—	1,770	—	1,723
Total	—	3,845	—	3,989	—	2,501

Matches

The Industry in the Past

A factory for making matches was first established in Japan, in Tokyo, in April, 1875, by a certain Mr. Makoto Shimizu, who had just returned from studying the subject in a French technical school and a match factory managed by the French Government. In the same year a factory was established in Osaka, and in 1877 another was established in Kobé. In 1878, three years after the first factory was established, matches to the value of ¥24,000 were exported, and in succession factories were established in Shizuoka, Aichi, Osaka and Hyogo prefectures. By 1889, not only had the importation of matches ceased, but large quantities, in face of strong foreign competition, were being exported to China. In 1887, Hyōgo-ken Match Seizogyo Kumiai (Association of Manufacturers of Matches in Hyogo prefecture) was formed and in 1900 the Dogyo Kumiai (Association of Traders in Matches) was organized. The industry experienced great prosperity during the Russo-Japanese War, exports were made not only to China but also to the South Sea Islands, Straits Settlements and India. But from about that time the match industry began to develop in China and by 1908 it had developed to the extent that the market in China was considerably curtailed for the Japanese product, then when India raised her tariff on matches, and the Dutch East Indies imposed a consumption tax on them, exports of matches to countries in the Orient were considerably reduced. Exports for some time became almost negligibly small but in 1933, they suddenly increased to ¥3,248,000 from about ¥938,000 in 1932.

The development of the match industry during the World War was such as to make the industry a menace to the International Match Company. This company, therefore, commenced nagotiations with and was successful in amal-

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gamating the Nippon Match Manufacturing Co., Ltd., which was one of the Mitsui interests, and the Nippon Match Co. came under foreign management for three years, that is, until 1927, when the largest match manufacturer in Japan, the Toyo Match Co., Ltd., seeing the advantages which would accrue from co-operation with the International Match Company agreed to amalgamation. The Daido Match Co., Ltd. (The Great Consolidated Match Co., Ltd.) was organized with capital equally subscribed by Japan and Sweden, and the management was placed in Japanese hands, avoiding in this way competition in foreign markets.

Exports increased along with the development of the industry and as far back as 1913 Japan's match exports totalled some ¥12,000,000 after meeting the domestic demand. During the World War annual exports were between ¥30,000,000 and ¥40,000,000, forming one of the big ten export items of Japan.

Due to the rising importance of Soviet matches in international trade, Japan's shipments to the United States have fallen almost to the vanishing point. At one time Japanese matches were most active in this trade, outstripping Soviet and Swedish matches in American sales. In the spring of 1935, however, a match sales agreement was concluded in New York, covering the American market. Each group agreed to take an annual quota of 33,000 tons.

In spite of the agreement, the situation has developed adversely for the Japanese and the trade is facing ruin. In anticipation of the conclusion of the agreement, the Soviet Union shipped vast quantities of its matches to America and since then has been underselling all competitors.

Japanese efforts to combat this tendency have been fruitless. The Goto Match Importing Company which the Japanese exporters established in New York to handle that end of the business has not been able to check the Soviet advance, for it has been trying to get large profits on each unit, rather than meeting the Soviet price. Shipments have fallen away to nothing and the exporters here are likely to repudiate the agreement and ship directly in the future unless something is done.

When the Japanese match industry was influenced by Swedish interests the export field was limited to China and part of the South Seas. America, Australia, the Near East, Africa and Europe was monopolized by Swedish interests. After Kreuger's downfall Japanese match exporters took back their old markets. With the replacement of the gold embargo Japanese products have found their way in heavy volume to their old markets. The low exchange rate and cheap labour in Japan have stimulated exports.

Exports in 1937 and 1938 follow:

EXPORTS OF MATCHES

(Value in yen)

Destinations	1937	1938
China	9,000	2,053,000
Philippines	86,000	141,000
Kwantung L. T.	423,000	638,000
Total including others	2,103,000	3,304,000

Number of Factories The number of match factories in Japan was 158 with 8,520 operatives at the end of 1937.

Production of matches and allied articles in recent years has been as follows:

PRODUCTION OF MATCHES, ETC.

Year	Quantity Produced Gross	Value (In yen)	Match-boxes (Value in yen)	Matchwood (Value in yen)
1929	21,607,683	9,825,495	1,358,616	1,220,148
1930	16,722,653	7,464,081	645,765	600,047
1931	13,535,353	6,686,245	457,067	701,334
1932	18,234,683	7,306,721	764,905	613,939
1933	20,711,239	9,202,221	1,169,029	710,525
1934	20,597,615	10,033,567	550,947	616,915
1935	27,369,618	12,659,929	607,979	742,767
1936	21,874,973	11,824,397	831,624	1,572,439
1937	23,969,588	12,544,564	807,520	1,576,001

Lacquer-ware

Historical and General Industry Inherent The Japanese are a people skilled in handiwork. Prior to the introduction of modern productive industries from the West in the early

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years of Meiji, the Japanese were separated from Occidental civilization and culture and the various handicraft industries that had come down from ancient times were in a flourishing condition and in a state of development peculiar to the country. The industries especially referred to are the silk, porcelain, earthen-ware, lacquer-ware, cloisonné-ware, gold lacquer-ware and the metal engraving.

The lacquer-ware industry existed in ancient times. As was the case with the ceramic industry, it progressed with the introduction of Buddhism and of advanced methods from China, but did not make so notable a development as in the case of the textile, ceramic or other industries. With the rise to favour of the tea ceremony in the Ashikaga Age, Kyoto monopolized the production of lacquer-ware, although wares of nearly the same kind, such as "Wajimanuri" and "Shunkeinuri" were produced in fairly large quantities in different places and were largely used for table-ware. After the Restoration of Meiji there was a considerable decline in the demand for such wares as "Noshironuri," "Wakanuri" and "Tsugarunuri" which had been popular in the Tokugawa Period, while the output of "Wajimanuri," "Kurodenuri," and "Imazumuri" which had principally been used as table-ware greatly increased as they were being exported in increasingly large quantities.

Urushi Obtainable Only in the Orient Japan is the only country in the world enjoying world-wide renown in the technical art of lacquer-ware manufacture. The various industrial arts of Japan such as the porcelanic and weaving owe their origin to China or Western countries, but as regards lacquer, Japan acknowledges no teacher; from remote antiquity, especially in the technique of relief lacquer the art has developed without aid from any foreign methods of manufacture or materials. For more than two thousand years the craftsmen of Japan, having striven to improve, finally attained a degree of wonderful skill. The production of lacquer-ware is confined to Oriental countries where only lacquer juice, known as urushi, is obtainable—Japan, China, Korea and India,—although there is an evident tendency in Western countries in recent years to manufacture lacquer-ware of industrial art value. The application of mother of pearl, known as nacre work, became common during the Nara Age. A large number of ancient examples of lacquer-ware that have served as models for succeeding generations are still kept in the Shosoin, the Imperial Treasure House in Nara. These represent products of the Tempyo period, when even large wooden buildings were lacquered. Among such buildings left standing are the Chuson Temple in Iwaté prefecture and the Byodoin Temple in Kyoto prefecture. Embossed lacqerware was invented during the Kamakura Age, when tasteful designs of chrysanthemums and other flowers were in vogue.

From Toyotomi Downward A golden mother of pearl inkstone case in embossed lacquer with a chrysanthemum design is now treasured in the Hachiman Shrine at Kamakura. The pomp and glory of the third Ashikaga Shogun stimulated the art and resulted in the perfecting of embossed lacquer work and the extension of its application to articles of daily necessity. Hideyoshi Toyotomi accomplished his gigantic task of pacifying the country. Grandeur was a unique feature of his administrative policy and social and other life in those days. The grand Momoyama style, named after his palace, was reflected on the industrial arts. Koetsu relief lacquer was supreme and Kodaiji relief lacquer was also produced, representative lacquer products of those days. When the third Tokugawa Shogun, Iyémitsu, came into power, he erected the great Nikko mausoleum and Zojoji Temple at Shiba, Tokyo for his grandfather and father respectively, and lacquer was amply applied to these buildings. During the reign of the fifth Shogun, Tsunayoshi, an exquisite technique attained its zenith, defying all the imitative powers of succeeding generations. It was applied to scabbards of swords, miniature medicine-cases (known as inro) and various articles used by the Daimyo. Notable lacquerers such as Koami Choju, Koma Ikyu, Ogata Korin and others flourihed during this period. Since that time the production of lacquer has spread to various localities throughout the country, and unique local colour has been freely introduced into the design. Competition ensued as in all industrial articles, and some of the products of those days were exported abroad. Japanese industrial arts were almost wholly neglected during several years following the Meiji Restoration. Lacquered articles of artistic value were sold at ridiculously low prices and these were purchased by foreigners who had eyes for their value and who took them to their own countries. This provided an opportunity to introduce the Japanese lacquer art to

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foreign countries, but at the same time Japan lost many articles of both æthetic and monetary value.

Its Fine Quality A French steamer was wrecked off Izu while outward bound from Japan laden with Japanese lacquer-ware that was to be exhibited at the Vienna International Exposition in 1873. The cargo was salvaged 18 months after the accident and the lacquer goods were found to be undamaged. On slight polishing they regained their former lustre and thus displayed the intrinsic value of this national art product. When the news of this salvaging and condition of the goods became known abroad the export trade took a sudden spurt forward, but there were traders who exported goods of poor quality, and did great damage to the credit and value of Japanese products in the eyes of foreign customers. Apart from defects in manufacture, some of the bad reputation which exported Japanese lacquer-ware has gained, is ascribed to the fact that some manufacturers are producing inferior articles on account of having been forced by exporters to lower prices, but of late years efforts have been made by the authorities concerned to remedy these evils.

How the Ware is Made

Lacquer Juice Lacquer juice forms the main material of the craftsmen. It is obtained from the lacquer (urushi) tree grown in Oriental countries and is a milky juice with a greyish-white colour. In air it undergoes an oxidizing process, becomes brown and finally solidifies. When solidified, it is not soluble in ordinary solvents and has an unusual resistance to acids. Its beautiful appearance and smooth feel defy paint and varnish. Lacquer juice is regarded as a botanical excretion and in normal conditions is stored in a fixed position in the tree. The tree is tapped by making a horizontal, slanting or V-shaped incision of 10 centimetres right to the sap, and from this the greyish-white juice oozes. Attempts have been made to obtain the juice by means of pressing the bark and leaves of the tree, or by using alcohol, but without success. The greyish-white product is called raw lacquer and is used for the initial application to the goods to be lacquered. As material for the finishing applications and colour lacquering the water is extracted from the juice, and various refining processes follow according to the result required. The chief ingredients of raw lacquer are Urshiol, 77.63%, gummy substance, 2.62%, carbonic substance 1.94% and water 17.81%.

Manufacturing Process Lacquer-ware manufacturing is divided into three stages, namely, the initial application, lacquering and relief lacquering. The process is further divided into different categories according to technical experience and skill. Wood, bamboo, paper, metal and porcelain are used as basic materials for initial lacquer applications. Wood is mostly used throughout the country, but wood has the drawback of swelling and contracting according to weather condition. Bamboo and paper are used for particular lacquer-ware making, while metal and porcelain are less commonly used. The initial application is made on the surface of the ware by means of a spatula or brush, the article is thus made water-proof and the absorption of lacquer applied to finish or fill in tiny holes or other defects is prevented. The fininshing process is of course for the purpose of making the ware solid and smooth.

Lacquer is the best material for the initial application, though shibu-varnishing or glue-varnishing is also practised, especially for low grade wares. The juice of the astringent persimmon is the chief substance of shibu, and with this is mixed powdered charcoal or other materials. Glue is also used as a raw material, but it is not much good for solidity. Glue-varnished wares are made mostly for export, and the bad reputation that modern Japanese lacquer-ware has in foreign markets is chiefly ascribed to these glue-varnished articles. Formalin is used to solidify these wares. As regards the finishing application, a proper amount of pigment is added to refined lacquer to make it coloured or transparent, and this is finely applied to wares that have been through the initial application. These are then kept in a wooden closet to avoid dust and allowed to dry. This is called fresh lacquering. When wares are dry, they are polished by charcoal.

Relief lacquering was evolved to give beautiful designs to wares after the finishing application had been gone through. Pictures or designs are painted on the articles by lacquer and before the lacquer is dry, gold, silver and other metallic dust or pigment is applied. Then polishing for the finishing touches takes place. This is called ordinary relief lacquering, but there are other methods of production and prices differ according to the extent of finish. Of the two principal methods of manufacturing high-class goods, polished re-

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lief lacquering is one. When the ordinary relief lacquering process is completed, lacquer is once more applied to all the surface and the whole is then polished by charcoal, and the design is presented on the surface. The other is embossed relief lacquering, and this requires much time and skill. Designs are made in high relief and the ordinary relief lacquer is applied. Shells, corals, jewels and stones are often inlaid in lacquer-ware and to these are applied transparent or block lacquer, the product being known as aventurine-ground lacquer-ware. Gold dust is also applied in relief and this is known as flush painting. Another unique lacquering is the application of coloured lacquer coatings for as many as a hundred times, and when dry an exquisite design is carved on the ware. This process somewhat differs from relief lacquering but it forms one of those elaborate methods in the manufacture of the lacquer-ware which remains one of the outstanding products of the Japanese craftsman.

Production

Production of lacquer-ware in recent years was as follows. The main cause of the decrease in exports in 1938 was the State control of trade.

FACTORIES AND PRODUCTION OF LACQUER-WARE

	Factories	Operatives	Tableware	Furnitures	Others	Total
			(In yen)			
1929	10,350	30,078	26,004,026	8,249,723	9,613,183	33,866,882
1930	10,081	28,622	12,119,306	7,374,419	8,750,370	28,244,095
1931	10,056	27,975	10,717,856	6,899,725	8,041,112	25,658,693
1932	10,267	28,794	10,851,938	6,918,301	8,862,670	26,632,909
1933	10,784	30,431	12,139,600	8,012,675	9,419,390	29,571,665
1934	12,223	37,641	13,366,815	9,437,231	13,507,713	36,311,759
1935	11,170	36,217	14,189,283	9,983,004	14,227,619	38,399,906
1936	12,727	39,599	16,869,770	10,659,162	15,031,075	42,560,007
1937	11,874	35,093	18,106,008	12,106,268	13,801,216	44,013,492

VALUE OF EXPORTS OF LACQUER-WARE

(In ¥1,000)

Year	Value	Year	Value
1929	1,818	1934	2,570
1930	1,428	1935	2,513
1931	1,061	1936	2,098
1932	1,196	1937	2,395
1933	2,371	1938	1,444

Production of Miscellaneous Industries There are innumerable industries unable to give mention of each of which in the limited pages of the volume, and the totals of production of important ones are given in the following tables. Sources used are the "Factory Statistics" published by the Statistics Section, the Secretariate for the Minister of Commerce and Industry, and the "Statistics for Commerce and Industry" published by the same office.

PRODUCTION OF TOBACCO

(Monopoly Bureau, Finance Ministry)

(Unit: 1,000 pieces)

	1935	1936	1937
Cigarettes, mouthed	11,970,555	10,987,371	10,473,230
Cigarettes, without mouthpiece	27,067,329	28,806,713	30,107,355
Cigars	2,731	1,627	1,223
Cut tobacco kilogramme	20,418,971	21,198,772	21,601,591
Pipe tobacco kilogramme	16,260	9,485	6,565

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PRODUCTION OF METALIC INDUSTRY

Value in ¥1,000

	1935	1936	1937
Metal refining and material	1,298,024	1,488,916	2,416,700
Casting:			
Pigiron	85,556	112,855	205,962
Cast steel	25,741	23,650	50,194
Other cast metals	15,975	20,614	36,471
Total	139,467	167,538	306,565
Bolt, Nut, Washer	15,856	21,095	39,123
Rivet	4,375	5,964	11,186
Nail	19,256	21,368	33,325
(Iron nail)	(14,960	15,522	25,977)
Needle	2,851	3,491	3,965
Chain	4,303	4,850	6,272
Rope	13,448	16,367	23,321
Wire	6,592	7,190	11,503
Wire-netting	5,012	5,771	7,938
Tin-plate manufactures	75,652	90,667	134,313
(can)	(40,491	53,739	69,699)
Iron furnitures	16,120	23,424	28,885
Building materials	47,633	63,725	82,541
Copper and bronze wares	573	710	1,103
Aluminium wares	12,087	15,030	15,625
Button	1,725	2,060	2,806
Pen	2,924	3,482	4,102
(For fountain-pen)	(2,371	2,641	2,929)
Razor	643	857	974
Table knife, fork, spoon	1,737	2,011	2,428
Toy	2,988	3,710	6,188
Total including others	279,294	353,079	491,794
Plated articles	100,310	121,187	163,546
Grand Total	1,817,097	2,130,719	3,378,606

PRODUCTION OF BRICKS AND OTHER FIRE-PROOF ARTICLES

Value in ¥1,000

	1935	1936	1937
Bricks	3,203	3,329	3,916
Bricks, fire-proof	18,211	19,327	26,278
Other fire-proof articles	5,223	4,889	6,989
Total	26,637	27,545	37,183

PRODUCTION OF THE KILN INDUSTRY

(Not mentioned elsewhere)

Value in ¥1,000

	1935	1936	1937
Cement manufactures			
Tiles	626	811	778
Pipes	3,718	4,000	5,617
Slates	3,056	6,671	12,067
Others	2,106	2,378	3,628
Total	9,507	13,861	22,091
Lime	5,895	8,498	13,672
Enamelled ironwares	15,944	17,970	21,841

PRODUCTION OF WOOD-WORKS

Value in ¥1,000

	1935	1936	1937
Clogs, etc.	19,610	21,158	23,974
Turnery	10,955	12,907	14,867
Chip-work	5,712	4,515	6,525
Joinery	91,176	96,821	102,975
Boxes	44,072	49,803	60,930
Barrels and pails	20,741	21,869	23,487
Chopsticks	2,285	2,414	2,868
Total	194,555	209,484	235,628
Number of houses	108,838	109,471	105,968
Number of operatives	227,323	229,625	227,840

EARNINGS OF PRINTING HOUSES

Amount in ¥1,000

Year	Amount
1935	210,663
1936	225,705
1937	258,519

PRODUCTION OF MISCELLANEOUS INDUSTRIES

(Not mentioned elsewhere)

Value in ¥1,000

	1935	1936	1937
Paper goods:			
Boxes	10,017	14,005	15,608
Tags	1,011	912	940
Toys	350	492	925
Fans (Sensu)	62	96	193
Fans (Uchiwa)	531	541	649
Lanterns	584	552	619
Note-books	4,019	5,415	4,492
Total including others	51,746	58,092	75,456
Bamboo goods:			
Baskets	9,212	9,574	9,935
Blinds (Sudaré)	1,185	1,327	1,247
Total including others	10,703	11,297	11,628
Wicker goods	2,964	3,657	3,469
(Yanagi-gōri)	(2,468	2,680	2,574)
Cane-work	2,302	2,439	2,427
(Cane table and chair)	(1,133	1,345	1,358)
Mat (Tatami omoté)	12,620	14,705	17,176
Mat (Goza and Hanamushiro)	7,058	9,223	11,524
Straw, chip and other braids	3,968	5,101	7,936
Leather	33,568	45,945	68,883
Leather goods			
Shoes	24,328	27,474	29,742

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	1935	1936	1937
Bags	4,073	4,682	4,820
Saddlery	1,530	1,863	2,935
Belt	4,759	5,233	5,097
Small bags	1,983	2,530	2,504
Total	36,675	41,784	45,101
Button (shell, ivory, bone)	3,923	5,257	7,449
Imitation pearl	1,596	1,343	807
Brushes	5,662	6,511	7,500
(Tooth brush)	(1,454	4,256	3,841)
Rope (fibrous)	31,120	35,122	48,514
Foreign style clothes	24,587	29,501	33,994
Underwears	10,582	11,552	19,596
Japanese socks	38,329	42,698	54,675
Handkerchief	871	508	1,247
Hat:			
Felt	13,239	16,853	19,862
Straw	2,559	2,447	2,059
Imitation panama	2,512	1,856	2,065
Total including others	18,526	22,469	27,148
Waterproof cloth	2,485	3,622	11,229
Rubber cloth	3,058	4,030	3,703
Imitation leather cloth	4,792	6,526	7,678
Fabric materials for medical treatment	6,850	8,908	13,654
Asbestine articles	13,256	9,587	12,080
Metalic foil	8,038	9,159	9,213
(Gold-foil)	(1,126	1,457	566)
Writing brush (Fudé)	13	164	237
Fountainpen	2,137	3,081	2,926
Pencil	4,866	4,631	5,430
Crayon	954	1,318	1,324
Paper umbrella	906	240	1,504
Umbrella	320	288	652
Imitation flower	90	120	200
Stone goods	4,903	5,214	5,819

EARNINGS BY WORKERS IN FINISHING, MENDING, ETC.

(Unit: ¥1,000)

For	1935	1936	1937
Spinning and weaving industry	267,927	279,789	321,399
Metalic industry	18,989	21,560	34,216
Machinery industry	71,178	95,245	123,257
Kiln industry	5,829	4,412	8,760
Chemical industry	5,058	5,651	9,218
Wood work	11,408	11,992	11,463
Printing and binding	8,255	6,236	7,341
Foodstuff industry	2,026	2,449	3,747
Miscellaneous industry	19,832	21,790	28,848
Total	410,507	449,128	548,254

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CHAPTER XXIV

COMMUNICATIONS

General

The communications of the country are supervised by the Minister of Communications and a special account is established for the management of this business, beginning with the fiscal year 1934-1935. General condition of the business in Japan proper in 1937-38 may be obtained from the following :

Post, telegraph and telephone officials and operatives (Sept. 30. 1938)	21,577
Post, telegraph and telephone offices (Sept. 30, 1938)	14,830
Ordinary mail routes (March. 31, 1938) in km.	156,616
Ordinary mails accepted (1937-38)	5,032,459,307
Ordinary mails delivered (1937-38)	4,763,778,174
Parcel post routes (March 31, 1935) in km.	85,385
Parcel accepted (1937-38)	72,614,786
Parcels delivered (1937-38)	80,529,155
Telegraph routes (March 31, 1938) in km.	49,710
Telegraph lines (March 31, 1938) in km.	376,045
Telegraphs despatched (1937-38)	74,064,285
Telegraphs received (1937-38)	78,991,640
Telephone subscribers (Sept. 30, 1938)	981,920
Telephone routes (March 31, 1938) in km.	83,139
Telephone lines (March 31, 1938) in km.	7,620,374
Telephones (March 31, 1935)	935,139
Telephone messages (1937-38)	4,976,322,000
Income from postage and fees (1937-38)	¥374,731,955,738
Business expenditure (1937-38)	¥322,951,846,983

The Postal Service

Historical Survey

The present state postal service system was established in 1871, between Tokyo and Osaka. In August of that year, post offices were opened in Niigata, Hakodaté, Kobé, Nagasaki, and Yokohama. In December a new postal route was established between Tokyo and Nagasaki, connecting the two cities in 7 days and 17 hours. In May, 1872, the postal service between Yokohama and Tokyo was greatly improved by the establishment of five deliveries a day, and by July the service was extended to all the cities and towns of importance throughout the country, except a part of Hokkaido.

Foreign Mail Opens In March, 1872, a foreign mail service was opened at the same time as the establishment of official postal regulations. In those days, foreign mail matter in Japan was handled with the aid of the British, American, and French post offices in Yokohama, Kobé and Nagasaki. Soon after the conclusion of the America-Japan Mail Service Treaty in 1873, the American post offices were withdrawn from this country, and Japan was thus placed on an equal footing with the U.S.A. as regards the mail service between the two countries. In 1877, an arrangement was made with twenty-five countries participating in the International Mail Service Treaty. Thereupon, the British and the French post offices were also withdrawn from this country.

The post offices were at first classified into five grades, and in March 1886, they were classified into three as at present. In view of the development of telephone and telegraph business, the authorities introduced a revision in the system of the Communications Department in 1903, and divided post offices into post, telegraph, and telephone offices each of them being classified into 1st, 2nd and 3rd, or 1st and 2nd in the case of telephone offices. With the rapid increase in the amount of mail matter and telephone and telegraphic messages, the regulations of the Communications Department as to the number and kind of offices, were extended from time to time, and at present there are offices in warships, steamers, trains, etc., in addition to the network throughout the country.

The air mail service was commenced

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in 1929 with the establishment of the Japan Air Transport Company in April of the same year.

The Growth The rapid growth of the postal service in the early years is illustrated by the following statistics:

Year	No. of P. O.
1871	180
1872	1,160
1873	1,501
1874	3,245
1882	5,527

Following the introduction of a revision in the postal service regulations in 1883, some of the offices were eliminated, the number being reduced to 4,088 by the end of 1889. But the steady development of postal business necessitated an increasing number of offices as the following figures for Japan proper show:

On March 31 of	No. of P. O.
1930	9,690
1931	9,954
1932	10,208
1933	10,322
1934	10,611
1935	10,891
1936	11,253
1937	11,669
1938	12,138
1939 (30, Sep.)	12,484

Post offices are classified into three grades, namely 1st, 2nd and 3rd, the 1st being, side by side with 2nd and 3rd offices, in such important places as Tokyo, Osaka, and other leading cities. The 2nd and 3rd are in smaller cities, towns and villages throughout the country. Those of the 1st and 2nd grade are government offices, under direct government management. In post offices of the 3rd class, business is conducted on the contract system.

Its Business

In addition to ordinary matters relating to post and telegrams, the post offices in Japan receive taxes on behalf of the various tax authorities and pay pensions, annuities, etc. on behalf of the Treasury. Since 1906, New Year's greeting cards have been handled separately from ordinary mail matter with a view to relieving congestion. Such mail matter is accepted by all post offices from December 15 to 29 for delivery on New Year's day.

Ordinary mail matter is delivered 5 or 6 times daily in Tokyo, Osaka, and Kyoto, and 4 or 5 times in other large cities, where there are 1st class offices. In smaller cities, the 2nd class offices deliver 3 or 4 times a day. In towns and villages where they have 3rd class offices, mail matter is delivered twice a day only. The number of collections is the same as that of delivery in most cases.

The parcel post service was started in 1892, the first arrangement as regards foreign connections being made with Hongkong in 1879. The scope of international service was gradually extended, and covers almost all treaty countries at present.

Statistical Tables The following tables indicate the volume of business, handled by the post offices, and the increase in the amount of their work:

NUMBER OF POST OFFICES (September 30, 1938)

	Japan Proper	Taiwan	Karafuto	Chosen	Kwantung Leased Territory	South Sea Islands
1st Clas	107	12	—	—	—	—
2nd Class	274	11	4	110	59	9
3rd Class	11,271	171	83	—	—	—
Minor offices	832	—	—	32	82	—
Total	12,484	194	87	142	104	9

VOLUME OF MAIL MATTER HANDLED IN JAPAN PROPER

		Ordinary Mail	Parcel Post	Total	Percentage of Increase
1912-1913	Despatched	1,630,394,998	24,276,991	1,654,671,989	5.28
	Received	1,594,850,576	23,008,666	1,617,859,242	6.03
1921-1922	Despatched	3,992,769,865	48,758,863	4,041,528,718	2.03
	Received	3,989,309,281	45,890,304	4.035,199,585	1.87

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		Ordinary Mail	Parcel Post	Total	Percentage of Increase
1926-1927	Despatched	3,974,192,623	58,258,644	4,032,451,267	2.49
	Received	3,906,474,525	55,852,079	3,962,326,604	2.66
1929-1930	Despatched	5,096,611,368	63,650,583	5,160,261,951	9.55
	Received	5,046,099,425	60,654,644	5,106,754,069	(−)9.70
1930-1931	Despatched	4,409,551,651	60,067,753	4,469,619,404	(−)0.02
	Received	4,437,939,812	57,724,887	4,495,664,693	0.18
1931-1932	Despatched	4,409,202,875	58,201,931	4,584,404,806	1.08
	Received	4,532,477,443	55,654,599	4,588,132,042	(−)1.35
1932-1933	Despatched	4,253,259,031	58,472,313	4,312,231,344	(−)0.36
	Received	4,294,100,596	54,849,774	4,348,950,370	0.34
1933-1934	Despatched	4,357,325,600	61,240,342	4,418,565,942	0.25
	Received	4,402,200,835	57,762,972	4,459,963,807	0.26
1934-1935	Despatched	4,674,986,977	65,073,439	4,740,060,406	0.73
	Received	4,772,868,449	61,847,673	4,834,716,122	0.84
1935-1936	Despatched	4,735,348,007	68,291,938	4,803,639,947	0.13
	Received	4,901,685,581	64,854,932	4,966,540,513	0.27
1936-1937	Despatched	4,842,938,022	72,593,332	4,915,531,354	2.32
	Received	4,934,414,563	68,185,892	5,002,600,455	0.72
1937-1938	Despatched	4,763,778,174	80,529,155	4,844,307,329	(−)1.44
	Received	5,032,459,307	72,614,786	5,105,274,093	2.05

VOLUME OF MAIL MATTER HANDLED DURING 1937-38 IN THE EMPIRE

	Japan Proper	Taiwan	Karafuto	Chosen	Kwantung Leased Territory	South Sea Mandated Islands
Ordinary mail						
Domestic mail						
Despatched	4,711,585,234	81,401,412	33,751,285	340,835,857	145,606,715	2,196,103
Collection post	6,541,372	—	9,552	492,562	9,864	—
Received	4,980,515,653	99,327,932	32,551,116	358,213,524	152,476,606	3,656,666
Collection post	—	—	61,662	745,813	85,446	—
Foreign mail			(Foreign mail			
Despatched	52,192,940	869,981	included)	234,002	2,246,500	11,237
Collection post	—	—		—	—	—
Received	51,943,654	342,211		759,768	2,281,428	14,177
Parcel post						
Domestic						
Despatched	79,331,501	773,124	288,487	2,869,740	648,042	23,858
Received	72,298,845	1,305,688	655,188	4,292,426	1,402,297	81,169
Foreign			(Foreign mail			
Despatched	1,197,654	9,925	included)	9,231	20,429	19
Received	315,941	3,440		5,758	18,639	119
Total						
Despatched	4,844,307,329	83,054,442	24,032,772	343,948,830	148,521,686	2,231,217
Collection post	6,541,372	295,026	9,552	492,562	9,864	2
Received	5,105,074,093	100,979,271	33,206,304	363,271,476	156,128,970	3,752,131
Collection post	—	429,293	61,662	745,813	85,446	1,263

Postal Money Order can hardly be included into the business of communications. It is, however, one of the important lines of business handled by the post office for the convenience of the large mass of people. The number and amount of postal money orders handled during 1937-38 are given below:

POSTAL MONEY ORDERS IN 1937-38
DOMESTIC

Territory	Issued		Paid	
	No.	Amount (In yen)	No.	Amount (In yen)
Japan Proper	40,496,288	863,746,668	42,718,148	926,219,020
Taiwan	1,255,050	37,204,409	738,540	22,974,289
Karafuto	567,664	17,972,630	282,662	10,735,825
Chosen	4,641,998	153,714,946	3,978,092	135,135,160

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Territory	Issued No.	Issued Amount (In yen)	Paid No.	Paid Amount (In yen)
Kwantung Leased Territory	1,234,564	34,212,980	459,122	15,214,027
South Sea Mandated Islands	121,061	12,429,812	22,999	7,140,620
FOREIGN				
Japan Proper	161,910	7,122,511	1,117,957	35,091,071
Taiwan	13,260	437,837	4,668	162,693
Karafuto	1,063	73,733	4,178	241,041
Chosen	75,590	3,802,108	232,585	8,019,030
Kwantung Leased Territory	55,404	2,245,735	188,867	5,754,238
South Sea Mandated Islands	95	12,099	112	4,019

The number of postal money orders issued in Japan proper has been on the constant increase since 1875 when the business was first opened while the amount reached its highest mark in 1926 and continued decrease for five years until it began to regain the upward tendency in 1933.

POSTAL MONEY ORDERS IN JAPAN PROPER

Fiscal Year		Number	Increase (In percentage)	Amount (In yen)	Increase (In percentage)
1915-16	Issued	20,014,404	2.04	279,364,560	2.88
	Paid	21,538,637	2.02	306,299,553	2.76
1920-21	Issued	27,298,164	3.64	696,274,035	14.92
	Paid	28,892,790	3.41	754,893,817	14.65
1925-26	Issued	30,400,558	1.14	749,757,291	0.77
	Paid	31,888,323	1.04	797,891,087	0.57
1929-30	Issued	31,233,521	0.27	673,278,926	-1.02
	Paid	32,820,607	0.29	715,000,527	-1.40
1931-32	Issued	31,877,079	0.21	654,639,462	-0.28
	Paid	33,674,636	0.26	700,624,150	-0.20
1932-33	Issued	33,360,209	0.47	683,634,657	0.44
	Paid	35,345,114	0.50	735,961,393	0.50
1934-35	Issued	35,371,607	0.60	723,592,083	0.58
	Paid	37,539,575	0.62	784,338,121	0.66
1935-36	Issued	36,926,278	0.44	751,734,983	0.39
	Paid	39,348,351	0.48	817,399,466	0.42
1936-37	Issued	38,146,546	0.33	786,476,088	0.46
	Paid	40,591,334	0.29	850,615,079	0.53
1937-38	Issued	40,496,288	0.61	863,746,668	0.98
	Paid	42,718,148	0.52	926,219,020	0.88

Telegraph Service

Telegraph service in Japan was started in August, 1869, but this was for Governmental messages exclusively. Public telegraph service was started in September of the same year between Tokyo and Yokohama. Telegrams in European languages were despatched for the first time in April, 1870. In August of the same year Osaka and Kobé began to exchange telegraph messages. In June, 1871 the laying of the submarine cable between Nagasaki and Shanghai was completed. In February, 1873, aerial lines connected Tokyo and Nagasaki and telegraph service for districts along the lines was opened. In January, 1879, Japan entered the international telegraph association. With revisions of rules and laws in subsequent years the business was started on a fair and steady road of progress. Wireless telegraph service was installed in 1908, and telegraphic picture transmission was undertaken from August, 1930.

Statistics on the telegraph services follow :

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TELEGRAPH STATIONS IN JAPAN PROPER

Year	Number	Increase in the Year	Year	Number	Increase in the Year
1930-1931	7,631	620	1934-1935	8,215	273
1931-1932	7,709	78	1935-1936	8,951	756
1932-1933	7,813	104	1936-1937	9,678	727
1933-1934	7,942	129	1937-1938	11,469	1,791

NUMBER OF TELEGRAPH OFFICES, SEPTEMBER 30, 1938

		Japan Proper	Taiwan	Karafuto	Chosen	China	Kwantung Leased Territory	South Sea Islands
1st class		5	—	—	—	3	22	—
Wireless		—	4	—	—	—	—	—
2nd class		48	—	2	10	—	—	—
Wireless	Land	17	3	2	—	—	—	—
	S. S.	21	—	—	—	—	—	—
Post and telegraph offices		9,868	185	103	821	—	23	9
Minor offices		1,863	36	11	147	—	79	—
Wireless	Land	16	3	—	22	—	55	1
	S. S.	925	6	—	—	—	—	—
	Air	2	—	—	—	—	—	—
Total		11,784	225	116	978	3	124	10

TELEGRAMS HANDLED IN 1937-1938

		Domestic Messages	Foreign Messages
Japan Proper (Japan—Manchuria included)	Despatched	72,629,960	1,434,325
	Delivered	77,583,878	1,407,762
Taiwan	Despatched	2,046,331	20,952
	Delivered	2,088,632	27,131
Karafuto	Despatched	1,080,819	417
	Delivered	1,054,506	1,102
Chosen	Despatched	10,271,769	13,906
	Delivered	10,268,635	15,843
P. O. in China	Despatched	34,291	156,817
	Delivered	26,299	168,484
Kwantung Leased Territory	Despatched	3,583,751	229,022
	Delivered	3,477,284	233,383
South Sea Islands	Despatched	362,442	2,993
	Delivered	299,674	2,045

NUMBER OF TELEGRAMS HANDLED BY INLAND POST AND TELEGRAPH OFFICES

(1931-1937)

		Domestic	Foreign	Total	Increase or Decrease in %
1931-32	Despatch	55,507,280	1,193,654	56,700,934	de 0.32
	Arrival	57,784,498	1,224,442	59,008,940	de 0.35
1932-33	Despatch	54,065,046	1,254,430	55,319,476	de 0.24
	Arrival	56,281,163	1,243,925	57,525,088	de 0.25
1933-34	Despatch	56,529,921	1,237,193	57,767,114	in 0.44
	Arrival	58,843,016	1,242,847	60,085,863	in 0.45
1934-35	Despatch	59,173,906	1,262,539	60,436,445	in 0.46
	Arrival	61,591,759	1,272,011	62,863,770	in 0.46
1935-36	Despatch	62,433,347	1,321,910	63,755,257	in 0.55
	Arrival	65,544,777	1,329,789	66,874,566	in 0.64
1936-37	Despatch	64,842,865	1,475,353	66,318,218	in 0.40
	Arrival	68,521,989	1,448,560	69,970,549	in 0.46
1937-38	Despatch	72,629,960	1,434,325	74,064,285	in 1.18
	Arrival	77,583,878	1,407,762	78,991,640	in 1.28

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LENGTH OF INLAND TELEGRAPH LINES

March 31, 1938

Land lines	Km.	As compared with the previous year
Aerial lines, routes	33,359	- 663
„ lines	228,062	+3,071
Overhead cables,		
Routes	124	- 8
Cores	28,717	+1,964
Underground lines		
Routes	791	+ 20
Cores	99,395	+ 407
Submarine cables		
Lines	15,435	+ 57
Cores	19,869	+ 162

PNEUMATIC TUBES

March 31, 1936

	Metre	As compared with the previous year
Length of routes	69,191	+ 13
Length of tubes	140,392	+ 10

FREQUENCIES AND HOURS OF FAULTS OF INLAND TELEGRAPH

1935-1936

Land and underground lines		
Contacts	Frequency	4,902
	Hour	25,005
Earth	Frequency	4,636
	Hour	31,238
Disconnection	Frequency	2,564
	Hour	9,773
Leakage	Frequency	349
	Hour	4,496
Others	Frequency	867
	Hour	1,737
Total	Frequency	13,358
	Hour	72,249
As compared with the previous year	Frequency	+ 1,042
	Hour	- 11,089
Submarine cables	Frequency	103
	Hour	143,361
As compared with the previous year	Frequency	+ 1
	Hour	- 640

TELEGRAPHIC APPARATUSES AND BATTERIES

March 31, 1936

Apparatuses	
Telephones for telegraph service	4,716
Ink writers	2
Sounders	5,916
Automatic telegraphs, duplex	172
Undulator and siphon recorders	16
Printing duplex telegraphs, Japanese	58
Printing automatic duplex telegraph, alphabet	7
Double-duplex printing telegraphs	8
Phototelegraphs	4
Telegraph repeaters	218
Automatic time switch	87
Others	92
Total	11,298
Batteries	
Primary	89,276
Secondary	8,795
Total	98,071

Wireless Telegraph Service

The study of wireless telegraphy was begun in Japan in 1896, or one year after the invention of wireless telegraphy by Marquis Marconi. In 1903, an experiment was made between Nagasaki and Taiwan by the Communications Department with satisfactory results.

The First Station In November, 1906, Japan sent her delegation to Berlin to represent her at the First World Conference on Wireless Telegraphy. In May, 1908, the first land wireless telegraph station was established in Choshi, (Chiba prefecture), whilst the first marine wireless telegraph equipment was set up on the Toyo Kisen liner "Tenyo Maru" in the same year. In July, 1908 wireless telegraph stations were established at Ohsézaki in Nagasaki prefecture, Shionomisaki in Wakayama prefecture and Tsunojima in Yamaguchi prefecture. In December, 1908, a wireless telegraph station was established at Otchishi in Hokkaido. At the same time sets were installed on some of our ocean liners. Japan was thus placed on a more or less secure foundation in the sphere of wireless telegraphy.

The circulation of regulations for private wireless telegraph offices in October, 1915, greatly facilitated the healthy growth of the business, and the service was extended to wider areas. It was utilized for steamship communication, and contact was also made with steamers and between ships and land stations, and also between aeroplanes and steamers or stations on land. With the enforcement of a law for the establishment of wireless sets on steamers, the number of stations rapidly increased.

International Communication The extension of wireless communication with other countries started in Japan in 1915, when messages were exchanged between Otchishi station and Petropavlovsk in

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Kamchatka. In 1916, the Funabashi station succeeded in exchanging messages with Hawaii. In 1920, the Iwaki station was established for handling messages between Japan and America. In 1925, the Government issued a law establishing the Japan Wireless Telegraph Company with a capital of ¥20,000,000, with a view to becoming absolutely independent of foreign telegraph companies, with whose co-operation Japan had been exchanging wireless messages with all other countries, except America, Russia, and China.

The Government transferred to the Company its Iwaki radio plant and the ground at Yosami and Yokkaichi which it was holding with the intention of erecting radio stations for the services with countries in Europe.

The Company was reorganized in March, 1938 and assumed the name of the International Tele-Communications Company, increasing its capital to ¥25,000,000 and absorbing the International Telephone Company.

The Company has, according to the Law, to equip and manage the facilities and then rent them to the Ministry of Communications in consideration of a subsidy. Although many improvements were introduced at considerable outlay over all former installations of Iwaki radio plant by the Company, the advent of short-wave methods compelled it to close the stations upon the completion of its new stations at Oyama and Fukuoka.

The Company's circuits now offer from Nagoya direct communication service with England, France, Germany, Italy, Switzerland, Poland, Holland, Mexico and Brazil; and from Tokyo the circuits reach out to North and South America, Hawaii, the Philippines, French Indo-China, Siam, Dutch Indies, British India, and Syria. The Company has an extensive plan of development which will in future place Japan in direct touch with all the important countries of the world.

The Company now places the following stations in daily twenty-four hour service:

(a) Transmitting station at Oyama, near Tokyo.

Receiving station at Fukuoka, near Tokyo.

(b) Transmitting station at Yosami, near Nagoya.

Receiving station at Yokkaichi, near Nagoya.

Stations (a) are used for direct communication with San Francisco, Buenos Aires, Honolulu, Manila, Saigon, Bangkok, Bandoeng (Java), Bombay and Beirut (Syria); and, stations (b) for direct communication with London, Paris, Berlin, Rome, Geneva and Warsaw.

Number of telegrams dealt with at wireless telegraph offices in the past five years was as follows:

		Domestic	Foreign
1931-32	Despatched	386,989	53,929
	Received	290,559	24,097
1932-33	Despatched	387,368	50,403
	Received	262,587	22,444
1933-34	Despatched	426,705	53,999
	Received	283,616	26,110
1934-35	Despatched	537,373	63,856
	Received	327,041	30,647
1935-36	Despatched	552,718	41,112
	Received	314,338	25,418

Telephone Service

According to the latest statistics, the number of telephone exchange offices in Japan proper was 5,804 in September and that of subscribers 981,920 in March, 1937.

The following tables show the development and present scope of the telephone service:

NUMBER OF TELEPHONE EXCHANGE AND MESSAGE OFFICES

Sept. 30, 1938

	Exchange Offices	Other Offices
Japan proper	5,804	10,405
Taiwan	119	184
Karafuto	41	61
Chosen	273	858
Kwantung Leased Territory	12	67
South Sea Islands	3	—

NUMBER OF INLAND TELEPHONE SUBSCRIBERS

	Total subscribers	Applicants for subscription
1929-30	690,043	182,217
1930-31	715,020	176,900
1931-32	729,914	172,150
1932-33	761,136	167,276
1933-34	796,538	161,857
1934-35	830,041	154,345
1935-36	870,476	145,049
1936-37	914,320	—
1937-38	981,920	124,537

NUMBER OF TELEPHONE SUBSCRIBERS IN THE TERRITORIES

Sept. 30, 1938

Territories	Subscription
Taiwan	19,633
Karafuto	6,304
Chosen	51,519
Kwantung Leased Territory	15,941
South Sea Islands	689

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NUMBER OF TELEPHONE MESSAGES IN JAPAN PROPER

Year	In the Same Subscription Districts			With Other Districts	
	Messages between Subscribers	Hours of Conversations at Offices and Public Telephones	Requests for Calling out	Hours of Conversation	Requests for Calling out
1933-34	3,564,536,772	36,949,570	43,165	211,604,540	2,003,246
1934-35	3,783,991,018	40,202,841	42,124	236,789,514	2,110,144
1935-36	3,984,266,968	44,791,390	44,494	273,789,863	2,216,320
1936-37	4,412,775,000	51,439,000	—	307,733,000	—
1937-38	4,976,322,000	59,853,000	—	342,590,000	—

FREQUENCIES OF FAULTS WITH URBAN TELEPHONES IN JAPAN PROPER, 1935-1936

		As Compared with the Previous Year
Faults in exchange offices	516,328	+ 4,164
„ subscribers	629,486	+50,770
„ on routes	347,924	+34,338
Total	1,493,738	+89,272

LENGTH OF TELEPHONE LINES IN JAPAN PROPER 1937-1938

	Km.	As Compared with the Previous Year
Land lines		
Aerial lines, routes	65,920	+ 6,238
„ lines	625,632	+ 28,985
Overhead cables, routes	11,016	+ 3,484
„ cores	2,268,167	+315,457
Underground lines		
Routes	4,817	+ 878
Cores	4,711,540	+532,428
Submarine cables		
Lines	1,384	+ 297
Cores	15,033	+ 6,175

NUMBER OF TELEPHONE APPARATUSES AND BATTERIES IN TNE EMPIRE, 1935-1936

	Japan Proper	As Compared with the Previous Year	Taiwan	Karafuto	Chosen	Kwantung Leased Territory	South Sea Islands
Manual telephone exchanges	11,736	-59	254	1	—	198	1
Automatic telephone exchanges	3,326	+324	1	85	841	197	2
Telephones	987,726	+52,587	17,620	5,658	43,648	24,695	354
Batteries	912,521	+23,305	24,516	5,999	71,446	17,171	470

Note: Figures for colonies are of 1933-34.

Wireless Telephone Service

The first experiment with wireless telephony in Japan was made in 1911 by the Communications Department with very satisfactory results. It was in 1923, however, that the service was opened for public use between Kobé

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city and steamers in the harbour. In 1926, this service was extended to Moji. The result being satisfactory, the Government decided further to extend the service and in December, 1932, the International Telephone Company, with a capital of ¥10,000,000, was established through the solicitation of the Communications Ministry to build up stations for the use of the Government and private bodies. This was done to facilitate wireless telephone service between Japan and the world, Japan's colonies and ships at sea. The transmitting station of the company is established at Nazaki, Ibaraki prefecture, and the receiving station at Komuro, Saitama prefecture, and these stations are connected each other and with the Tokyo Central Telephone Office by cables. Wireless telephones are now available between Tokyo, Nagoya, Kanazawa, Kobé, Osaka, Kyoto, Yokohama, Toyohashi, Nara, Himéji, Shimonoséki, Fukui, Fukuoka, Yawata, Wakamatsu, Nishinomiya, Amagasaki and Suma. The service has been opened between Formosa and Tokyo, on June 20, 1934. (See p. 616.)

In 1934-35 international wireless telephone service was successively opened between Japan and Manchoukuo, U. S. A., Canada, Mexico, Cuba, Philippines, Dutch East Indies, Sumatra, England, and Germany. The service with other 28 European countries was opened in July, 1935, with China in February, 1936, with Cape Town and Brazil in April, 1936, with Saigon in May, 1936, and with Argentine, Uruguay, Paraguay, French-Indo-China, Siam, and Union of South Africa in 1937.

Rates for the first 3 minutes range from ¥40 to ¥110 for European countries and from ¥54 to ¥95 for the U.S.A., the highest being ¥164 for Paraguay in South America.

Telephotograph Service This service is only available between Tokyo, Osaka and Formosa.

Radio

Radio broadcasting in Japan is under the control of a single organization, the Broadcasting Corporation of Japan, which in turn is supervised by the Ministry of Communications. Programmes are subjected to strict censorship and nothing that might harm the interests of the country and its people is allowed to go on the air. Advertising of all sorts is prohibited. Political speeches cannot be included in the daily programmes. Even election campaign speeches and Diet proceedings cannot be broadcasted. (See Chapter XXXVII.)

The First Programme The first radio programme in Japan went on the air on March 22, 1925, five years after the world's first regular commercial broadcasting by the station KDKA, East Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania. The station, using the call letters JOAK, was in Tokyo, and it had a power of only 500 watts. This station, established temporarily at Shibaura, on the water front of Tokyo Harbour, was replaced in July by a 1 kw. station at Atagoyama, a hill in the southern part of Tokyo. In the difficult times following the great earthquake and fire of September, 1923, which laid waste a greater part of Tokyo, the radio played an important part in comforting and encouraging the citizens who were working hard to rebuild their city and their homes.

Shortly afterwards, small stations were established in Osaka and Nagoya, which form with Tokyo the three largest population centres. The engineers in charge of these stations were sceptical about their success. There was no assurance that the Japanese public would respond by buying radio sets and listening in, or would like the programmes once they were heard. These fears, however, were groundless. For a time there were not enough receiving sets in the stores to meet the demand. Instead of a novelty, the radio became a daily necessity. Elated at their success, the promoters worked out a plan to centralize all the broadcasting in the country, which was heartily approved by the Ministry of Communications. Before the end of a year, the stations in Tokyo, Osaka and Nagoya were merged, and the Broadcasting Corporation of Japan was formed to assure nationwide cooperation in meeting the demand for more efficient stations and better programmes. The present number of broadcasting stations is 7 with 35 sub-stations.

International Programme Exchange Starting with the vivid scenes of New Year's Eve from U.S.A., the year of 1936 was the busiest year the Corporation ever experienced in the line of international broadcasting.

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In the early spring, speeches on the London Naval Disarmament Conference by Japanese representatives and the relay of Funeral Service of the late King George V. from England impressed the hearts of whole nation. Besides the large number of programme exchanges with other countries, as one of the chief events previously planned, the Corporation succeeded in relaying eye-witness accounts of almost all events from the actual scene of the Olympic stadium and swimming pool on the occasion of the XIth Olympiad which was held in Berlin.

In order to describe the running commentary of the Olympic Games, the Corporation sent a corps of JOAK staff members to Berlin for the benefit of the domestic listeners.

The entire nation most enthusiastically listened to these broadcasts from Berlin, because of the two-fold events; one of which was Olympic Committee's deliberation in Berlin on the fortunate city for 1940 Olympiad, and the other was the outcome of the Berlin Olympiad itself, awaiting the success of the large number of Japanese competitors participating in the Games. The result of reception was so successful that the whole nation not only enjoyed these broadcasts but marvelled at the technical perfection in the modern art of radio transmission for long distance in which much credit is due to the skill and effort of the operators on both sides.

The international programme exchange yearly adding its importance as one of the most effective mediums to create a better understanding of each nation, the Corporation is increasing its effort in various phases of this field to co-operate with as many broadcasting organisations of the world as circumstances permit.

In the year 1937, Japan participated in twenty-nine international broadcasts.

Overseas Broadcast The Broadcasting Corporation of Japan inaugurated daily one hour short-wave broadcast, that is 2:00 to 3:00 p.m., Tokyo Time, under the name of "Overseas Broadcast" on June 1st, 1935 with the object of furnishing the residents in the foreign countries with accurate information about Japan and of introducing the culture of Japan.

The programmes of this broadcast consist of news in Japanese and English, music, entertainment, talk and eyewitness accounts of various sport events and other subjects, specially selected to present a true and interesting glimpse of the real Japan to all listeners abroad.

Though this broadcast was mainly directed to the West Coast of North America and Hawaii, the programmes of this broadcast met with an enthusiastic response and reports of good reception and much encouraging response complimenting the contents of the programmes were received, not only from the areas to which they were specifically addressed but also from other parts of the world.

Moreover, the Corporation was carrying out during the past year experimental transmissions, one for the East Coast of North America and South America and the other for Europe, each twice a week. These transmissions also met with considerable response and a large number of reception reports from those who had listened to these broadcasts in various countries to which these transmissions were specifically directed.

Encouraged by the good results of these experimental transmissions, the Corporation has decided to inaugurate three more daily transmissions, and the first programme of these transmissions went on the air on January 1st, 1937.

Transmitters of 20 kilowatt are used temporarily for these broadcasts, but they will be replaced in the near future by 50 kilowatt transmitter which is now under construction.

From the beginning of April 1937, the broadcast to Europe, on Monday, Wednesday and Friday, will be in English and German and on Tuesday, Thursday and Saturday, French and English will be employed. On Sunday the broadcast will be only in English.

In the other three directions broadcasts will be in Japanese and English.

Programme Hours The working hours of each broadcasting station in Japan differ a little according to their local conditions as well as the seasons of the year. According to the report of the JOAK, the average broadcasting hours per day in 1938 were 11 hours and 26 minutes in the general broadcasting and 4 hours and 36 minutes in the broadcasting for cities.

The first programme of the day is sent out at 6.00 a.m. (from April to October) and at 6.30 a.m. (from November to March), and the closing announcements of the day's programme goes on the air at 9.50 p.m.

The following tables give the number and hours of broadcasting and the programme statistics classified by programme classes of JOAK.

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NUMBER AND HOURS OF BROADCASTING

		Major Divisions		
		General Broadcasting	Broadcasting for Cities	Broadcasting for Overseas Japanese
Number of broadcasts	1938	21,044	4,343	14,367
	1937	19,597	2,638	10,041
	Increase or Decrease	+1,447	+1,705	+4,326
Hours (in total)	1938	4,174.03	1,675.17	2,231.03
	1937	3,932.36	1,370.47	1,640.06
	Increase or Decrease	+241.27	+304.30	+590.57
Average hours per day	1938	h. m. 11.26	h. m. 4.35	h. m. 6.06
	1937	10.46	3.45	4.29
	Increase	.40	.50	1.37

PER DIEM HOURS OF BROADCASTING ACCORDING TO DIFFERENT SUBJECTS

Programme Classes		1938	1937	1931	1926
		h. m.	h. m.	h. m.	h. m.
General Broadcasting	News	3.59	3.58	2.53	1.52
	Talks, Courses	2.10	2.12	1.45	2.19
	Children's hour	.30	.30	.33	.25
	School Broadcasting	.33	.34	—	—
	Actual Scenes	.14	.10	19	.01
	Music	1.13	1.11	1.05	1.09
	Entertainement	1.02	1.01	1.02	1.02
	Miscellaneous	1.45	1.10	.34	.07
	Total	11.26	10.46	8.11	6.55
Broadcasting for Cities	News	.36	.10	.03	—
	Talks, Courses	1.29	1.55	2.56	—
	Actual Scenes	1.06	1.16	1.11	—
	Music	.14	.04	—	—
	Entertainement	.20	.02	—	—
	Miscellaneous	.50	.18	.11	—
	Total	4.35	3.45	4.21	—
Broadcasting for Overseas Japanese		6.06	4.29	—	—

New Broadcasting Houses Development of our broadcasting is reflected in the establishment of two large broadcasting houses, one in Osaka and the other in Tokyo at a total cost of six million yen. The Broadcasting House in Osaka was opened to service in November 1936. This six storied building (exclusive of the central tower which is three storied) covers an area of 1927 sq. metres, and comprises 13 studios in all.

While in Tokyo, a site of 3950 sq. metres was chosen near the Hibiya park for a six storied building which will house 16 studios and rooms for various department offices. The construction was completed early in 1939, and the new white reinforced building adds another element of beauty to the business centre near Hibiya Park. In September, 1935, a research committee for the design of studios to be housed in these broadcasting houses was formed. This committee comprises electrical, acoustical and architectural specialists, and preliminary practical tests are being carried out at present at the JOAK building at Atagoyama.

Research Laboratory The technical research laboratory of the Corporation was established at Setagaya district in western part of the city of Tokyo in April 1930. The work of the laboratory is directed mainly to the fundamental and general researches as well as to the various possibilities of broadcast transmission and reception apparatus, wave propagation phenomena, visual broadcasting, patents and other problems related to the art of broadcasting.

Owing to the rapid development of the radio art, the laboratory was found to be too narrow to continue these researches, and the premises and building were enlarged in 1936.

Television For some years past re-

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search work of television has been going on separately at the Waseda University, Hamamatsu Higher Technical College, Tokyo Electric Co., Electrotechnical Laboratory of the Department of Communications and the Research Laboratory of the Corporation. They had their own special system and the comparison of merits between them is a question very difficult to solve. A somewhat different line of investigation is now being undertaken, namely, whether it is possible to combine advantages of these systems and realise the experimental broadcasting of the television.

The Television Society of Japan, which was formed in 1934, and which comprises the investigators of television throughout the country is earnestly recommending to start the experimental broadcasting, and the Corporation is now considering the matter to comply with the recommendation. The desirability of its early realization is justified, though the policy of the Corporation towards the question is yet to be disclosed. The special building for the purpose of the television research is under construction at present on the premises of the Research Laboratory.

Wireless Exchange System Although the growing trend of listeners of broadcast has been of a steady and healthy nature, the listeners are mainly concentrated in the city districts and the percentage of listeners to population in the country districts remains far below that of the former. This difference is chiefly attributed to the financial difficulties of the country districts. To conquer this drawback the Corporation is planning to start the wireless exchange system, with special units suitable for the nature of its service.

Technical experiments to find out the most efficient method for this system are being carried out at present in different regions throughout the country. A representative is chosen in a village and a broadcast receiving set is installed there, the operations and care of the set being entrusted to the representative and the audio output distributed by specially constructed lines to the subscribers in the village. The results in various districts so far are proving to be successful, and as soon as the plan is authorized by the government it is expected to be actually put in service at an early date. It is expected that by applying this system the majority of the population in country districts who are individually not able to pay the cost of a receiving set, the expense for maintenance and the charge for power supply for the receiving set, will now be able to enjoy the benefit of the broadcasting.

This system appeals also to those who find wireless reception difficult or who wish to avoid the trouble of looking after a wireless set.

Listeners When the Tokyo broadcasting station was opened on the 22nd of March 1925, the total number of listeners for the whole country was something like 5,400. On the 20th of August 1926, when the Broadcasting Corporation of Japan was formed, the number of listeners had reached a figure of over 338,2000.

The listening fee of two yen a month had been calculated to be charged at the time when the broadcasting services were started, was reduced to one Yen due to the unexpected increase in the number of listeners. This rate was uniform all over the country.

In September 1928, the number of listeners reached the 500,000 mark. In February 1932, three years and four months after, the number ran into 1,000,000, and in April of the same year, the subscription fee was reduced to seventy-five sen. The so-called "Golden Age" in our broadcasting begins at this period and in June 1933, the number passed the 1,500,000 mark, and keeping up the momentum, it leapt into 2,000,000 in April 1935. In commemoration of this growth, the subscription fee was reduced to the modest sum of 50 sen a month, which is being kept up to this day.

To sum up, it took about seven years for the number of registrations to reach the first 1,000,000; the next 1,000,000 was reached in three years only; while the subscription fee has been reduced to half the original sum during these 10 years,—a rate without parallel elsewhere in the world.

Thereafter, there was a tendency for the number of registrations to go on rapidly increasing, and on March 31, 1939, the number reached 4,165,729, the rate of distribution representing 29.4 per 100 families.

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THE YEARLY INCREASE OF LISTENERS

Year	Number of new registrations	Number of discontinuances	Number of Net increases	Total number of listeners at the end of year	% (per 100 families)
1934	510,705	245,828	264,877	1,979,096	15.5
1935	659,174	216,072	443,102	2,422,111	17.9
1936	728,777	246,128	482,649	2,904,823	21.4
1937	942,550	262,818	679,732	3,584,462	26.4
1938	878,089	296,900	581,189	4,165,729	29.4

PERCENTAGES OF THE NUMBER OF LICENCES TO 100 FAMILIES AS AT THE END OF DECEMBER, 1938.

	Localities	No. of Licences	Per 100 Families		Localities	No. of Licences	Per 100 Families
1.	Tokyo	952,961	67.8	26.	Toyama	37,715	24.0
2.	Osaka	478,811	48.0	27.	Nara	37,654	29.8
3.	Hyogo	242,146	37.4	28.	Fukushima	36,212	12.8
4.	Aichi	233,042	38.7	29.	Ehime	34,801	14.1
5.	Kanagawa	185,775	48.0	30.	Kagoshima	34,143	10.1
6.	Fukuoka	171,602	30.5	31.	Ishikawa	32,695	20.5
7.	Kyoto	151,024	40.5	32.	Kagawa	31,064	20.1
8.	Hokkaido	116,950	20.4	33.	Oita	30,629	15.3
9.	Shizuoka	110,287	30.3	34.	Shiga	29,910	19.5
10.	Hiroshima	88,923	22.4	35.	Yamanashi	27,497	21.7
11.	Niigata	85,339	23.5	36.	Fukui	27,204	19.8
12.	Chiba	72,979	24.1	37.	Shimane	26,325	16.6
13.	Saitama	70,328	24.6	38.	Yamagata	26,053	13.9
14.	Kumamoto	62,154	23.4	39.	Saga	23,849	18.8
15.	Yamaguchi	62,005	23.3	40.	Tokushima	22,897	15.5
16.	Okayama	60,952	21.1	41.	Akita	22,390	12.9
17.	Nagano	57,645	17.3	42.	Kochi	21,632	13.9
18.	Gifu	55,356	22.2	43.	Miyazaki	20,757	12.5
19.	Gumma	52,821	22.9	44.	Iwate	20,086	11.0
20.	Miyagi	48,756	23.3	45.	Aomori	19,516	11.4
21.	Tochigi	46,153	21.0	46.	Tottori	17,744	18.6
22.	Miye	45,201	15.7	47.	Karafuto	8,709	13.3
23.	Ibaraki	43,578	14.8	48.	Okinawa	1,037	0.8
24.	Nagasaki	42,019	16.1	49.	South Seas	151	(0.7)
25.	Wakayama	38,252	20.2	50.	Total	4,165,729	29.4

REGISTRATIONS BY CITIES AND RURAL COMMUNITIES

Year	Total Number of licence holders	%	Cities Number of licence holders	%	Towns & Villages Number of licence holders	%
1933	1,627,836	100	1,166,777	71.7	461,056	28.3
1934	1,897,398	100	1,364,573	71.9	532,825	28.1
1935	2,304,479	100	1,628,059	70.6	676,420	29.4
1936	2,776,189	100	1,915,857	69.0	860,332	31.0
1937	3,402,489	100	2,259,513	66.4	1,142,976	33.5
1938	4,165,729	100	2,632,629	63.1	1,533,100	36.8

The new registration in the course of 1938 numbered 878,089, showing a decrease of 64,461 (6%) from the previous year.

When the increase of licence holders of 763,240 is divided between cities and towns, the former occupies 63.1% of the total. Recently there is a marked tendency of the rate being on the increase with towns, and the reverse is the case with cities.

When the number of new registrations during 1938 are classified respectively according to the professions, and set

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against the corresponding percentages for the previous year, as is done in the following list, we find that the increase in the percentage was recorded in agriculture, manufacturing industry, mining industry.

NEW REGISTRATION BY PROFESSIONS

(In 1937 and 1938)

Professions	New registration Number		Rate		Increase or Decrease
	1938	1937	1938	1937	
Agriculture	161,052	138,760	23.4	17.6	22,292
Marine products industry	4,929	3,626	0.7	0.4	1,303
Mining industry	9,483	6,154	1.4	0.8	3,329
Manufacturing industry	85,545	64,413	12.4	8.2	21,132
Commerce	168,632	253,427	24.4	32.2	-84,795
Transportation industry	20,798	14,505	3.0	1.8	6,293
Civil, military services & persons of liberal professions	183,329	208,721	26.6	26.5	-25,392
Households works	379	546	0.1	0.1	-167
Other industries	1,615	1,538	0.2	0.2	77
No industry	46,793	54,273	6.8	6.9	-7,480
Total	682,555	745,963	99.0	94.7	-63,408
Schools, public bodies and others	195,534	196,587	1.0	5.3	-1,053

Finance Since the beginning of its establishment, the Broadcasting Corporation of Japan has pursued its policy of lightening the financial burdens upon the listeners by reducing the subscription fee down to its minimum.

To commemorate the tenth anniversary of the opening of broadcasting in this country and to popularise radio throughout Japan, the Corporation carried out the reduction of the subscription fee from seventy-five sen to fifty sen on April 1st, 1935. This resulted in a great increase in the number of subscribers, viz. the increase for the year ended March 31st 1936, was 443,015. But the net revenue from this fee and others decreased from 15,874,151 yen for the fiscal year of 1934 to 13,447,631 yen for the fiscal year of 1935.

On the other hand, the expenditure, including the depreciation of building and plant, amounted to 13,088,702 yen for the fiscal year of 1935, showing an increase of 856,071 yen against the last year's.

The greater part of its revenue is spent on the maintenance and development of the service, as well as on the various kinds of new enterprises.

Among the various items of expenditure, there is the contribution to the Home Office, the sum of 1,262,465 yen for fiscal year of 1935, which was distributed among the prefectures as contribution to sanitary measures.

Besides this, the Corporation paid to the Government the sum of ¥395,446 as the number of listeners registered at the end of the preceding financial year.

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CHAPTER XXV

LAND AND AIR TRANSPORTATION

State Railways

Historical Background

Japan's railway projects date from 1869, when the Government formed a plan to lay a trunk line linking Tokyo with Kyoto and Kobé, together with some branches to Yokohama and Tsuruga, a port on the Japan Sea. As the first step, half a million yen was sanctioned for the work between Tokyo (Shimbashi) and Yokohama, but the State Treasury was in no position to find this amount, while private capital declined to venture into this novel field of investment. It was at this time that an Englishman, Horatio Nelson Lay, by name, came forward with a proposal to furnish the required funds. The terms offered by him were accepted and a Japanese loan for one million sterling was placed on the London market. With the arrival of a British engineering corps and materials, the first sod was dug on the 28.962 kilometre Shimbashi-Yokohama section in March, 1870, and on the 32.18 kilometre Kobé-Osaka section in November, 1870. The gauge adopted for these lines was one of 1.067 metres, which has later become the standard gauge of the Japanese railways.

Tokyo - Yokohama and Other Lines The work between Shimbashi and Yokohama was completed in September, 1872, while the Kobé-Osaka line was opened to traffic in 1874 and it was further extended to Kyoto in 1877. These sections have practically formed the nucleus of what now constitutes the Tokaido Line, one of the main arteries of railway traffic in Japan. In 1880, the Kyoto-Otsu section was completed and in 1884 a further extension with a length of 41.834 kilometres between Tsuruga and Nagahama, a town along Lake Biwa, was completed and opened to traffic in pursuance of the railway idea of linking up the Pacific and the Japan Sea. Meanwhile, a survey was made on the Otaru-Horonai section in Hokkaido, where colonization work was being strenuously encouraged. Construction of this section was soon undertaken and the 88.495 kilometre length was opened to business in 1882, thus bringing the total length of railway under Government ownership toward the close of 1884 to 185.035 kilometres.

Private Lines About this time the Government was in financial difficulties and the building of State railways practically came to a standstill except for a few extensions. It was at this time that, not being in a position to undertake the work itself, the Government began to encourage private enterprise, the encouragement mostly being in the shape of subsidies. Under these circumstances, many private railways were built in rapid succession, the most notable among them being the Nippon Railway, the Sanyo Railway, the Kyushu Railway and the Hokkaido Colliery Railway. The total length of line thus built by private capital in the ten years between 1881 and 1891 aggregated 1,874.485 kilometres, a length more than double that of the State which did not exceed 886.559 kilometres by the end of 1891.

The Trunk Line Prior to this, the Government decided to lay a trunk line through the Nakasendo, the old mountainous highway of Central Japan, but in view of engineering difficulties along this line it was subsequently abandoned in favour of the level region of the Tokaido. Work on the new route was finished in July, 1889, whereby a through service was opened for a distance of 611.42 kilometres between Tokyo and Kobé. Then a branch to Yokosuka was opened and a 160.9 kilometres section between Takasaki and Naoétsu was completed with the exception of 9.654 kilometres over the Usui Pass. This difficult section, for which the Abt rack rail system was adopted, was not opened for service until 1893.

The Railway Construction Law In view of the industrial progress being made in the country there was an urgent demand for the speedy construction of more railways. The entire length of Japanese railways at that time amounted to only 2,574.4 kilometres and the bulk of contemplated lines was in remote districts with no prospect of immediate profit, and on that account did not appeal to private enterprise. These circumstances showed both the

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Government and the public the advisability of state acquisition of private lines and opinion was further strengthened by the financial failure of some of the private concerns. In view of this, in 1892, the Railway Construction Law was passed and the Government set to work constructing important lines. The law embodied a comprehensive programme of railway building and contained the guiding principles on which the railway system of Japan was founded. At the same time the matter of consolidating the different lines into one complete system was being studied by a committee of enquiry appointed by the Government. The acquisition of private railways was accomplished in October, 1907, the subsidiary businesses being taken over at the same time. Immediately after nationalization the State Railways were organized under a Railway Bureau, which was directly responsible to the Cabinet. But in May, 1920, a separate Department of State was created to deal with railway affairs and the Minister of Railways was appointed to control it.

Railway Network

The law of 1892 authorized the Government to build certain specified lines within a certan limit of time, and also to buy up such private railways as were judged necessary for the completion of a unified system. Pursuant to this programme the State Railways proceeded with the work of construction and in 1906 and 1907 purchased 17 private lines to a total length of 4,547.034 kilometres, thereby bringing under national control all the railway lines in Japan proper, with the exception of feeding lines of local importance. In 1922 after a careful survey of the State lines the Railway Construction Law was modified and some new lines were added to the original programme. At the same time it was decided that, pursuant to the new law, such local lines as formed a connecting link between the State lines, either already projected or considered necessary for completing a unified national railway system be purchased.

Organization and Staff

Prior to the nationalization of the private lines, the State lines were operated on a departmental system based on the principle of centralization. The system worked well because the management of the State lines was a relatively small business, but when the Government assumed the management of all lines it was found unequal to the extra work, and in December, 1906, the Imperial Government Railways were removed from the control of the Minister of Communications and assigned to a newly created administrative body, the Railway Board. The administration was then decentralized and remains so today. The existing system of organization of the State Railways was established in May, 1920, when the said Railway Board was made, by virtue of Imperial Ordinance No. 143, an independent department of the Central Government. According to the regulations, the Department of Railways not only controls the whole of the State lines, but supervises the provincial railways and tramways in Japan proper. It maintains one central and six regional offices. The Central Office is directly governed by the Minister of Railways and manages all matters relating to the State Railways as well as maintaining supervision over provincial railways and tramways. It is composed of eight bureaux according to the kind of business dealt with. They are the Minister's Secretariat; Bureau of Local Railway Administration; Bureau of Traffic and Operation; Bureau of Construction; Bureau of Maintenance and Improvement; Bureau of Mechanical Engineering; Bureau of Electricity; and Bureau of Finance and Purchase. The Central Office also controls Regions, District Construction, District Improvement, District Electric Offices and Tokyo Railway Hospital. On April 23, 1930, by virtue of Imperial Ordinance No. 83, a further bureau, the Board of Tourist Industry was created as a separate bureau of the Department of Railways. The bureau is controlled by the Minister of Railways and attends to the business of the tourist industry, its object being to encourage people of other lands, by advertising and in other ways, to visit Japan and see her incomparable scenic beauty, natural charm and national manners and customs, and to encourage Japanese living at home to take trips to different parts of the Empire.

As stated above, the administration of the State Railways is decentralized into six regions, Tokyo, Nagoya, Osaka, Moji, Sendai and Sapporo. Each region is a complete unit and is in charge of a director who is vested with power to conduct, at his own discretion, all affairs relative to his jurisdiction, excepting matters of general and large import for which decision of the central administration has to be obtained.

In the State Railways of Japan the members of the staff are either Government officials or employees.

On March 31, 1937 there were al-

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together 227,689 (8,118 females) servants in the employment of the State Railways as against 218,352 in the preceding year. The total salary for the year 1936-37 was ¥153,812,691 as against ¥147,990,026 in 1935-36. The average annual salary per person in employment was ¥676. As compared with the preceding year, the staff shows an increase of 9,337 during the year, and the annual payment of salaries increased by ¥5,822,665.

Traffic

Goods and passengers carried by the State Railways in Japan proper since 1914-15 follow :

Fiscal years	Goods Metric tons	Passengers (Unit 1,000)	Goods Traffic	Working Revenue Passenger Traffic	Miscellaneous	Total
				(Unit ¥1,000)		
1914-15	35,837,241	166,092	53,372	56,366	2,429	112,169
1921-22	58,312,333	454,535	171,135	219,228	7,234	397,599
1922-23	65,095,702	512,754	183,573	237,446	8,574	429,593
1923-24	65,818,955	579,288	181,182	255,284	6,888	443,354
1924-25	71,178,263	640,828	199,256	264,725	6,944	470,927
1925-26	73,090,274	683,568	204,434	268,222	7,793	480,450
1926-27	74,780,409	740,333	205,078	271,249	7,755	484,082
1927-28	78,621,788	795,722	220,285	278,952	7,206	506,444
1928-29	79,762,959	847,300	228,015	292,624	8,491	529,131
1929-30	77,224,824	862,939	223,265	286,046	8,483	517,794
1930-31	64,087,099	824,152	189,161	261,131	7,848	458,140
1931-32	60,590,746	787,222	180,365	245,359	7,824	433,540
1932-33	61,732,756	781,149	178,717	239,017	8,219	425,954
1933-34	71,970,592	841,316	203,189	261,159	9,905	474,254
1934-35	77,477,837	913,564	225,246	282,857	10,564	518,668
1935-36	81,039,134	985,041	233,397	300,422	10,714	544,534
1936-37	89,342,111	1,058,630	259,773	326,610	11,786	598,171
1937-38	87,294,310	1,169,574	279,207	360,160	—	639,368
1938-39	97,440,162	1,357,078	320,421	418,040	—	738,461

In March, 1937, the total working kilometreage of the State Railways reached 17,422.2 kilometres and shows an addition of 391.8 kilometres over the preceding year. The total train kilometreage amounted to 255,412,711 kilometres, being an increase of 14,613,676 kilometres over the preceding year. The number of passengers carried by trains, buses and ships during the year totalled 1,076,157,992 and the aggregate volume of goods transported amounted to 92,995,602 metric tons. As compared with the preceding year the former showed an increase of 76,977,475 passengers and the latter 8,880,750 metric tons. The receipts from these two sources amounted to ¥586,385,014, showing an increase of ¥52,565,591 over the preceding year.

Motor-car Service In March, 1936, the total working kilometreage of the motor-car service reached 1,980 kilometres with 37 routes, being an addition of 215 kilometres.

The total number of passengers carried over those routes during the year came to 8,944,321. The aggregate volume of goods handled amounted to 73,724 metric tons. The receipts from passengers amounted to ¥2,074,170 and those from goods traffic to ¥209,455, the total being ¥2,283,625.

Ferry Service At present the State Railways run this service at 5 localities. They are Aomori-Hakodate ferry service connecting the main land with the island of Hokkaido, Shimonoséki-Moji ferry service connecting the main land with the island of Kyushu, Shimonoséki-Fusan route which connects the islands with the Asiatic mainland, Uno-Takamatsu service which links the Sanyo line (main land) with the Island of Shikoku and Hokkaido-Karafuto route linking Japan proper with the Island of Karafuto or Saghalien. Besides, there are a few minor routes provided with smaller steamboats or motorboats for linking such places of note for sightseeing as Miyajima in the Inland Sea. In March, 1937, there were altogether 60 boats consisting of 31 steamers and 30 harbour boats owned by the State Railways apart from those chartered to private companies. The gross tonnage of these boats amounted to 62,048.33 tons, showing an increase of 12,962.1 metric tons in capacity as against the corresponding figures of the preceding

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year, and the number of boats increased by 1.

Accident and Casualty Returns The number of accidents reported during the year totalled 5,525, or 21.1 per 1,000,000 train kilometres, showing a decrease of 1,037 in number and of 6 per 1,000,000 train kilometres as compared with the preceding year. The number of casualties, including those caused by accidents, errors or unknown causes, numbered 3,420, during the year, or 13.1 casualties per 1,000,000 train kilometres. As compared with the preceding year this is a decrease of 142 in the total number, and a decrease of 1.5 per 1,000,000 train kilometres. The number of casualties caused by suicide was 1,836, or an increase of 10 as against the preceding year.

Length of Open Lines

The total length of State lines open for traffic on March 31, 1937, the end of the fiscal year of 1936, reached to 17,422.204 kilometres as against 17,030.365 kilometres in 1935-36, showing an increase of 391.839 kilometres. The total length of tracks reached 27,801.925 kilometres as against 27,299.552 kilometres in 1935-36, indicating increase of 502.373 kilometres. Of the total length of lines open for traffic 15,253.323 kilometres are covered by single tracks, 1,945.749 by double tracks, 18.800 by triple tracks, 204.332 by quardruple and the rest by multiple tracks.

Works and Plants

At the end of the fiscal year under review there were altogether 22 works and 3 detached plants in operation.

On March 31, 1937 there were 15,500 workmen, on the rolls and their monthly wages aggregated ¥924,687.

The number of day's work during the year aggregated 3,492,846 and the wages paid ¥9,151,934. The expenses involved in the workshops ¥53,861,025, consisting of ¥22,471,104 for the repair and manufacturing expenses and ¥31,389,921 for the purchase of materials and showed an increase of ¥6,715,899 in the total expenditure as compared with the preceding year.

Rolling Stock

The number of locomotives in operation at the end of the fiscal year of 1936-37 was 4,235. The number of passenger carriages aggregated 11,209, the total number of covered wagons was 73,184.

Electric Power

On March 31, 1937 there were altogether 3 power stations, 43 substations, 208 distributing houses in operation. In 1935-36, there were altogether 10 alternators representing 98,454 k.w.a., 156 converting machines for electric traction with a capacity of 243,917 k.w., and 616 transformers representing 723,844 k.w.a. in operation at these plants.

Finance

By Railway Special Account Law, enforced since 1909, the budget of the State Railways was made separate from the general finances of the State. Furthermore, the law provides that all capital expenditure for railway construction and improvement should be met from the revenue accruing from all sources of traffic and that the expenditure should, in case the revenue is not sufficient to cover it, be supplemented by the proceeds of public loans issued as a charge on this special account.

Capital Revenue and Expenditure The addition to the consolidated capital of the State Railways during the year under review came to ¥945,288,159 as accruing from the railway profit, proceeds of the public loans and the miscellaneous receipts transferred thereto, while ¥793,925,916 was deducted therefrom partly on account of the removal and transfer of the railway property and partly owing to the depreciation, the conversion or the redemption of public loans, leaving thus a ballance of ¥151,362,243 as the actual increase in the capital. Then the total capital investment of the State Railways from the inception of the Railway operation to March 31, 1937 amounted to ¥4,089,624,979, that is, the balance shown above plus ¥3,938,262,736, the aggregate capital on April 1, 1936. It should also be noted that the capital is, according to the Railway Account Law, divided into capital proper and debenture capital. The debenture capital represents the liabilities at the charge of the Railway Special Account, that is, the proceeds from the public and floating loans and the loans issued for the purchase of private railways. The remaining portion forms the capital proper which includes, for instance, the net profit transferred from the railway revenue account, the proceeds of the sales of property, redeemed debentures, surplus on the stores and workshop account and miscellaneous receipts transferred to the capital revenue. Of the total consolidated capital shown above the capital proper claimed ¥2,118,446,062 and the debenture capital ¥1,971,178,917.

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The Capital Revenue Settled for the year under review was ¥173,352,444 as against ¥158,692,723 of the expenditure settled, being an increase of ¥19,319,044 for the former and of ¥7,688,444 for the latter as compared with the preceding year. The increase in the revenue settled was attributable chiefly to the increase in amount transferred from the railway profit, as well as proceeds of sundry receipts, while the gain in the expenditure settled was due to the increase in the expenditure on the railway construction, and the improvement and the motor routes, as well as the sum appropriated to the redemption of liabilities. Below are given returns on this account settled for the past three years.

Item	1936-37	1935-36 (In yen)	1934-35
Capital revenue	172,936,606	153,614,051	139,982,882
Surplus on stores account	425,838	419,349	332,406
Total revenue	173,352,444	154,033,400	140,315,288
Construction, improvement, and motor-car routes	136,405,478	129,200,747	118,145,718
Redemption of debts	22,287,245	21,803,532	6,700,216
Total expenditure	158,692,723	151,004,279	124,845,934

Stores Account The settled amount of Stores Account Revenue for the year 1936-37 was ¥190,814,739 and the expenditure on this item amounted to ¥185,415,437, or an increase of ¥20,625,698 for revenue and of ¥13,192,538 for expenditure as compared with the previous year. The increase in the revenue was accounted for partly by the larger proceeds of sales of railway stores, and partly by the increase in receipts accruing from repairs of railway stores and from the supply of electric current while the increase in the expenditure is accounted for by the rise in the stores and workshop expenses and the charge for electric current.

Item	1936-37	1935-36 (In yen)	1934-35
Railway stores and workshop receipts	190,814,739	170,189,041	154,461,933
Railway stores and workshop expenses	185,415,437	172,222,899	159,225,660

Revenue Account The total revenue settled during the year amounted to ¥796,098,485 and the total expenditure ¥650,636,455 which are respectively ¥81,275,888 and ¥45,799,860 more than in the previous year. The increase in the revenue was attributable to the increase of the traffic and the sundry receipts, as well as receipts on suspense account and advances, while increase in the expenditure was accounted for by the growth in working expenses and subsidies to local railways, as well as the increase in refunds and advances appropriated for the C.O.D. payments.

The Revenue Account settled for the past three years is as follows :

Item	1936-37	1935-36 (In yen)	1934-35
Revenue:			
Traffic Receipts	591,252,994	538,592,712	512,931,499
Sundry Receipts	11,809,580	10,731,552	10,624,683
Receipts on Suspense Account & Advance	193,035,911	165,498,333	150,854,524
Total	796,098,485	714,822,597	674,410,706
Expenditure:			
Working Expenses	362,542,819	333,854,537	318,543,876
Interest Charges	83,206,220	93,750,891	91,788,215
Refunds and Advances	198,005,869	169,836,599	156,101,827
Secret Service Fund	27,440	27,440	27,440
Subsidies to Local Railways	6,854,027	7,367,128	7,052,618
Total	650,636,455	604,836,595	573,513,976

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Fixed assets of the State Railways for the last nine years follow:

(In ¥1,000)

Fiscal years	Value at the beginning of the year	Value at the end of the year	Fiscal years	Value at the beginning of the year	Value at the end of the year
1927–28	2,647,453	2,858,794	1932–33	3,413,786	3,503,893
1928–29	2,858,794	3,062,614	1933–34	3,503,893	3,613,169
1929–30	3,062,614	3,246,724	1934–35	3,613,169	3,728,485
1930–31	3,246,724	3,374,392	1935–36	3,728,485	3,850,507
1931–32	3,347,392	3,413,786	1936–37	3,850,507	3,987,210

BUSINESS INCOME AND EXPENSES

(In ¥1,000)

Fiscal years	Income	Expenses	Profit	Fiscal years	Income	Expenses	Profit
1928–29	529,256	393,380	135,875	1933–34	474,254	282,199	192,054
1929–30	518,016	399,026	118,989	1934–35	518,668	314,126	204,541
1930–31	458,140	382,552	75,587	1935–36	544,985	329,537	215,448
1931–32	433,540	365,088	68,451	1936–37	598,171	340,373	243,751
1932–33	425,954	364,874	61,079				

STATISTICS OF THE STATE RAILWAYS OF JAPAN FOR THE YEAR ENDING MARCH 31st, 1937. COMPARED WITH TWO PRECEDING YEARS

Item	1936–37	1935–36	1934–35
Railways			
Area (square kilometre)	*382,545.42	*382,545.42	*382,545.42
Population	*69,254,148	*69,254,148	*68,194,900
Length of lines worked (kilometre)	17,422.204	17,030.365	16,427.480
Single track (kilometre)	15,253.323	14,861.878	14,261.384
Double „ („)	1,945.749	1,944.939	1,942.548
Triple and more tracks (kilometre)	223.132	223.548	223.548
Total length of main tracks (kilometre)	20,060.805	19,658.241	19,052.965
Total length of other tracks (kilometre)	7,751.867	7,641.311	7,467.205
Average area per kilometre of the line (sq. km.)	21.957	23.288	23.288
Average kilometreage of lines per 100,000 of population	25.157	24.593	24.122
Average kilometreage of lines worked { pass. traffic	17,099.6	16,584.0	15,907.2
Average kilometreage of lines worked { goods traffic	17,315.8	16,797.2	16,111.1
Number of stations	3,515	3,393	3,233
Locomotives (including electric locomotives)	4,235	4,124	3,986
Passenger carriages (including electric cars)	11,209	10,958	10,813
Goods wagons	73,184	69,940	67,485
Employees	227,689	218,352	209,456
Yearly compensation of employees (yen)	153,812,691	147,990,026	142,471,148
Number of passengers carried	1,058,630,711	985,041,029	913,564,566
Number of passengers carried one kilometre	26,216,154,565	24,173,052,337	22,573,020,205
Average kilometreage of journey per passenger	24.5	24.5	24.7
Passenger earnings (yen)	274,423,400	253,042,633	238,681,479
Passenger earnings per kilometre (yen)	16,049	16,427	16,427
Passenger earnings per pass. per kilometre (yen)	0.0105	0.0105	0.0106
Coaching receipts (yen)	316,001,496	291,635,214	274,096,342
Coaching receipts per kilometre (yen)	18.480	17.125	16,685
Volume of goods hauled (metric ton)	89,342,111	81,039.134	77,477,837
Volume of goods hauled one kilometre	15,656,579,602	14,011,711,522	13,347,226.184
Average kilometreage of goods hauled per metric ton	175.2	172.9	172.3
Goods earnings (yen)	250,962,215	225,343,228	215,615,301
Goods earnings per kilometre (yen)	14,494	13,232	13,125
Goods earnings per metric ton per kilometre (yen)	0.0161	0.0161	0.0162
Goods wagon receipts (yen)	253,664,698	228,101,754	218,681,101

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Item	1936-37	1935-36	1934-35
Goods wagon receipts per kilometre (yen)	14.649	13,394	13,312
Passenger train kilometreage (kilometre)	180,095,889	172,254,041	159,331,961
Goods train kilometreage (kilometre)	75,316,822	68,544,994	62,706,334
Total train kilometreage (kilometre)	255,412,711	240,799,035	222,038,295
Steam locomotive kilometreage (kilometre)	236,809,444	224,711,296	211,943,149
Electric locomotive kilometreage (kilometre)	9,594,109	9,283,279	7,944,200
Electric car kilometreage (kilometre)	131,462,469	125,244,288	112,838,595
Passenger car kilometreage (kilometre)	1,009,836,750	960,563,447	888,331,190
Goods wagon kilometreage (kilometre)	2,573,969,079	2,325,870,976	2,222,680,466
Shipping			
Length of routes worked (nautical mile)	284.0	284.0	284.0
Number of steamers	61	60	60
Aggregate tonnage	62,048.33	49,086.23	48,957.55
Number of passengers carried	8,582,960	7,861,102	7,404,307
Passenger earnings (yen)	6,373,245	5,814,165	5,519,591
Volume of cargoes transported (metric ton)	6,114,216	3,077,922	2,951,679
Cargo receipts (yen)	1,980.0	5,776,685	6,231,869
Motor Car Traffic			
Length of routes operated (kilometre)	333	1,765.0	1,191.0
Number of buses	56	269	183
Number of trucks	40	52	40
Number of trailers	40	40	40
Number of passengers carried	8,944,321	6,264,452	4,134,529
Passenger earnings (yen)	2,074,170	1,466,959	918,569
Volume of goods conveyed (metric ton)	73,724	47,796	39,332
Goods earnings (yen)	209,455	112,261	62,978
Finance			
Capital (yen)	4,089,624,978	3,938,262,726	3,813,211,445
Capital per kilometre of line (yen)	23,473	231,254	232,130
Working revenue (yen)	598,171,399	544,534,114	518,668,073
Working expenses (yen)	354,420,373	329,537,000	314,126,116
Profit (yen)	243,751,026	214,997,114	204,541,952
Percentage of expenses to revenue	59.3	60.5	60.6
Percentage of profit to capital	6.2	5.7	5.6
Profit (yen)	243,751,026	214,997,114	204,541,952
Deduct.—Private Rly. control & survey expenses	569,470	634,401	508,992
—Additional works expenses (yen)	7,580,496	3,710,575	3,936,208
—Interest charges („)	83,206,220	93,750,891	91,788,215
—Subsidies to local railways („)	6,854,027	7,367,128	7,052,618
Add. or deduct.(△)—Bal. on the suspense account	78,783	451,884	359,194
Balance (net profit) (yen)	145,462,030	109,986,002	100,896,730
Working revenue per kilometre (yen)	34,467	32,343	32,115
Working expenses per kilometre (yen)	20,422	19,573	19,450
Profit per kilometre (yen)	14,045	12,769	12,665

N.B.—* does not cover Taiwan, Chosen and Japanese Karafuto (Saghalien).

Working Results of the State Railways in 1937 and 1938

The settled accounts of the State Railways for the fiscal years 1937-38 or 1938-39 are not yet available, but a tentative report is published by the Railways Department as follows:

	Passengers	Goods (Metric tons)	Passenger earnings	Goods earnings (Unit ¥1,000)	Total earnings	Increase over the Previous Year
1937-38	1,169,574,000	87,294,310	360,160	279,207	639,368	41,197
1938-39	1,357,078,000	97,440,162	418,040	320,421	738,461	99,094

Private Railways

General At the end of March, 1937 the number of local railways in Japan proper was 250, a decrease of 7 as compared with the previous year. The

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total open kilometreage was 7,018.77 km., a decrease of 78.79 km. Their aggregate capital amounted to ¥1,223,291,-955, an increase of ¥9,433,914.

Traffic During the 1936-37 year the number of passengers carried was 575,-602,867, the coaching receipts amounting to ¥68,929,859. As compared with the preceding year the number of passengers carried increased by 43,467,922 or 8.1 per cent, the coaching receipts by ¥4,757,392 or 7.4 per cent. The increase both in traffic volume and coaching receipts was accounted for by the improvement of the financial situation that had been in depressed condition these few years. The average kilometres of journey per passenger came to 8.5 kilometres and the average coaching receipts per passenger ¥0.12, which means that the former decreased by 0.1 kilometre and the latter by ¥0.01 as compared with the previous year. The total amount of goods moved during the year under review figured 30,059,-157 metric tons and the receipts accrued therefrom amounted to ¥22,308,-862. There are a gain of 1,929,464 metric tons in the volume and of ¥888,264 in the receipts. It appears that the return of business prosperity, coupled with the larger demand for munitions and the heavy crops, has brought about the boom of goods traffic during the year, resulting in the swell of the volume of goods hauled and the receipts therefrom. The average goods receipts per metric ton came to ¥0.742, which was a gain of ¥0.19. Altogether 2,025 accidents took place on all the local railways, in which 450 persons were killed and 567 injured. The number of accidents increased by 256, the injured by 90, and the killed by 142 against the corresponding figures of the previous year.

Finance The total working revenue of the local railways during the year aggregated ¥101,710,620 as against their total working expenses of ¥57,558,086, leaving a profit of ¥44,152,534. As compared with the preceding year the working revenue showed a gain of ¥7,060,861, and the working expenses ¥4,014,068. The net profit for the year came to ¥44,504,446, which is composed of the profit shown above plus ¥34,649,111 of miscellaneous receipts, less ¥20,546,935 of interest paid and ¥13,750,264 of other charges. The earnings per day per kilometre ¥39.2, and the profit per day per kilometre ¥17.0 showing an increase of ¥2.2 and ¥0.9 in earnings, and profit respectively against the figures for the previous year.

Assets and Liabilities Both assets and liabilities of the private railways at the end of 1936-37 fiscal year totalled ¥2,-537,638,492.

Employee On March 31, 1937 there were altogether 40,562 employees on the staff of the local railways, their monthly allowances amounting to ¥2,250,463, or a decrease of 120 and an increase of ¥145 respectively.

Tramcar Service

Growth of Tramways The tramways in Japan date back from 1880, when an application was tendered for the construction of the Tokyo Horse Tram Co.'s line which was completed and opened to traffic in 1883. As provided by the Tramway Law now in force, all the tramways in Japan are constructed as a rule on highways. The street railways, a certain number of suburban railways and others laid in provinces are placed under the control of the Law. Such public bodies as cities, towns and villages may take the management of tramways without restriction. Steam and electricity are mostly employed as motive power except a few local tramways where gasolene, horse or human power is used for the purpose.

Lines in Operation On March 31, 1937 there were 120 tramways open to business with a length of 2,520.91 kilometres and an aggregate capital of ¥1,715,026,-289, being a loss of 8 in number, 32.64 kilometres in length, but a gain of ¥205,-870,550 in capital. Classified according to kinds of motive power they are made up as follows :

Kind of power	No. of Tramways	Kilometreage k.m.	Capital (In yen)
Electric	81	2,071.61	1,679,584,126
Steam	7	111.20	1,691,000
Steam and gasolene combined	7	85.50	3,945,000
Gasolene	9	84.50	21,967,500
Horse power	13	130.10	7,613,000
Human power	7	37.60	225,663
Total	120	2,520.91	1,715,026,289

New Lines, Lines Under Construction During the year 8 tramways with a total length of 18.10 kilometres were newly opened to business, while 3 tramways with a total length of 23.24 kilometres were granted charters for construction. Most of them use electricity as power and aim at conducting transportation in and near towns. The tramways under construction at the end of the year numbered 40 and their aggregate length measured 445.73 kilometres while the total capital amounted to ¥15,372,000, be-

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ing a decrease of 14 in number, of 144.26 kilometres in length, and of ¥4,306,000 in capital respectively as against the preceding year.

Results of Working The number of passengers carried during the 1936-37 period was 1,699,891,370, the coaching receipts resulting therefrom being ¥113,-811,841. Compared with the preceding year the number of passengers increased by 5.4 per cent and the receipts by 5.2 per cent.

The goods carried during the period was 1,755,804 metric tons, and the goods receipts ¥1,269,762, being a loss of 0.8 per cent in receipts and a gain of 3.2 per cent in the volume of goods carried.

The total revenue of the tramways during the year amounted to ¥121,498,710 as against their total working expenses of ¥72,651,163, leaving a balance of ¥48,-847,547, as profit. This was a gain of 5.4 per cent in the revenue, 6.4 per cent in the profit and 6.4 per cent in the working expenses. The working revenue per day per kilometre was ¥136.90, the working expenses per day per kilometre ¥81.86, and the profit per day per kilometre ¥55.04, being an increase of ¥9.44 in revenue, of ¥5.13 in expense and of ¥4.31 in profit as compared with the preceding year. The ratio of the working expenses to the working revenue stood at 59.8 per cent, or a decrease of 0.4 per cent while the ratio of the profit to the construction expenditure was 5.9 per cent or 0.3 per cent more than in the preceding year.

Assets and Liabilities The total capital investment of all the tramways open to business up to the end of the year under review amounted to ¥1,695,-465,655 of which ¥1,426,871,005 was paid up and ¥843,874,497 was claimed by construction expenses for open lines. Besides, there was ¥666,781,595 in the shape of debentures, floating debts, overdraft and bills payable, etc. The total amount of the aggregate balance sheet was ¥2,537,638,492.

RESULTS OF WORKING OF LOCAL RAILWAYS IN JAPAN PROPER

(1932-33 to 1936-37)

Item	1936-37	1935-36	1934-35	1933-34	1932-33
Number of railways	250	257	260	266	268
Kilometreage opened	7,018.77	7,097.56	7,088.22	7,184.55	7,242.11
Average kilometreage worked	7,075.8	6,963.3	7,076.3	7,158.4	7,173.3
Capital on open lines	1,223,291,955	1,213,858,041	1,233,342,593	1,231,129,999	1,204,113,426
Cost of construction of open lines (yen)	989,393,770	981,243,289	991,668,861	970,447,305	965,040,478
Working revenue (yen)	101,710,620	94,649,759	91,606,427	87,402,313	81,680,939
Working expenses (yen)	57,558,086	53,544,018	51,857,275	48,774,967	47,451,820
Percentage of expenses to revenue	56.6	56.6	56.6	55.8	58.1
Profit (yen)	44,152,534	41,105,741	39,749,152	38,627,346	34,229,119
Passengers carried	575,602,867	532,134,945	499,878,493	462,327,690	427,668,098
Passengers carried one kilometre	4,893,479,369	4,594,747,417	4,306,193,852	4,050,978,409	3,727,530,962
Earnings from passenger traffic (yen)	68,929,859	64,172,467	62,262,808	59,062,591	55,430,020
Weight of goods hauled (metric ton)	30,059,157	28,129,693	26,327,344	24,837,594	22,252,511
Weight of goods hauled one kilometre (km.)	673,274,964	585,778,910	554,371,665	533,382,086	505,669,915
Earnings from goods traffic (yen)	22,308,862	21,420,598	26,303,665	19,307,870	17,845,070
Total train kilometreage	15,677,227	17,414,895	17,542,100	18,636,593	19,311,848
Employees	40,562	40,682	40,845	40,513	41,572
Aggregate monthly conpensation of employees (yen)	2,250,463	2,250,318	2,252,922	2,169,658	2,254,103

N.B.—The above table does not include the lines belonging to private individuals for their exclusive use.

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RESULTS OF WORKING OF TRAMWAYS

(1923-24 to 1936-37)

Year ending March 31	No. of tramways	Open kilometreage	Capital (In yen)	Cost of construction	No. of passengers carried
1924	142	2,365.66	1,413,789,941	461,204,010	1,562,816,702
1925	148	2,462.38	1,485,941,725	518,641,727	1,712,999,110
1926	151	2,540.53	1,282,375,328	555,955,531	1,714,200,026
1927	156	2,686.76	1,900,845,592	581,999,017	1,738,044,308
1928	157	2,758.84	2,300,659,307	645,185,688	1,800,126,249
1929	155	2,718.38	2,252,594,154	675,891,891	1,872,007,160
1930	152	2,716.66	2,369,570,652	724,822,987	1,818,087,758
1931	148	2,706.85	2,274,779,504	744,898,995	1,682,198,444
1932	146	2,757.23	2,339,843,674	762,354,434	1,576,669,908
1933	141	2,740.43	2,270,234,409	781,648,493	1,466,674,331
1934	141	2,652.65	2,218,474,136	812,444,149	1,505,459,732
1935	135	2,615.20	1,658,587,395	807,840,784	1,570,939,965
1936	128	2,553.55	1,637,138,332	823,016,188	1,608,387,350
1937	120	2,520.91	1,695,465,655	843,874,497	1,699,891,370

Year ending March 31	Weight of goods carried (m.t.)	Working revenue	Working expenses (In yen)	Profit
1924	2,300,138	110,372,209	65,421,092	44,951,117
1925	2,263,799	126,120,409	71,015,213	55,105,196
1926	2,106,767	129,550,079	75,811,932	53,738,147
1927	2,160,047	130,422,346	75,187,152	55,235,194
1928	1,974,738	137,063,969	77,949,253	59,114,714
1929	1,883,670	143,218,209	82,540,855	60,677,356
1930	1,740,760	140,472,807	80,752,985	59,719,822
1931	1,682,622	128,009,229	77,222,809	50,786,420
1932	1,422,443	116,645,225	72,558,243	44,086,982
1933	1,356,921	109,669,986	68,128,253	41,541,733
1934	1,497,023	110,828,843	67,525,124	43,303,719
1935	1,907,384	113,112,507	70,689,908	42,422,599
1936	1,699,549	114,924,120	69,188,340	45,735,780
1937	1,755,804	121,498,710	72,651,163	48,847,547

Rolling Stock On March 31, 1937 there were altogether 93 locomotives, 6,606 carriages and 1,683 goods wagons. This is an increase of 93 locomotives, and of 73 carriages while the total number of the wagons remains same as in the preceding year.

Staff On March 31, 1937 the staff of the employees numbered 51,436 with their monthly compensation of ¥3,775,642, or loss of 877 in number of employees and of ¥159,748 in compensation.

Lines Used Exclusively On March 31, 1937 the number of the lines owned by private individuals or companies came to 84 of which 82 were opened to traffic with an aggregate open length of 392.62 kilometres, while the total length of the lines not yet opened to traffic reached 10.25 kilometres.

Land Transportation in 1938-39

Increase in Volume of Transportation by Government Railways The business conditions of the Government Railways during the 1938-39 fiscal year ending March 31, 1939, were best of the recent years due to the activities of general industrial and commercial circles, and the movement of passengers and goods in connection with the emergency. As it is given in the third page of this chapter the total proceeds amounted to ¥738,462,000, even without including miscellaneous revenue which may have reached over ¥12,000,000. The amount represents an increase of ¥99,094,000 or 15.5 per cent over the previous fiscal year. Both the number of passengers carried and the volume of goods hauled showed a historical increase as they are given in the following table as published by the Department of Railways on June 12, 1939:

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VOLUME OF TRAFFIC BY GOVERNMENT RAILWAYS DURING APRIL, 1938-MARCH, 1939

(Unit: Metric ton and yen)

	Passengers carried	Goods hauled	Passenger earnings	Goods earnings	Total earnings
By Train					
1938-39	1,341,508,085	97,370,770	414,661,457	319,914,923	734,576,380
Increase over the Previous year	184,627,187	10,125,346	57,194,388	41,046,960	98,241,348
By Motor-bus					
1938-39	15,570,098	69,392	3,378,849	506,557	3,885,406
Increase over the Previous year	2,876,685	20,506	685,515	166,848	852,363
Total					
1938-39	1,357,078,183	97,440,162	418,040,306	320,421,480	738,461,786
Increase over the Previous year	187,503,872	10,145,852	57,879,903	41,213,808	99,093,711

Private Railways The business conditions of private railways in 1938 and 1939 are improving, as a whole, with the active traffic caused by the general business boom in the country, as it is shown in the following table:

BUSINESS RESULTS OF 30 PRIVATE RAILWAY COMPANIES IN 1938

(Unit: ¥1,000)

Tokyo-Yokohama district	Paid-up Capital	Working Revenue 1st Half	Working Revenue 2nd Half	Net Profit 1st Half	Net Profit 2nd Half	Rate of Dividend 1st Half	Rate of Dividend 2nd Half
*Tobu Railway	42,500	4,911	5,038	1,605	1,696	7.0	7.0
(1939, 1st Half)		5,732	—	2,251	—	7.0	—
*Keisei El. R.	23,288	2,117	1,951	1,419	1,352	7.0	8.0
(El. Light)		992	1,060				
*Oji El. R.	17,000	542	612	1,332	1,405	10.0	10.0
(El. Power)		2,972	2,953				
*Keio El. R.	14,513	1,141	1,271	745	933	7.0	7.0
(El. Power)		1,620	1,714				
Odawara Express Railway	15,000	1,317	1,678	101	339	No dividend	
*Keihin El. R.	13,000	1,778	2,004	742	847	7.0	8.0
Shonan El. R.	9,200	1,543	1,734	434	535	10.0	10.0
*Meguro-Kamata El. R.	17,001	2,636	2,676	1,266	1,269	10.0	10.0
*Tokyo-Yokohama El. R.	39,700	2,013	2,006	1,904	2,250	8.0	9.0
(El. Power)		1,115	1,084				
Tokyo Underground Railway	40,105	1,514	4,054	741	1,431	4.0	6.0
Tokyo High Speed Railway	15,000	3,361	—	—	—	5.0	—
(1939, 1st Half)							
Teito E. R.	3,200	337	339	117	112	5.0	5.0
Seibu Railway	8,100	788	830	(−) 605	1,143	No dividend	
Musashino Railway	2,600	627	782	(−) 76	94	0	6.0
Aomé E. R.	3,080	211	297	55	147	3.0	4.0
(1939, 1st Half)		327	—	144	—	5.0	—
Sagami Railway	2,800	163	145	101	104	4.0	4.0
(Side work)		600	561				
Chichibu Railway	4,295	625	613	244	219	6.0	6.0
Kwansai District							
*Hanshin E. R.	61,750	4,216	4,936	3,306	3,752	9.0	9.0
(El. Power)		3,839	3,622				
(1939, 1st Half)		4,707	—	3,701	—	9.0	—
(El. Power)		4,132	—				

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	Paid-up Capital	Working Revenue 1st Half	Working Revenue 2nd Half	Net Profit 1st Half	Net Profit 2nd Half	Rate of Dividend 1st Half	Rate of Dividend 2nd Half
*Hanshin Express E. R.	55,000	4,597	5,417	3,533	3,669	10.0	10.0
(El. Power)		2,423	2,321				
(Department store)		2,987	2,871				
(1939, 1st Half)		5,196					
(El. Power)		2,620	—	3,735	—	10.0	—
(Department store)		3,489					
*Keihan E. R.	58,994	4,769	5,302	2,282	2,251	4.0	4.0
(El. Power)		2,486	2,541				
(1939, 1st Half)		5,475	—	2,056	—	4.0	—
(El. Power)		2,808					
*Nankai Railway	52,400	5,557	6,357	2,901	2,904	10.0	10.0
(El. Power)		3,286	3,173				
(1939, 1st Half)		6,286					
(El. Power)		3,481	—	2,913	—	10.0	—
*Osaka E. R.	44,210	4,217	4,990	2,207	2,522	8.0	8.0
(El. Power)		1,305	1,337				
(1939, 1st Half)		4,863	—	2,401	—	8.0	—
(El. Power)		1,452					
*Sangu Express E. R.	30,920	1,644	2,153	187	434	No dividend	
(1939, 1st Half)		2,631	—	706	—	"	
*Osaka Railway	16,010	960	1,267	286	485	No dividend	
(1939, 1st Half)		1,188	—	423	—	"	
*Hanwa E. R.	20,000	1,464	1,867	226	488	0	3.0
(1939, 1st Half)		1,848	—	471	—	3.0	—
Central Japan							
Fuji-Minobu Railway	12,000	665	496	232	263	No dividend	
Ina E. R.	13,151	644	665	564	575	5.0	5.0
(El. Power)		715	614				
Nagoya Railway	39,920	4,351	4,500	1,610	1,689	6.0	6.0
(1939, 1st Half)		5,163	—	1,901	—	6.0	—
Mikawa Railway	4,688	426	506	76	125	3.0	3.0
(1939, 1st Half)		614	—	156	—	3.0	—
Kyushu							
Kyushu E. R.	44,000	1,418	1,855	2,658	2,736	6.0	6.0
(El. Power)		4,559	6,048				

The aggregate amount of the paid-up capital of 15 representative private railways, which are marked with star in the above table, in the second half of 1938 remained almost the same with the second half of 1937, only one company, i.e. the Keio Electric Railway Company, increasing it from ¥12,900,000 to ¥14,513,000. But, their aggregate amount of profits increased from ¥21,028,000 for the second half of 1937 to ¥26,257,000 for the second half of 1938, their average rate of profits from 10.5 per cent to 10.9 per cent.

Kammon Tunnels under Construction

Two under sea tunnels which connect the Main Island and the Island of Kyushu are under construction. The one is a national road which connects Shimonoseki on the side of the Main Island and Moji on the other side of the Seto Strait, and the construction work is carried on by the Department of Home Affairs since August, 1937. An experimental tunnel was cut through on April 26, 1939, and the work for the construction of the proposed tunnel was commenced on May 12, 1939.

The other is a railway tunnel which connects the State railways on the Main Island and Kyushu through the sea bottom of the O-Seto strait. An experimental tunnel was completed on April 19, 1939, and it gave assurances for the possible success of the gigantic work of construction of the under sea railway.

The necessity of a speedy and more convenient transportation facilities between the major cities on the Main Island and Kyushu has been long felt, especially with the rapid industrial growth of North Kyushu in the recent years. The volume of transportation between Shimonoseki and Moji reached to 6,890,000 passengers, 4,520,000 tons of goods in the yearly average for the three years of 1930, 1931 and 1932, and the transportation has been carried on by a daily mobilization of 40 big steam

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ships and 800 sailing vessels. The Seto strait is in the international sea transportation route and the movement of these numerous vessels is quite cumbersome for the passage of big ocean liners. The new plan is to take away the trouble and prepare for the future increase of traffic between the two islands.

The total mileage of the new road is 5,340 metres, 4,190 metres of which is the tunnel and the part which is cut through the rocks under sea extends 1,150 metres with a width of 7.5 metres. For the ventiration of the tunnel the transverse flow system or distribution system. The expenditure is estimated at ¥17,000,000, and the work will be completed within the coming 10 years. When completed the tunnel will have a per hour capacity of having 2,500 automobiles and 2,000 bicycles pass it.

The under-sea railway tunnel was first contemplated by the Department (then Board) of Railways in 1911 when the late Count S. Goto was the president of the Board. At that time opinions, were divided on the choice of a tunnel or a bridge, but the former was finally decided upon, but the plan has been laid on the table for 25 years until an experimental work was started in September, 1936. The railway traffic on both sides of the strait between the Main Island and Kyushu is congesting with 37 passenger trains daily stopping at and starting from the Shimonoseki Station, the western terminal of the two trunk lines on the Main Island and 33 passenger trains stopping at and starting from the Moji Station, the north-eastern terminal of railways in Kyushu. These two terminals are connected with ferry boats which run 50 times a day between the two ports to carry the passengers and their baggages. Besides, 20 luggage trains daily run to and from the Shimonoseki Station, and some of them are conveyed to the other shore on board the ferry cargo-boats which have a capacity of loading from 6 to 8 wagons each. The daily volume of traffic by these ferry boats conducted by tthe State railways was 12,771 passengers and 682 wagons in 1934-35 fiscal year, and it increased to 16,652 passengers and 1,073 wagons in 1938-39, increasing 31 per cent and 57 per cent respectively. At present a passenger has to waste 50 minutes in taking the train on the other side of the strait. The completion of the under-sea railway tunnel will shorten the conveyance of goods across the strait by 10 hours, and a passenger may be carried within 10 minutes instead of 50 minutes or while he is taking a comfortable nap.

The total length of the new railway which directly connects the two islands is 6.7 kilometres, that of the tunnel being 3.6 kilometres. The length of the part of the tunnel which dives under sea is 1.2 kilometres. The tunnel has a diameter of 7 metres, and the construction of the new line and the tunnel will be completed by the spring of 1941.

Tourist Industry

Three organizations, viz., the Board of Tourist Industry, the Japan Tourist Bureau (founded in 1912), and the Kokusai Kanko Kyokai (founded in 1931), a foundation devoting itself solely to the carrying out of travel publicity abroad, and forming the hub from which radiate innumerable lines connecting it with other important organizations, such as the Society for International Cultural Relations and other cultural bodies, tourist associations in various districts, transportation concerns, hotels and all other organizations that have anything to do with the tourist industry of Japan.

The Board of Tourist Industry is divided into two departments, one for general affairs and the other for business promotion. In addition to these, it has three boards of investigation dealing with tourist resorts, hotel enterprises and treatment of tourists respectively. These boards comprise experts of the government and the public on the respective subjects. The Committee of Tourist Industry holds its general meeting at least once a year, when it decides what course to follow in carrying out any important undertaking.

The Kokusai Kanko Kyokai runs an office in New York and Los Angeles, though the actual business is carried on there in the popular name of the Japan Tourist Bureau.

The branch offices of the Japan Tourist Bureau, both in Japan and abroad, number about 130 in all. Besides, it has agents in some important cities abroad in order to make the network of its service as extensive and satisfactory as possible.

Since the establishment of the Board of Tourist Industry, tourist organizations of a non-commercial nature have been successively founded in many parts of Japan, and at present the total number is in the proximity of 400.

During the past two or three years, an annual increase of over 20 per cent has been recorded in the number of foreigners who visited Japan. According to statistics issued by the Board of

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Tourist Industry, the year 1935 witnessed the entry into this country of 42,629 foreigners, not including the 2,700 passengers on ships making a world-cruise, 132,700 through passengers on ordinary boats and 500,000 members of the crews of various vessels which called at Japanese ports during the same year.

The total amount of money spent in 1935 in this country by foreigners was ¥96,019,000 of which ¥70,242,000 was spent by tourists, according to the estimate of the Ministry of Finance. During the same year, Japan exported cotton piecegoods to the amount of ¥490,000,000 raw silk to the amount of ¥380,000,000, rayon textiles to the amount of ¥120,000,000 and silk textiles to the amount of ¥77,000,000. It will be noted that the amount of money spent in this country by tourists came very near the value of the export of silk textiles.

The total number of foreigners visiting this country did not increase much in 1936 over the figures for the preceding year, but the same rate of increase as before was recorded in the number of those who travelled the country for sightseeing. Particularly noteworthy is the fact that a remarkable upward tendency was indicated in the number of tourists coming from Manchoukuo and other East Asiatic countries.

In consideration of the future of Japan's tourist industry, special mention must be made of the fact that elaborate preparations have already been commenced for holding the 12th Olympic Games in Tokyo in 1940 which will also be the 2,600th anniversary of the foundation of the Empire. Besides various national enterprises in connection with the celebration of the anniversary, international conferences in varied fields are also expected to be held in this country during that year.

It is rather difficult to form any idea as to the number of foreign visitors likely to visit Japan in 1940, but the Board of Tourist Industry and other organizations are looking for it as an epoch-making year in the history of tourist industry in Japan. The rate of increase of foreign visitors during the past 15 years, 1921–1935, has been 5 per cent per annum, and their number in 1940 will under ordinary circumstances reach 53,000, while the 12th Olympiad and some 10 international gatherings are bound to add several thousands to this number.

The governmental authorities and the civilian organizations concerned are energetically devising ways and means to promote the tourist industry in conformity with the exceedingly favourable situation. Apart from the question of perfecting sporting facilities and means of transportation, plans are under consideration for the improvement of roads, traffic, sanitation, hotels and amusement facilities. The establishment of an international sea-bathing resort has been proposed and some organizations are sponsoring the creation of better facilities for the study of Japanese culture, by means of museums, art galleries, etc.

FOREIGNERS WHO VISITED JAPAN

In 1936

Nationality	Duration of Stay				Purpose				1936 Total	1935 Total	Increase or Decrease
	Less than 15 days	Less than 3 months	More than 3 months	Total	Sight Seeing	Official Business	Commercial Business	Miscellaneous			
Americans	6,691	1,934	1,030	9,655	6,694	70	537	2,354	9,655	9,111	544
Canadians	202	74	91	367	186	5	25	151	367	375	- 8
Britishers	3,596	2,479	917	6,992	4,838	70	541	1,543	6,992	7,293	-301
Germans	414	499	533	1,446	608	40	196	602	1,446	1,523	- 77
Frenchmen	390	382	148	920	630	23	69	198	620	894	- 26
Russians	488	435	392	1,315	273	118	308	616	1,315	1,280	35
Hollanders	384	279	124	787	546	10	79	152	787	789	- 2
Indians	108	284	410	802	234	-	390	178	802	728	74
Philippinoes	188	372	51	611	514	5	27	65	611	537	74
Chinese	1,896	653	8,849	11,398	918	157	979	9,344	11,398	14,260	-2,862
Others	1,687	1,839	4,749	8,275	2,455	351	460	5,009	8,275	5,839	2,436
Total	16,044	9,230	17,294	42,568	17,896	849	3,611	20,212	42,568	42,629	- 61
1935	14,941	9,859	17,829	42,629	16,045	706	3,667	22,211	42,629	—	—
1934	12,850	8,863	13,483	35,196	11,837	689	3,660	19,010	35,196	—	—

Apart from the regular visitors mentioned above, there were 3,159 tourists who visited Japan on their way around the world, 142,445 callers on various

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ports along Japanese shores and 515,-550 mariners who called at Japanese ports on their way while navigating their ships or cruisers.

The total amount of money spent by all the foreign visitors in Japan during the year is roughly estimated at ¥105,-567,000. This figure consists of ¥77,870,-000 spent by tourists, ¥5,412,000 by mariners aboard steamboats and cruisers visiting Japan, ¥2,309,000 by students studying in Japan, ¥9,769,000 involved in mission work ¥10,207,000 disbursed by foreign embassies, consulates and all the other public offices. These figures compared with those of the four preceding years are as under:

Item	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936
		(In yen)			
Money spent by tourists	37,649,000	46,301,000	64,598,000	70,242,000	77,870,000
Money spent by mariners	3,262,000	4,000,000	4,607,000	5,077,000	5,412,000
Money spent by students	637,000	633,000	1,000,000	2,040,000	2,309,000
Money spent for mission work	9,801,000	11,653,000	12,082,000	11,310,000	9,769,000
Money disbursed by public offices	6,592,000	6,871,000	6,945,000	7,350,000	10,207,000
Total	57,158,000	69,458,000	89,232,000	96,019,000	105,567,000

Railways in Chosen, Taiwan, Manchuria, etc.

Chosen

The first railway enterprise in Chosen dates back to 1890, when a railway linking Kéijo (Seoul) with Jinsen (Chemulpo), 29.485 kilometres in length, was laid and opened to traffic by the Kéi-Jin Railway Company. The outbreak of the Russo-Japanese War caused the military authorities of Japan to build the Kéijo-Fusan, Kéijo-Shingishu and Masan lines which were opened to traffic in 1905 and 1906 respectively. In 1906 the Imperial Government of Japan nationalized the Kéijo-Fusan Line and also took over the Kéijo-Shingishu and the Masan Lines from the War Office of Japan, placing all these lines under direct control of the Railway Bureau of the Korean Residency-General. Meanwhile the work of construction was steadily pushed on and in 1910 the Héijo-Chinnampo line was completed. On the spanning of the Yalu River with a swing bridge in 1911 the peninsular railway was brought into connection with the South Manchuria Railway. In 1914 the Taiden-Mokpo and Kéijo-Gensan lines were completed, while in 1915 part of the Gensan-Kainéi line was opened. In 1928 the Kankyo line which connects Kainéi to Gensan was completed, and in 1933 the Tomon line which connects Kainéi to Yuki was opened to traffic. The latter is connected with the Keito line of S.M.R.C. at Kainéi, thus preparing a new eastern transportation facility between Chosen and Manchoukuo. On March 31, 1937, the State Lines in Chosen open to business totalled 3,575.9 km. as against 3,389.5 km. in 1936 showing an increase of 186.4 km. The number of passengers carried aggregated 33,708,178, while the weight of goods hauled was 9,980,227 metric tons. The coaching receipts amounted to ¥32,-143,327 and goods receipts to ¥32,892,731. As compared with the preceding year the number of passengers shows an increase of 4,363,990, and the volume of goods hauled an increase of 1,312,585 metric tons, while the coaching receipts increased by ¥3,970,856 and goods receipts by ¥4,587,305.

The aggregate length of private railways open to traffic at the end of 1937 amounted to 1,211.8 kilometres, the length of lines under construction 70.9 kilometres, and lines contemplated but not yet granted charters 228.6 kilometres, the total length of all these lines amounting to 1,415.6 kilometres. The number of private companies which are already operating railways in Chosen numbered 10, viz., Chosen Railway Company, Chosen Kéinan Railway Company, Kongosan Electric Railway Company, Shinko Railway Company, Chosen Kéito Railway Company, South Chosen Railway Company, Chosen Gas & Electric Company, South Manchurian Railway Company, Sennari Railway Company, and Kunsan Municipal Railway. Besides, there were two railway companies which were provided with a charter but had not begun work. Of the above mentioned companies the former five receive regular subsidies from the Government. The aggregate capital of the five subsidized companies amounts to ¥80,300,-000 of which ¥37,380,000 is paid up, while the total capital of 7 other non-

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subsidized companies came to ¥21,206,000. The total length of tramways operated in Chosen came to 8.23 kilometres indicating a gain of 1.4 kilometres over the previous year. The power used is mostly electicity. (See Chapter XL for fuller information.)

Taiwan

It was not until the cession of the Island of Formosa (Taiwan) from the Chinese Government to Japan that the island began to enjoy railway facilities, for, prior to that time, the only railroad existing was a small light railway between Keelung and Shinchiku built at the time of the Ching Dynasty. Soon after the cession, the Taiwan Government-General brought forward a plan, with the approval of the Diet, to build a railway connecting Takao with Keelung at the expense of ¥28,800,000. Work was started in 1889 from both termini and finished in April, 1908. This line now forms the trunk line in the island's communication system. The construction of this pioneer line was followed by other lines, that is, the Kyukyodo-Heito section completed in 1912, the Taito line in 1917 and the Giran line in 1924. The length of lines open to traffic on March 31, 1938, was 881.7 kilometres, being the same as the preceding year. The working route kilometreage of the Government lines at the end to line in 1917 and the Giran line in the train kilometreage during the year 9,305,713 kilometres, the vehicle kilometreage 139,334,870 kilometres, being an increase of 336,988 kilometres for the train kilometreage and an decrease of 21,023,427 kilometres for other vehicles. The number of passengers carried came to 21,482,677 in 1936-37 and 23,098,052 in 1937-38, the volume of goods hauled to 7,121,691 metric tons in 1936-37 and 7,249,235 in 1937-38, and the earnings accruing from these two sources to ¥26,076,780 in 1936-37 and ¥27,019,079 in 1937-38.

Most of the private railways existing in Taiwan were originally constructed by sugar refining companies for transporting sugar and other materials, transportation business being conducted only as a side work. At the end of 1937, there were the total working km. of 2,515.4 and the number of passengers during 1937 was 4,196,773, while goods carried amounted to 842,155 metric tons. The earnings of the companies through the railway business amounted to ¥2,465,858.

The tramways, which form an important factor in the island communication system, have made a marked development in recent years. The total length of lines in operation on March 31, 1936, was 1,218.8 km., the number of passengers carried aggregated 3,257,635 goods moved 570,663,400 m.t. and the total receipts ¥1,601,235.

Karafuto Railway

The first railway in Karafuto (Japanese Saghalien) was constructed by the Military Department in 1906 between Otomari, formerly known as Korsakovsa, and Toyohara, formerly Vladimolocka, 41.83 km. in length. It was a light railway with a gauge of 0.61 metre and exclusively used for military purposes. With the withdrawal of the military Government in April, 1907, the railway was transferred to the control of the Karafuto Administration and opened to public traffic in August of the same year. As traffic went on increasing the gauge was widened to 1.07 metres, some time in 1910, while construction of sections further north of Toyohara was started. Late in 1911 the work on the Toyohara-Sakaehama section being completed, the Otomari-Sakaéhama section, 94.13 km. which now forms the trunk line in the island's communication, was opened to traffic. Construction work has been continued since and a branch line linking the Kawakami Mine with Konuma, and the Honto-Noda section on the west coast were completed and opened to business in 1914 and 1920 respectively. In addition, the construction of a branch line which connects Toyohara, the capital of the island, with Maoka on the west coast, was started in 1921 and opened to business in 1928.

The lines in operation at present totalled 342.9 kilometres, remaining the same as the previous year. The total number of passengers who travelled by the railways during 1935 totalled 1,606,325 and showed a increase of 205,843 or 14.7 per cent as compared with the previous year, and the receipts showed a gain of ¥117,012 the total receipts being ¥947,651. The total of both passenger and goods receipts amounted to ¥2,459,977 showing an increase of ¥401,519 over the receipts for the preceding year.

There are altogether three local railway companies that have run railway business in Karafuto.

South Manchuria Railway

It was on September 5, 1905, that the Japanese Government, by virtue of Article V of the Peace Treaty concluded between Japan and Russia, acquired possession of the railways in Manchuria from Changchun to Dalny, now Dairen, and Port Arthur, now Ryojun, to-

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gether with its branch lines, all the rights, privileges, and property attaching thereto, including the local mines formerly owned by the Chinese Eastern Railway. On June 7, 1906, Imperial Ordinance No. 142 was issued concerning the establishment of the South Manchuria Railway Company and on July 13 of the same year General Viscount Gentaro Kodama was appointed chairman of the promoters' committee which were composed of 80 members. On July 25, 1906, the presidency was assumed by General Viscount Masataké Térauchi, the then Minister of War, due to the death of General Kodama. The articles of association relative to the company were prepared by the committee on the basis of the Imperial Ordinance and the instructions of the Government. They were approved by the Government on August 18 and the establishment of the company was sanctioned by the Minister of Communications on November 1, 1906. The authorized capital of the company at first was ¥200,000,000, of which ¥100,000,000 represented the total of the appraised value of railways with properties and the mines at Fushun and Yentai as handed over to the company by the Military Field Railway Department. The other half of the capitalization was offered to public subscription and the shareholders were guaranteed a 6 per cent dividend per annum by the Japanese Government. By March, 1930, 800,000 shares representing 80 million yen were paid up, but with the development of various activities after the World War the capitalization was increased to 440 million, one-half of the increased capitalization being taken up by the Japanese Government. In 1933, its authorised capital was again increased to ¥800,000,000. The company is authorized to issue debentures not exceeding twice the amount of paid-up capital, and not exceeding the amount of total capitalization. The company has often issued debentures on the home and foreign markets and on such occasions both the principal and interest have been guaranteed by the Government. The total capital paid up on March 31, 1936 amounted to ¥584,208,000 and the capital unpaid to ¥251,792,000. In 1937 the total length of lines open to business was 1,129.1 kilometres. The gauge of these lines was 1.067 metres at first, excepting the Mukden-Antung Line. The company shortly after its establishment rebuilt the lines to the standard gauge of 1.434 metres. The doubling of track between Dairen and Hsinking, 704.3 kilometres, was completed in 1915. In the year 1937 the number of passengers carried was 17,515,044 and showed an increase of 1,765,258 over the previous year. Goods carried aggregated 25,129,935 m.t. The income from these came to ¥151,053,018. (See Chapter on Manchoukuo.)

Motor Transport and Its Development

Behind Japan's motor transport system there is no such history of experimentation and endeavour as characterizes the arrival of the motor car in the West. The first car seen in Japan was one imported from America by a foreign resident of Yokohama in 1897, and then for the next ten years there was no great increase in the number. In 1907 there were only 16 cars in the whole country. Then came a change. In 1912 there were 520 vehicles and a year later 1,000. In 1921, passenger cars numbered 4,683 and business cars numbered 7,439. The great earthquake and fire which destroyed Tokyo and Yokohama in 1923 brought about a great demand for motor cars because rail traffic was interrupted at various places and the help of motor cars was badly needed. In 1924, the number increased to 40,070, of which 27,959 were passenger cars and 12,097 were trucks. The rate of increase for the five years 1921–26 for passenger cars was 100.49 per cent and for trucks 1,200.6 per cent. This rapid development of motor car transport has driven rikishas, electric cars and provincial railways into the background. Motor-car passengers are increasing year after year, while passenger receipts on provincial railways are quickly decreasing. To the present, except in the vicinity of large cities, Japan has not been blessed with good roads, but the construction of first-class motor roads is being pushed ahead in all parts of the country and traffic is bound to make a phenomenal increase as the roads are completed.

Motor-Bus Routes Granted Charters or Invalidated During the year under review the number of the private motor transportation carriers granted charters for opening motor-car service came to 414 with an aggregate length of 1,740.5 kilometres consisting of 444 for motor-bus, and of 7 for motor-truck service representing 1,628.5 km. and 112.4 km. respectively. The number of the motor-transportation carriers, whose charters were invalidated, came to 269

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for motor-bus and 64 for motor-truck service, the aggregate length being 3,765.2 kilometres for the former and 2,224.3 kilometres for the latter.

Lines under Operation On March 31, 1937 the number of the private motor transportation carriers in operation came to 2,587 for the motor-bus service and 288 for the motor-truck service, their total length reaching 96,357.9 kilometres for the former and 11,024 kilometres for the latter.

Traffic Result The number of passengers carried by 2,123 motor-bus companies (or 75 per cent of the total carriers) was 1,011,242,330 yielding therefrom a receipt of ¥98,092,362 or ¥0.097 per passenger. The aggregate amount of goods moved by 85 motor-truck carriers figured 334,234 metric tons, the receipts accrued therefrom amounting to ¥1,533,831, i.e., ¥4.589 per metric ton. The number of accidents which took place on the motor routes operated by the aforesaid carriers was 12,821, in which 167 persons were killed and 1,875 injured.

Motor-Buses and Trucks The aggregate number of motor-buses and trucks in operation on all the private motor routes at the end of the year under review was 23,630 of motor-buses and 624 of motor-trucks.

Financial Result According to investigation made into 2,208 private motor-car companies as explained elsewhere, their total working revenue of these companies during the year aggregated ¥104,356,900 and their total working expenses ¥91,457,507, leaving a profit of ¥12,899,93. The percentage of the working expenses to the working revenue stood at 87.6 per cent and that of the working profit to the construction expenses at 11.4 per cent.

Assets and Liabilities The aggregate capital of 283 private motor-car companies, which defrayed expenditure required for starting the motor service amounting to more than ¥50,000, came to ¥876,520,308, of which ¥139,287,320 was unpaid. The expenditure required for the motor routes in operation totalled ¥84,884,471.

Staff On March 31, 1937 the staff of the employees of 2,209 private motor transportation carriers numbered 75,071.

Number of Cars According to the statistics taken by the Police Bureau, Home Ministry, the number of all kinds of cars in Japan proper was 194,574 at the end of 1936.

NUMBER OF MOTOR CARS IN JAPAN PROPER

At the end of	Ordinary Cars		Trucks	Special Cars	Small Cars	Total
	Private	Taxicabs				
1933	7,723	59,010	38,199	5,187	25,124	135,234
1934	7,970	62,511	42,059	4,938	39,095	156,573
1935	9,213	64,795	46,918	5,065	49,913	175,904
1936	— 74,910 —		51,338	4,978	63,348	194,574

Number of Cars in Principal Prefectures in 1936

	Ordinary Cars	Trucks	Special Cars	Small Cars	Total
Tokyo	17,991	10,905	1,095	16,347	46,338
Osaka	6,019	4,039	477	11,517	22,052
Hyogo	2,620	3,405	226	3,761	10,012
Kanagawa	2,430	2,363	128	2,186	7,107
Aichi	3,008	2,704	416	4,587	10,715
Shizuoka	2,348	1,811	113	1,563	5,835
Fukuoka	3,353	1,047	217	1,807	6,424
Kyoto	2,540	1,419	180	2,125	6,264

Aviation

History of Development

The Early Period During the Satsuma Rebellion in 1877, two balloons were built. In 1891, Mr. Chuhachi Ninomiya made a model of an aeroplane shaped like a bird from his own design, and, in 1894, another shaped like an insect. In 1897, Mr. Isaburo Yamada obtained a patent for a kite balloon of his own invention. Two of these kite balloons were used in the siege of Port Arthur during the Russo-Japanese War. In 1907, a balloon corps was organized in the Telegraph Corps at Nakano, and, in June, 1909, a special military balloon investigation association was established. In March, 1910, a gliding test of aero-

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plane No. 1 of the Hino type was made at Toyamagahara, Tokyo, and, in October that year, a flying test of an aeroplane of the Narahara type was made. On December 19 of the same year, Lieutenant Tokugawa (now Lieutenant-General) flew 3,000 metres in four minutes in a Farman aeroplane at Yoyogi, and Captain Hino flew in a Glady aeroplane. This was the first time that an aeroplane flight was carried out in Japan.

The First Civilian Flight In the spring of 1911, airship No. 2 of the Yamada type was taken out of the hangar at Osaki, Tokyo, and made a successful cross-country flight. In March and April of the same year, an American flyer carried out an exhibition flight in Osaka and Tokyo; on April 8, Mr. Shinzo Morita, who had studied flying in France, flew in a 45 h.p. monoplane over the Joto parade-ground in Osaka, this being the first flight by a civilian flyer in this country; and, in April that year, the aerodrome and flying ground at Tokorozawa were completed. In June, 1912, Mr. Atwater, an American flyer, conducted a series of exhibition flights by hydroplane on the sea off Nishinomiya near Osaka; and, in July that year, five officers were selected from each army division to be trained as flying officers. This marks the beginning of instruction in flying to military officers in this country. In the autumn of 1912, a number of aeroplanes and airships participated in the grand military manœuvres. In February, 1913, the Téikoku Hiko Kyokai (Imperial Aeronautical Association) was established; on May 4 that year, Mr. Koha Takéishi, a civilian flyer, started on a Naruo-Osaka-Kyoto flight, but, when landing in the Fukakusa parade-ground in Kyoto, he met with disaster and died as the first victim of civilian aviation in Japan.

Contest of Civilian Aviators In 1914, a contest by civilian aviators was held at Naruo, near Osaka, under the auspices of the Imperial Aeronautical Association, and, during the Tsingtao campaign Japanese military aeroplanes took part in actual fighting for the first time and displayed their ability in scouting, in bombing the enemy fortress and in an aerial combat with enemy planes. In 1915, a meet of civilian flyers was held in Osaka, and a military flying battalion was formed. Between January and April, 1916, American aviators visited Japan and performed stunt flying at Naruo and other places; and, on April 27 that year, night flying was successfully carried out for the first time in this country. In 1917, the flying battalion was enlarged into the first and second battalions and a balloon corps. In April that year, Mr. Art Smith, an American flyer, again visited Japan and carried out a series of high-class exhibition flights in Osaka and Tokyo. In April, 1918, Mr. Masao Goto, a private flyer, succeeded in making a non-stop flight between Tokorozawa and Osaka for the first time.

Military Flying School In April, 1919, the Military Aeronautical Department and the Military Flying School were established; and, on October 22 that year, the first mail transport flight between Tokyo and Osaka was carried out with success. In 1920, the Aeronautical Institute was established at Tsukishima, Tokyo; and in May that year, two Italian aviators paid a visit to Japan by air. In March, 1921, the regulations for the control of aviation were put in force. In the autumn of 1922, the Japan Aerial Transport Institute started a regular flying service between Sakai and Shikoku by hydroplanes. In 1923, the military air force was made an independent arm. The Osaka Asahi Shimbun started a regular air service between Tokyo and Osaka in January and the Japan Aerial Navigation Co., Ltd., opened one between Osaka and Beppu in July that year. In March, 1924, the dirigible S. S. No. 3 exploded and, in September of that year, the trial flight of the newly built airship Astra was carried out.

Air Mail Traffic In April, 1925, air mail traffic was started between Tokyo and Osaka; and, on July 25 that year, an aeroplane of the Asahi Shimbun took off from the Yoyogi parade-ground in Tokyo and, on October 27, reached Rome after a flight of 16,000 kilometres (in stages) via Moscow, Paris and London. In 1926, the Japanese Navy purchased from Italy the dirigible S-No. 3, which was one with a semi-rigid envelope, introduced into Japan for the first time. In June, 1927, the Aviation Law came into effect. In May, the Coast Defence Association successfully carried out a flight round the mainland, and, in October that year, the airship S-No. 3 exploded, while participating in the grand naval manœuvres. In April, 1928, Mr. Habuto, a civilian aviator, established a new record by flying 2,000 kilometres in 13 hours and 23 minutes; and, in July that year, aerial defence manœuvres were conducted in Osaka.

The Air Transport Co.. In 1929, the Japan Air Transport Co., Ltd., was es-

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tablished and inaugurated a regular air passenger service between Tokyo, Osaka and Fukuoka, later extending it to Seoul and Dairen; and two Army scouting planes of the 88 type flew between Tachiarai and Héito without stopping, making a record of aerial connection between the mainland and Taiwan. On their homeward flight, one of the planes flew for 15 hours and 15 minutes, thus establishing a new record of staying in the air in this country. In 1930, the Japan Students' Aviation League was formed and associations for the study of aviation were established one after another in different universities and colleges in Tokyo and Osaka. Mr. Yoshihara, a civilian flyer, flew from Berlin to Tokyo via Siberia in 11 days and simultaneously, Mr. Azuma, also a civilian flyer, reached Tokyo from Los Angeles via New York, London, Berlin and Siberia. In March, 1931, the airship No. 8 which had been made in Japan and belonged to the naval air force at Kasumigaura took off and stayed in the air for a record length of time of 60 hours and one minute.

In May, the Aeronautical Institute which ranks as the best research station in the world was completed six years after the starting of its construction. In the same month, the aeroplane "Young Japan" belonging to Hosei University, a member of the Students' Aviation League, set off for Europe from the flying ground at Hanéda near Tokyo and, at the end of August, reached its destination, Rome. After the outbreak of the Manchurian trouble in September that year, our military planes participated in actual warfare for the first time since the Tsingtao campaign. In October of the same year, the aeroplane (Fokker No. 3-M) of the Japan Air Transport Company succeeded in flying between Taiwan and the mainland. In 1932, as a consequence of the Manchurian trouble, 64 "Aikoku" (Patriotic) planes were constructed with money contributed by the people generally, and, moreover, defence from aerial attack became much discussed in our principal cities and important economic centres.

Present Condition of Civil Aviation

Modest but definite progress of commercial aviation in Japan is indicated in the annual report of the Japan Air Transport Company, which reports, for 1938, the length of air routes 6,925 km., number of flights 9,205, the aggregate distance of flights 2,856,262 km., passengers carried 18,955, mail matter 354,641 kg. and goods 80,116 kg. Commencing with April 1, 1935, the company has resumed night flying and also has inaugurated a special early morning service bringing Mukden within a day's reach from Tokyo by way of Seoul and Dairen. The early morning service was extended to Hsinking, the capital of Manchoukuo, on May 1. Further expansion of commercial aviation is expected to be facilitated considerably by the 15-year Government subsidy plan adopted by the Communications Ministry last year with a tentative budget of ¥200,000,000 for the whole period and originally a sum of ¥5,500,000 for the 1935–36 year but later cut to a smaller amount. Of the other aviation concerns Japan Aviation Research Institute maintains a 290-kilometre service between Osaka and Matsuyama in Shikoku, by way of Takamatsu; the Tokyo Air Transport Company a 150-kilometre service between Tokyo and Shimoda; the Tokyo Asahi Shimbunsha, Ltd., a 415-kilometre service between Tokyo and Niigata; and the Japan Sea Air Transport Company, a newly opened service between Matsué, Shimané Prefecture, and Hirosaki on the Japan Sea coast. The Tokyo-Shimoda service is operated only between May and September and the Tokyo-Niigata service between May and October.

The Japan Airways Company Under the auspices of the Ministry of Communications a new airway company was incorporated on December 1, 1938, through a merger between the Japan Air Transport Company and the International Air Transportation Company. It is called the Dai Nippon Kōkū Kabushiki Kaisha or the Japan Airways Company. The establishment of the company was contemplated by the Ministry of Communications for the development of civil aviation in 1938 and the merger of the two companies was the first step for the realization of a monopolistic half-governmental airway company. The Bill for the establishment of the Japan Airways Company was prepared by the Ministry and submitted to the Imperial Diet. Through the adoptation of the bill by the 74th session which met in the early months of 1939, the Japan Airways Company's capitalization was fixed at ¥100,000,000. The company has the right of monopolizing the national and international civil airway transportation business of the country, receiving subsidies from the National Treasury and is authorized to issue debentures not exceeding twice the amount of paid-up capital.

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Of the total amount of the capital, ¥37,250,000 shall be invested by the Government in cash and fixed assets; the number of shares shall be 510,000 (face value ¥50) representing ¥25,500,000, the amount to be paid-up being ¥17,625,000 according to the provisions of the law and the Imperial Ordinance for the establishment of the company.

All the air routes extending over 300 kilometres shall be monopolized by the new company and consequently the Japan Aviation Research Institute will be merged into the new company, while Ando Aeronautical Institute, the Japan Sea Air Transport Company and the Tokyo Air Transport Company shall be left untouched as local air companies.

Two goodwill flights to foreign countries were carried out by the Japan Airways Company.

The first flight to Siam, over a distance of approximately 5,000 kilometres, was conducted by the company's Heinkel plane, the Nogi, which left Tachikawa airport on January 25, at 6:44 o'clock in the morning. The plane took off from Taihoku, capital of Formosa, the following morning and arrived at Bangkok at 5:25 o'clock (Japan time) the same afternoon. The plane departed from Bangkok at 10 o'clock on the night of February 4 and, after an hour's rest at Taihoku, returned to Tachikawa at 4:52 o'clock in the afternoon of the following day. The second flight to Iran was made at the Government's request in order to demonstrate Japan's goodwill and friendship on the occasion of the Royal marriage of the Crown Prince of Iran. The company's Soyokaze left Tokyo on April 9 and arrived at Teheran at 4:20 o'clock (Japan time) on the afternoon of April 15, covering a distance of 12,061 kilometres in 46 hours and 50 minutes. The plane returned to Tokyo on the afternoon of May 28.

Another noteworthy achievement in Japanese civil aviation during 1938 was a new world record for distance over a closed circuit and for average speed established by a large long-distance plane designed by the Imperial University Aeronautical Research Institute. This machine, piloted by two of the army's late best fliers, Major Fujita and Sergeant Takahashi, took off from Kisarazu at 4:55 o'clock on the morning of May 13 and began its flight over a quadrangular course of 401.759 kilometres connecting Kisarazu, Choshi, Ota and Hiratsuka. It completed 29 laps and landed at Kisarazu at 7:18 o'clock in the evening of May 15 after remaining in continuous flight for 62 hours, 22 minutes and 49 seconds. When it had landed, the plane still contained about 500 litres of fuel and 200 litres of oil, which would have been sufficient to continue the flight for another 1,200 kilometres.

The present major air routes in Japan are Tokyo—Dairen, Fukuoka—Taihoku, Tokyo—Sapporo, Tokyo—Hsinking, Tokyo — Peking, Fukuoka — Nanking and Tokyo—Palau, the last three being opened in 1938 and 1939. The aggregate length of the routes extends as long as 19,000 kilometres. As compared with the conditions in 1929 the length of routes extends 7 times as long in 1938, the length of flights 6 times, the number of passengers carried 31 times, the volume of mail matter conveyed 100 times, and that of goods 125 times, as it is shown in the following table:

GROWTH OF CIVIL AVIATION

(Compiled by the Aviation Bureau, Communications Ministry)

	Length of Routes (In km.)	Number of Flights	Aggregate Length of Flights (In km.)	Number of Passengers carried	Goods conveyed (In kg.)	Mail Matter conveyed (In kg.)
1929-30	2,575	2,558	1,020,300	2,755	2,444	8,594
1930-31	2,575	4,454	1,670,900	7,642	8,966	25,063
1931-32	2,575	4,867	1,753,230	6,766	32,414	40,871
1932-33	2,575	5,301	1,744,105	10,716	28,510	93,950
1933-34	2,575	5,224	1,715,400	10,992	28,049	219,560
1934-35	2,618	5,648	1,683,652	12,187	51,023	197,199
1935-36	4,228	5,846	1,833,056	10,822	67,497	263,960
1936-37	6,925	9,205	2,856,262	18,955	80,116	354,641
1937-38	10,306	16,270	5,126,385	47,342	248,607	591,158
1938-39	15,335	17,144	6,209,873	69,268	297,807	819,261

Note: The figures are for the routes now taken up by the Japan Airways Company.

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Measures to Promote the Aviation Service

Profoundly convinced of the absolute necessity of promoting aviation service under existing conditions the Ministry of Communications intends to make it a national policy to launch a comprehensive aviation programme extending over three years beginning with the fiscal year of 1937–38. This programme covers the perfection and expansion of aviation facilities, training of aviators, encouragement and control of aircraft industry, perfection of both national and international aviation systems, etc.

Perfection and Expansion of Aviation Facilities The aviation facilities of this nation, including aerodromes, grounds for forced landing, aeronautical wireless stations, aerial lighthouses and aviation meteorological observatories, are in such condition that they are far from bearing a favourable comparison with those in various other countries. There are at present less than 10 state-managed flying grounds for civilian aeroplanes in this country, which are all too small and poorly equipped. Even the Tokyo airport, in spite of its being located at the entrance to the capital, is not large enough to enable the easy landing of a large-sized passenger plane such as the Douglas machine which traverses the American Continent.

As a means of rectifying the unsatisfactory situation, the authorities of the Ministry of Communications are endeavouring to perfect the national aviation system through the improvement of existing aviation fields and establishment of new ones in the leading cities throughout the country with the cooperation of the prefectures concerned. They are also making efforts to increase the number of grounds for forced landing and improve and expand the aerial lighthouses and other facilities in order to promote the regular air service. In 1939, the work for enlarging Fukuoka Airport was commenced, while improvements in Tokyo Airport (Haneda) and the costruction of Minami Sunamachi Airport in Tokyo are carried on.

Training of Aviators While the necessity of training air pilots and aircraft mechanics in order to promote the aviation service is generally recognized, the institutes for such training in this country are still very poorly organized and have few adequate training grounds. To make matters worse, the aeroplanes used by these institutes for exercise purposes are generally of a very inferior quality.

The communications authorities are working for an increase in the number of superior aviators by controlling these training institutes and urging an improvement of their equipments. During 1938-39, 10 Local Aviators' Institutes are going to be established at important points in the country for the training of aviators and technicians, and the Central Aviators' Institute will be established at Matsudo near Tokyo for a complete training of the graduates of the local institutes, the number of students limited to 50 picked up ones.

Encouragement and Control of the Aircraft Industry From the standpoint of science and technique, the Japanese people are not inferior to any other in producing aircraft of superior order but owing to the smallness of demand for civilian aeroplanes, few efforts have been made to manufacture flying machines of new types. Though some new types have been produced in the country they are chiefly imitations of foreign-made ones. The expensiveness of the production of an original type is held responsible for the slowness in the progress of aircraft industry in the nation. The government authorities are considering measures to encourage the manufacture of experimental aircraft, besides undertaking to direct the aircraft-making activities through its aeronautical research institutes. They aim at enabling the manufacture of aircraft at less cost than at present, so as to increase the demand for aeroplanes. The authorities also deem it essential to control as well as give encouragement to the manufacturers of aeroplanes and makers of aeroplane parts. The leading newspaper publishers in the country are encouraged by means of special grants to buy home-made aeroplanes instead of imported machines for use in their business. As an additional means of encouraging aircraft industry, the authorities also feel the necessity of granting subventions for the promotion of the export trade of home-made aircraft.

International Aviation Besides perfecting the national aviation system by improving the existing facilities and creating new ones, it is being strongly urged that the air routes linking this land with other countries should be perfected and expanded. It is emphasized that this country should gain the mastery of a regular air line connecting Manchoukuo, China and Europe, another connecting India, the South Sea Islands and Australia, a third connecting Soviet Russia and a fourth connecting the United States of America.

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Though the difficulty of competing with the already extended influence in the East of America and Europe is conceded, yet such a mastery is deemed essential to the growth of this nation.

Promotion of the Aircraft Industry With a view to furthering the development of the aircraft industry of the country, the Aircraft Manufacturing Industry Law was promulgated in 1938. By the operation of the law the present 14 aircraft manufacturing companies are to be helped by subsidies in enlarging their equipment, new companies are going to be established in this year, and the Central Aviation Institute was established on April 1, 1939. This new Institute belongs to the Communications Ministry and commenced investigations on a high-speed aircraft, the manufacture of larger planes, and a greater production of superior planes.

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CHAPTER XXVI

SEA TRANSPORTATION

Historical Background

The dawn of Japan's history is associated with maritime activities. The national mythology is rich in stories of sea adventures. Later authentic records fully demonstrate the energy and spirit of the early Japanese, who had to fight their way through stormy seas in the primitive craft of those days. The period covered by the latter half of the sixteenth and the beginning of the seventeenth century marks the golden age of marine activity in Old Japan. This was in a great measure due to the stimulus received by the natives through the appearance of Portuguese and other foreign ships in Japanese waters. Japanese vessels not only were in evidence in South China and the South Sea Islands, but cruised the Pacific as far as Mexico and fought their way through the Indian Ocean and round the Cape of Good Hope to Europe. Military rulers encouraged maritime enterprises and many large vessels were built. Thus the shipping trade between Japan and the South Seas and India, carried on under letters patent and numbering no less than two hundred ships at one time, engaged in commerce with twenty different countries, which were eventually dotted with regular Japanese colonies.

Ban on Shipping Activities Unfortunately, while the maritime prosperity of Japan was thus making progress by leaps and bounds, the Tokugawa Shogunate took the drastic measure of secluding the country and forbidding all foreign intercourse. Its first act was to place a strict ban on the propagation of Christianity in 1613. Subsequently, in 1634, all commercial relations with foreign countries were stopped, and in 1636 the construction of large ocean-going vessels was forbidden. For a period of more than two centuries thereafter the ocean trade of Japan was forcibly suspended.

The Well-timed Visit Commodore Perry's visit in 1853 was opportune, inasmuch as by this time many Japanese amongst the intelligent classes were dimly aware of conditions outside Japan, and the Shogun's Government, amid much confusion of opinion, took a firm step and signed the treaty. This event was followed in 1854 by the conclusion of similar treaties with the leading nations of Europe. Commercial intercourse with foreign countries was thus resumed, and the time-worn restrictions on navigation and ship-building were withdrawn. Then was formed the nucleus of the present mercantile marine of Japan. The Shogun's Government, finding the old Japanese methods of ship-building and navigation utterly out-of-date, promptly decided upon introducing the ideas of the outside world. For this purpose, students were sent abroad, while foreign experts were engaged to work in Japan. A ship-building yard was established in Yokosuka, and a naval school in Nagasaki.

After the Meiji Restoration

The First Steamship Co. In the third year of Meiji the Government promulgated the Mercantile Marine Regulations. In the same year, the pioneer steamship concern was inaugurated and a new leaf in the history of the Japanese mercantile marine was turned. The first company to be incorporated was the Kwaiso Kaisha, or Forwarding and Transport Company, which was later re-named the Teikoku Yusen Joki Kaisha (Imperial Mail Steamship Co.). Mampei Kimura was one of the chief promoters. A regular service was maintained between Tokyo and Yokohama and between Osaka and Kobé. Yataro Iwasaki, founder of the Mitsubishi interests, incorporated a shipping company called the Tsukumo Shokai, later renamed the Mitsubishi Shokai, in 1870 and inaugurated a regular passenger service between Tokyo and Kochi in Shikoku, from which place Iwasaki hailed. Three steamers formerly owned by Lord Yamanouchi, former feudal lord of Tosa, were employed in the service. When the Japanese Government sent a punitive force against Formosa in 1874, all foreign steamship companies interested in the Far Eastern shipping trade declared neutrality and rejected the Government's offer to charter their ships. Perplexed at this, the Government ordered the Mitsubishi Shokai and Teikoku Joki to offer their ships, and thus the transportation of troops was

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smoothly effected.

The N. Y. K. Comes into Existence Shigenobu Okuma, then Minister of Finance, and Toshimichi Okubo, then Home Minister, made efforts to organize the Yubin Kisen Mitsubishi Kaisha after the termination of the expedition. The two above-mentioned firms were dissolved and the Government's ships were handed over to the new company. The Mitsubishi interests made large profits under Government protection. Kaoru Inouyé and Admiral Tsugumichi Saigo, who were Okuma's political opponents, organized a corporation to rival the Mitsubishi's as a means of overthrowing Okuma and ordered, in 1882, Eiichi Shibusawa, Takashi Masuda and others to form a semi-Government shipping company under the name of the Kyodo Unyu Kaisha. Keen competition later ensued between the two and threatened to lead them to ruin. Consequently, the Government ordered them to effect a merger. In 1885 the Nippon Yusen Kaisha was incorporated through the investment of ¥5,000,000 by the Mitsubishi and ¥6,000,000 by the Kyodo Unyu. At the time of founding, the company owned 58 steamers with an aggregate of 68,700 tons. The Pacific Mail Steamship Company of America was then operating a regular line between Yokohama and Shanghai with the s. s. Golden Age, the Costa Rica and two other ships, all of which were purchased by the Japanese Government in 1874 for the transportation of Japanese soldiers on the expedition to Formosa. Iwasaki waged a freight war with the Pacific Mail at that time and finally purchased these four ships for $8,000,000. This price included the Shanghai wharf now owned by the Nippon Yusen Kaisha at Whampoo.

The O. S. K. About this time the Osaka Shosen Kaisha was established in Osaka. It was then a small concern maintaining services in the Inland Sea of Japan, but later developed into a large company. The Nippon Yusen Kaisha, while maintaining the services originally inaugurated by its predecessors, opened new lines to Korea and North China, and one between Shanghai and Vladivostok; and in 1891, it inaugurated the service between Kobé and Manila and commenced to despatch occasional ships to Australia. In 1892, the N. Y. K. Japan-Bombay service was opened, the first regular Japanese steamship connection with a far-away foreign country. The rapid progress of Japanese shipping is attested by the fact that in the beginning of 1891 the total tonnage owned in Japan was 100,000, and one year later this figure had increased by 10,000.

The Sino-Japanese War During the Sino-Japanese War of 1894-5, when the greater part of Japanese shipping space was requisitioned for transport purposes, a large number of steamers were purchased or chartered by Japanese owners and Japan, having complete command of the sea, was able to maintain its established oversea services. At the close of the war Japan found that its merchant marine had grown by 100 per cent compared with the pre-war figures. Meanwhile the Nippon Yusen Kaisha lost no time in consolidating its established lines and in 1896 it inaugurated three trunk lines, viz., the Yokohama-London-Antwerp line, the Hongkong-Japan-Seattle line and the Yokohama-Manila-Australia line. In 1898 the Tokyo Kisen Kaisha was established, and it maintained a regular fast service between Hongkong and San Francisco via Japanese ports with three fine new passenger ships. The Osaka Shosen Kaisha opened a new line on the Yangtzekiang in 1898. In the following year, this company opened a line from Formosa to Hongkong, via Amoy and Swatow. The increase in Japanese tonnage at that time was remarkable. Whereas, at the end of 1897, it amounted to only 270,000 tons, it suddenly increased at the end of 1898 to 477,000 tons, the ratio of growth continuing, until the gross tonnage of steamers of 1,000 tons and over at the end of 1903 amounted to 521,000.

Foreigners' Services Mention must not be omitted of the valuable contribution made by foreign experts to the development of the Japanese mercantile marine. Through the remarkable foresight of Iwasaki, not only foreign captains, officers, engineers and pursers were freely engaged afloat, but numerous experts,business and technical, were employed on shore to conduct the business of the Nippon Yusen Kaisha. A large number of these foreigners remained in the company's service for a considerable time after its formation. Foremost among them were A. R. Brown, Alexander Macmillan, T. H. James, J. W. Ekstrand, W. H. Hasewell and Hector Frazer, whose names are still familiar to old timers in the Far Eastern shipping trade.

One noteworthy fact in connection with the development of the shipping business is the advance made by Japanese mariners. Japan imported the science of navigation from the West and early in the Meiji Era the captains, chief engineers and mates were mostly

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foreigners. When the Nippon Yusen Kaisha was first organized in 1884 the company owned 57 steamers with a total tonnage of 60,000 and employed about 174 foreigners, the number being increased to 224 during the Sino-Japanese War. During the Russo-Japanese War Japanese mariners were the recipients of much praise, and their credit was greatly raised. After the war, in 1907, the number of foreigners was reduced to 87 and by 1920 there was not a single foreign officer in a Japanese ship.

The Russo-Japanese War The Russo-Japanese War broke out early in 1904, and Japan found herself compelled to undertake transport work of the biggest magnitude ever known in her history. This situation naturally created the necessity of purchasing additional tonnage, with the result that at the end of 1906 the total merchant marine reached a little more than one million gross tons, and Japan thus ranked sixth among the great maritime Powers of the world. Through the expansion of trade after the war, sufficient employment was found for these steamers. The Tokyo Kisen Kaisha opened its South American service before the war terminated. The Osaka Shosen Kaisha started in 1909 its Far East-Puget Sound service. Elsewhere the expansion was also pronounced, for in 1907 four large Japanese companies trading on the Yangtze-kiang pooled their interests and formed the Nisshin Kisen Kaisha (Japan-China Steamship Company) and the Osaka Shosen Kaisha in the meantime inaugurated the Tsuruga-Vladivostok and the Osaka-Kobé-Moji-Dairen lines. The general slump in the shipping trade which prevailed all over the world during this period was felt in Japan, but the country was not so badly hit as to prevent the further growth of its shipping, for, at the end of the year when the World War broke out, the total gross tonnage of ships flying the Japanese flag was 1,590,000, of which 1,310,000 tons represented ships of more than 1,000 gross tons each. Turning to the share which Japanese merchant shipping contributed to its foreign commerce, it was found that, whereas, prior to the Sino-Japanese war (1894–5), only 10 per cent of inports and exports were carried by Japanese ships, the proportion increased to 40 per cent after the Russo-Japanese War (1904–5), and just before the commencement of the World War, it had grown to 48 per cent.

The World War An extensive dearth of tonnage and the consequent pressing demand for space all over the world, caused by the World War, created a unique situation for Japanese merchant shipping, so much so that the total gross tonnage suddenly swelled by a million tons within a brief period and the yearly shipbuilding capacity increased from 50,000 tons to a half million gross tons. The share contributed by Japanese vessels to the transportation of imports and exports increased to nearly 80 per cent, the remaining 20 per cent being carried by foreign ships. Many new shipping services to all corners of the globe were opened one after another, and, besides rendering distinguished service to the cause of the Allies, the Japanese mercantile marine maintained a regular fortnightly Japan-England mail service, and despatched extra ships to European waters during the war. Furthermore, in response to the call of the United States after that country participated in the War a group of Japanese shipowners delivered a number of steamers aggregating 150,000 tons to the United States Government on charter at rates considerably lower than those which shipowners at that time could have obtained in the open market.

The inevitable aftermath of the war abnormalities—shipping depression—set in early in 1920, and this is still being felt all over the world. Japanese shipping in common with that of all other nations is undergoing a severe test of its perseverance and fortitude. Despite this Japanese shipping has considerably increased. The Tokyo Kisen Kaisha transferred all of its Pacific ships to the Nippon Yusen Kaisha, by which the latter became one of the greatest shipping companies of the world.

Representative Shipping Companies There are nine steamship companies working overseas and domestic services under governmental subsidy. These concerns are the Nippon Yusen Kaisha, the Osaka Shosen Kaisha, the Nisshin Kisen Kaisha, the Nanyo Kaiun Kaisha, the Kinkai Yusen Kaisha, the Yamashita Kisen Kaisha, the Kita Nippon Kisen Kaisha, the Harada Kisen Kaisha and the Kuribayashi Shosen Kaisha. The subsidy is paid to these companies for a period of one year from April to March in most cases, while in certain cases the subsidy runs over a period of three years.

The N.Y.K. Yokohama-London service has Kobé, Shanghai, Honkong, Singapore, Colombo, Suez, Port Said and Marseilles as intermediate ports of call. Its San Francisco line has Honolulu as the only intermediate port of

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call on both outward and homeward (eastward-bound) trips. On the westward-bound trip it has Nagasaki, Shanghai, and Hongkong. The company's Yokohama - Seattle (eastward - bound) service has Victoria or Vancouver as ports of call and its westward-bound service has Kobé, Moji and Shanghai as ports of call. Its South American West Coast line between Yokohama and Valparaiso (eastward-bound) has Hololulu, Manzanillo, or Salina Cruz, Callao and Iquique as ports of call and its westward-bound line has as ports of call Kobé, Moji and Hongkong. The N.Y.K. Yokohama-Melbourne service has as ports of call Kobé, Nagasaki, Hongkong, Manila, Davao, Thursday Island, Brisbane and Sydney both ways. The company had, in April 1938, 90 vessels with an aggregate tonnage of 657,000 tons. The number of ships under construction and proposed was 20 with 214,500 tons; it is capitalized at ¥92,250,000 paid up and the rate of profit was 32.7 and rate of dividend 7.0 for the second half of 1937.

The O. S. K. South American East Coast line (Yokohama-Buenos Aires) for its outward bound trip has as ports of call Kobé, Nagasaki, Hongkong, Singapore, Cape Town, Rio de Janeiro and Santos. When homeward bound the line has Santos, Rio de Janeiro and Cristobal as ports of call. The O. S. K. African East Coast line operates between Kobé and Cape Town and on its outward bound trip has Moji, Hongkong, Singapore, Colombo, Mombasa, Zanzibar, Dar-Es-Salaam, Beira, Loureço Marques and Durban. When homeward bound the line has Durban, Lourenço Marques, Mombasa, Zanzibar, Singapore and Moji as ports of call. These are the most important steamship lines operated under Government subsidy. The company owned, in April 1938, 120 vessels with 534,0000 tons. It is capitalized at ¥62,500,000 paid up and the rate of profit for the second half of 1937 was 49.5 and that of dividend 6.0.

The Kokusai Kisen Kaisha, owner of motor and steam vessels aggregating 320,000 tons deadweight, has reached new heights of prosperity under the able management of Mr. S. Kurokawa, President, the net profit for the year ending December 31, 1937, having amounted to over ¥11,530,000. During the last few years nine speedy motor vessels have been built and placed in commission on the Orient-New York express service, whilst three 19-knotters were completed early in 1936. The latter have been allocated to the newly inaugurated Far East-North Europe fast service. Furthermore, three motor and turbine super-freighters of about 9,200 tons deadweight each are now on order with the shipbuilders here in Japan and will all be completed before the end of the year 1938. The Kokusai Line, which was mainly engaged in tramp shipping before, now maintains several regular services of international significance, thus contributing much towards Japan's balance of foreign payments, which fact is worthy of particular mention at this moment when the importance of invisible exports cannot be too heavily stressed.

In addition, the Nanyo Kaiun Kaisha operates under Government subsidy the South Sea line between Kobé and Sourabaya, Java, calling at Macassar, Sourabaya, Samarang and Batavia on the outward trip. Ships sail direct for Kobé on the homeward trip. The Nisshin Kisen Kaisha operates the China Coast line between Shanghai and Canton as the southern line and between Shanghai and Tientsin or Taku as the northern line. The company also maintains the Shanghai-Hankow line with Chenkiang and Nanking as ports of call, the Hankow-Ichang line with Shasi as port of call, the Hankow-Hsiangtan line with Changsha as port of call, Hankow-Changteh line, and the Ichang-Chungching line, all these five lines being known as the Yangtze River services.

The Kinkai Yusen Kaisha, affiliated with the Nippon Yusen Kaisha, operates a subsidized regular service between Kobé and Tientsin or Taku during the winter with Moji as port of call and also the Yokohama-Newchwang (Yingkow) service with Nagoya as port of call both under Government subsidy. It also runs a regular service between Hakodaté and Odomari in Karafuto. The N. Y. K., O.S.K. and Harada Kisen Kaisha jointly maintain a Kobé-Tsingtao regular steamer service. The Tsuruga-Viladivostok regular service is operated by the Kita Nippon Kisen Kaisha, which is affiliated with the Osaka Shosen Kaisha. The Kuribayashi Shosen Kaisha, Hokkaido, operates a regular service between Hakodaté and Petropavlovsk in Kamchatka seven times a year during the warm season. Stores and other supplies of daily necessity are carried by ships on the service for Japanese fishermen engaged in the Kamchatka fisheries. A regular connecting service between Aomori and Muroran is maintained by the Kita Nippon.

Nippon Yusen Kaisha regular liners sailing between Japan and Europe call on their outward trips at Istanbul and Beirut more than twice every three

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month, those sailing between the same places call on their outward and homeward trips at Piraeus more than twice every three months, and those sailing between Japan and the United States call on their homeward trips at Havana in Cuba once every two months, all under Government subsidy.

The Toyo Kisen Kaisha owned 15 vessels with 78,700 tons in April 1937, with paid-up capital ¥9,000,000, rate of profit, for the second half of 1937, 32.7 and that of dividend 7.0. The total tonnage of ships under its control reached 121,277 tons.

The Dairen Kisen Kaisha had 52 vessels with 200,000 tons (9 vessels under construction), in April 1938, with paid-up capital ¥14,450,000, rate of profit for the first half of 1937 was 43.1 and that of dividend 6.0.

The Kuribayashi Shosen Kaisha had 22 vessels with 77,000 tons in April 1938.

Among smaller companies, the Daido Kaiun Kaisha (United Ocean Transport Co.) had 8 vessels with 77,956 tons.

Open Ports The open ports in Japan proper are Yokohama, Kobé, Niigata, Ebisu, Osaka, Nagasaki, Hakodaté, Shimizu, Takétoyo, Nagoya, Yokkaichi, Uno, Onomichi-Itozaki, Tokuyama, Imabari, Shimonoseki, Hagi, Moji, Wakamatsu, Hakata, Karatsu, Suminoé, Kutchinotsu, Miiké, Misumi, Kagoshima, Izuhara, Naha, Hamada, Sakai, Miyazu, Tsuruga, Nano, Fushiki, Funakawa, Aomori, Otaru, Nemuro, Kushiro, Muroran, Sasuna, Shishimi, Miiké, Shiogama and Kamaishi.

Marine Transportation in 1938-39

The shipping industry in this country witnessed remarkable developments during 1937. The shipping companies imposed upon themselves a voluntary control to curb the soaring shipping rates in connection with what was considered to be the greatest shipping boom since the time of the Great War and later an emergency shipping control law was passed bringing the shipping industry under Government control on account of the outbreak of the China incident. The increased demand for bottoms brought about directly by the incident aggravated the already-felt shortage of shipping space, thus serving to stimulate the rising tendency of freight rates and charterage. As an emergency measure to deal with the situation, the Ministry of Communications adopted a policy of licensing vessels registered in the Kwantung Leased Territory and foreign vessels in general to participate in the coastwise trade of Japan proper. Simultaneously, the Autonomous Shipping Federation fixed standard freight rates and charterage. These measures eased the tense situation facing the shipping trade. In order to provide against any prolongation of the extraordinary situation, the Ministry of Communications then decided to effect a fundamental remedy through the enactment of a temporary shipping control law. A bill for the law was approved at the 72nd session of the Imperial Diet and thus the shipping concerns were brought under wartime control in common with other industrial concerns in the country.

Autonomous Shipping Federation While the shipping concerns were experiencing an unusual boom, the merchants and industrialists interested in the importation of coal, ore, scrap iron and industrial salt in large quantities chafed under the prospects of higher freight rates and difficulty of securing shipping space. The outcry for the enforcement of adequate measures to cope with the situation became louder and louder with the result that Admiral Takuo Godo, former Minister of Commerce and Industry, advocated an alleviation of the restrictions on the purchase of foreign ships as a means of supplying the shortage of bottoms. The suggestion of Admiral Godo failed to be realized on account of an opposition voiced by the shipping circles.

There were indications, however, that if the situation should be allowed to take its own course, the Government might be expected to enforce some measures of control over the shipping concerns on the ground that the rapid rise in freight rates and the shortage of bottoms were accountable for the higher prices of commodities or for the difficulty attending the importation of important raw materials to feed the key industries of the country. Under the circumstances, Mr. Murata, president of the Osaka Shosen Kaisha, proposed the formation of a federation of shipping interests to control the rising tendency of the rates voluntarily. His proposal was supported by all the leading shipping interests and on July 1, representatives of the Nippon Yusen Kaisha, the Osaka Shosen Kaisha, the Kawasaki Kisen Kaisha, the Daido Kaiun Kaisha, the Yamashita Kisen Kaisha, the Kokusai Kisen Kaisha and the shipping department of the Mitsui Bussan Kaisha met together at the office of the Nippon Kaiun Shukaisho in Kobe and their discussions resulted in a decision to organize an Autonomous Shipping Federation with Mr. Murata, the promoter of the scheme, as its chief director.

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Following the meeting, the seven shipping firms concerned issued a joint statement which read: "We organize an autonomous federation of shipping companies with a view to promoting the sound development of the maritime transportation business of our country in conformity with the prevailing conditions of our Empire and at the same time increasing the efficiency of our shipping service. The present federation will exert its utmost efforts to smooth the transportation of those materials which are essential to our nation in times of emergency." Simultaneously, the following articles of association were announced:

Article 1: All the companies concerned shall co-operate with one another in a spirit of conciliation with a view to promoting the sound development of the maritime transport business of our country and facilitating the proper operation of shipping in conformity with the requirements of the prevailing extraordinary situation.

Article 2: In order to attain the aim of the present agreement, an autonomous federation of shipping companies shall be organized.

Article 3: The method of operating the present agreement and other details shall be determined by negotiations.

Article 4: The term of the present agreement shall be 3 years beginning from the day of its signing.

Article 5: The term as mentioned in the foregoing article may be extended by the unanimous wish of the members.

Emergency Shipping Control Law

The bill for the enactment of an emergency shipping control law as a link in the series of economic legislations aiming at the perfection of the wartime economic system in connection with China incident was presented to the 72nd session of the Imperial Diet and approved by both houses on September 8, and was promulgated on the following day. The principal purpose of the law is, as mentioned in its first article, to adjust the maritime traffic and transport in conformity with the requirements of the China incident.

The new legislation empowers the Government to control the movements of vessels and makes Government permission necessary for the chartering of vessels and acquisition of foreign vessels, and contains provisions for control of shipping lines, freight rates, shipbuilding and seamen. In other words, the legislation paved the way for the Government to have absolute control over the shipping industry.

Nevertheless, up to the time of writing the actual control of shipping had been left with satisfactory results to the shipping concerns themselves who are governed by the Autonomous Shipping Federation and the need for the enforcement of the new legislation was not felt till then. The Emergency Shipping Control Law was enacted rather as a reserve measure to be used only in case of necessity, the shipping companies being expected to exercise voluntary control for the most part. This point was clearly brought out in the interpellations and answers at the Diet session. Mr. Ryutaro Nagai, the Minister of Communications also stated in his speech before the general meeting of shipping business men on August 28 that the Emergency Shipping Control Law was not intended to replace the voluntary control imposed upon themselves by shipping companies, but was intended as a complementary measure to facilitate the shipping circles to conform to the actual needs of the prevailing situation.

The following are the major provisions of the Emergency Shipping Control Law which came into force on October 1, 1937:

Article 1: The present law aims at bringing about an effective co-ordination between the maritime traffic and transport facilities in general in connection with the China incident.

Article 2: The persons to whom the present law shall apply are the subjects of the Empire or the juridical persons of the Empire engaged in enterprises of transporting persons or commodities on the sea.

Article 3: When Japanese vessels are about to be transferred by sale, rented (the term "rent" as used herein also implies chartering for a specified period) or offered as security to persons who are not entitled to possess Japanese ships (the expression "Japanese ships" as used herein also implies Japanese shipping as based on orders issued in the Kwantung Leased Territory), the permission of the Government shall be obtained except in cases which are specified by decree.

Article 4: When persons who may possess Japanese ships are about to acquire ships which are not Japanese ships, they shall obtain the permission of the Government. However, an exception shall be made in regard to ships which are specified by decree.

Article 5: The Government may prohibit or restrict the transportation service of Japanese vessels between foreign ports.

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Article 6: The Government may specify the routes over which Japanese vessels may ply and what they may transport and order the shipping companies to operate accordingly.

Article 7: The Government may issue necessary orders to persons engaged in marine transportation business, persons possessing vessels or persons manufacturing ships in regard to the freight rates, charter rates, manufacture of ships or prices of ships.

Article 8: The Government may issue orders to shipbuilding concerns regarding the type of ships to be built, materials to be used, fittings to be contained and other matters concerning the manufacture of ships.

Article 9: The Government may issue necessary orders to shipping companies, or persons possessing ships in regard to the shipping, facilities to be provided, the protection of seamen or the perfection of facilities.

Article 10: The Government may order persons engaged in marine transportation business, persons possessing ships or persons manufacturing ships to report on the conditions of their business.

Article 11: The Government may, by decree, make separate stipulations in regard to the qualifications of ships to be put into the service of subsidized routes in accordance with the provisions of the Foreign Routes Subsidy Law.

Article 12: The Government may, by decree, make separate stipulations in regard to how many members of the crew each boat should carry and their qualifications in accordance with the provisions of seamen's law.

Article 13: Before issuing orders in accordance with the provisions of Article 7, the matter shall be referred to the shipping control committee.

The regulations concerning the shipping control committee shall be determined by Imperial ordinance.

Article 14 to 22 omitted.

Article 23: In the case of Chosen and Taiwan, separate stipulations shall be made by Imperial ordinance in regard to the provisions of Articles 11 to 13.

Supplementary Rule: The date of the enforcement of the present law shall be determined by Imperial ordinance. The present law shall be abolished within one year of the termination of the China incident.

The shipping control committee as provided in the Emergency Shipping Control Law was constituted with 33 members headed by Mr. Ryutaro Nagai, Minister of Communications, as the chairman, and the birth of the organization was promulgated on September 30.

Upon the enforcement of the above law on October 1, the authorities of the Ministry of Communications issued a statement in regard to the method of operating the law, which in substance read as follows:

Efforts will be made to promote the smooth transportation of important commodities necessary to the nation by placing the maritime traffic and transport facilities under the wartime system.

A. The transfer, etc. of ships is to be restricted.

B. The shipbuilding in Japan proper is to be promoted.

C. Foreign ships less than 17 years old (16 years old according to later modification) are to be permitted to be imported unconditionally while the importation of foreign ships exceeding the said age is to be permitted under condition that the ships shall be scrapped within specified periods.

D. Navigation of Japanese vessels between foreign ports may be put under restrictions or banned altogether when such measures are considered necessary.

Freight and charter rates are to be maintained at an equitable level as a means of checking the rising tendency of the prices of commodities.

A. The upward trend of freight and charter rates is to be restrained.

B. At the same time, adequate measures of control are to be taken in regard to the prices of newly-built ships and the prices of slightly used ships.

Endeavours are to be made to maintain the rights of Japanese to navigate along foreign routes and prevent the trespassing by foreign vessels.

A. Ships are to be put into service on various routes in conformity with their actual conditions and the present positions are to be maintained as much as possible although expansion may be impossible under the prevailing conditions.

Prudence will be used in regard to the actual operation of the Emergency Shipping Control Law.

A. Technical matters are to be studied by a committee of experts composed of 15 members to be created within the shipping control committee.

B. Co-operation of shipping interests, shipbuilding organizations, consignors, traders, marine insurance concerns and bankers is to be obtained in dealing with the current situation.

N.Y.K. Shipbuilding Plan In April, 1938, the Nippon Yusen Kaisha publish-

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ed a gigantic shipbuilding plan, according to which 21 new ships with an aggregate tonnage of 221,600 tons will be added to its great fleet in a year or so. Two passenger ships of 26,500 ton size will be constructed for the Yokohama-Sanfrancisco line, three passenger ships of 16,500 ton size for the Japan-Europe route, two passenger ships of 11,400 ton size for the Yokohama-Seattle line, two passenger ships of 11,600 ton size for the Japan-Australia line, seven cargo boats of the Akagi Maru type with a tonnage of 7,100 tons each, one passenger ship of 7,400 tons for the Japan-China line, and four cargo boats of 7,000 tons each for the Yokohama-Shanghai line. Five bigger ones are already under construction to be completed in 1939.

Agreement with Australia The Japan-Australian negotiation on sea transportation which was commenced on January 6, 1938, came to a conclusion on July 2, between the representatives of the E. A. Company and the Japanese shipowners. According to the new agreement the pool point to be given to the E.A. Company of Australia was fixed at 22.5 per cent for both ways, effective for two years beginning with July 1, the difference between the new and old agreements is that the pool point to be given to the E. A. is increased by 2.5 per cent in shipping wool and decreased by 2.5 per cent in taking Japanese miscellaneous goods on the return voyage. The term of agreement was lengthened to two years for miscellaneous goods transportation which had been fixed as one year in the previous agreement.

Predominance of the Japanese Sea Transportation in the Orient The Japanese sea transportation world is facing several difficulties in coping with the epochmaking changes in the business in the area affected by the Sino-Japanese hostilities, and yet striving for the future prosperity.

As to the ship-bottoms, the call of ships to the near seas has become urgent with the advance of months, and the tonnage of ships placed for near seas transportation increased from 2 million tons to 3.5 million tons as a result of the transfer of half a million tons from the ocean lines and the placement of newly constructed ships which aggregated to over 900,000 tons. If the bottoms of the ocean liners passing through near seas be added the total tonnage is estimated at over 4 million tons. According to the investigation made by the Japan Shipowners Club, the aggregate tonnage of ships owned by the shipowners other than the N.Y.K. and O.S.K. increased from 2,117,000 tons in June, 1937, to 3,519,000 tons in July, 1938, for near seas, while it decreased from 1,374,000 tons to 909,000 tons for ocean transportation.

Even with such an increase of tonnage the sea transportation for near seas was troubled with a shortage of bottoms and unable to meet the demand and the freight rate naturally soared. Whereupon the Autonomous Shipping Federation was organized and the federation made endeavours to check the rise in freight rates by fixing standard rates for both freight rates and charter rates on their own accord beginning with August, 1937, and revising them several times since. The fourth standard rates were 10 per cent reduction as compared with the third standard rates and the comparison between the rates in May, 1937, and those of the fourth standard rates fixed in August, 1938, was as follows:

Freight Rates

(In yen)

	May, 1937	August, 1938
Coal (Wakamatsu-Yokohama)	4.13	4.60
Coal (Muroran-Yokohama)	3.70	4.40
Karafuto timber	400.00	350.00
South Seas Iron Ore	7.70	9.50
American timber (dollars)	18.00	12.00

Charter Rates

Grade of Ship in ton	May, 1937	August, 1938
1,000	7.60	14.00
2,000	7.85	12.00
3,000	7.00	8.00
4,000	7.15	7.40
5,000	7.40	6.75
6,000	7.40	3.85
7,000	7.10	3.85
8,000	7.14	5.40
9,000	6.90	5.40

Establishment of the To-A Kaiun Kaisha For the predominance of the Japanese sea transportation in the Orient the shipowners held a general meeting in Tokyo on August 5, 1939, to establish a new corporation for carrying on sea transportation in a greater scope along the Oriental coasts by their united efforts. The new corporation is called the To-A Kaiun Kaisha, or East Asia Sea Transportation Company, capitalized

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at ¥73,000,000. The purpose of the company is to carry on sea transportation business between Japan and China, along the coasts of China, and between China and other countries; warehouse business in China and other places and other enterprises related to sea transportation. Proposed lines are Japanese ports—Tientsin, Japanese ports—Tingtao, Japanese ports—Shanghai, Japanese ports—South China ports, Formosan ports—Shanghai, Formosan ports—Tientsin, Formosan ports—South China ports, Dairen—North China ports, Tientsin—Shanghai, Tientsin—South China ports and Dairen—South China ports.

A Common Fund An extraordinary general meeting of the Japan Shipowner's Association was held in Kobe on September 28, 1938, for raising a common fund for the promotion and protection of sea transportation business. There were 64 shipowners present at the meeting presided by S. Murata of the O.S.K., and passed a decision on saving up a common fund by the cooperation of the members to promote common interests at the time of business boom and to minimize possible losses at the time of depression.

The fund amounted to approximately ¥3,000,000 in March, 1939, and it is expected to reach ¥10,000,000 by the end of the year on account of the increase of member shipowners by the reorganization of the present Japan Shipowners' Association to the Sea Transportation Association according to the provisions of the new Sea Transportation Association Law.

Subsidies for the Construction of Ships The Department of Communications filed a bill concerning the promotion of the construction of mean and small sized ships for near-sea transportation, and was approved by the Imperial Diet in the spring of 1939. The new law provides for allowing subsidies to shippowers to an aggregate sum of ¥5,200,000 in 1939-40 and ¥800,000 in 1940-41. The average rate of the subsidy shall be ¥30.00 per ton for the construction of ships with an aggregate tonnage of 200,000 tons during the coming two years.

The tonnage of mean and small sized ships owned by the shipowners in Japan which was 33.8 per cent to the total tonnage in 1932 decreased to 32.7 per cent in 1937, and the recent activities of near-sea transportation demand a greater number of these ships and the new law aims at the promotion of the construction of ships less than 5,000 tons each by the allowance of subsidies, fixing the categories of ships to three classes which are 4,300 ton ship with a maximum speed of 14 knots, 2,600 ton ship, speed 13 knots and 1,900 ton ship, speed 12 knots.

Laid-up Ship According to the investigation made by the Japan Shipowners' Association the total tonnage of the laid-up ships in the world on December 10, 1938, reached 3,217,000 tons, increasing by 29,000 tons as compared with the previous month. Details by countries follow:

	November 10, 1938	December 10, 1938
	(Unit: 1,000 tons)	
Great Britain	443	637
U. S. A.	1,348	1,348
Japan	14	14
Norway	335	168
Italy	138	168
France	181	176
Sweden	86	69
Greece	459	459
Others	184	178
Total	3,188	3,217

Standard Types of Ships The Ships Improvement Association held a general meeting on February 15, 1939, and passed a decision on the standard types of ships to be constructed in coming years according to the recommendations of the Specialist Committee which had been entrusted with a thorough study on the question for the past three years. The standard types are fixed for the rationalization of shipbuilding and the economy of sea transportation business. Details of the standard types follow:

	For Ocean Transportation			For Near-sea Transportation			
	A Type (Turbine)	A Type (Diesel)	B Type (Turbine)	C Type (Recipro.)	D Type (Recipro.)	E Type (Diesel)	F Type (Diesel)
Weight tonnage	9,300	9,240	6,840	4,250	3,000	1,250	750
Gross tonnage	6,300	6,200	4,470	2,750	1,990	850	490
Length (metre)	135.5	135.5	118.6	98.0	89.9	64.5	52.9
Width (metre)	17.8	17.8	15.8	13.7	12.5	9.5	4.2
Depth (metre)	9.8	9.8	9.0	7.6	6.5	5.0	4.2
Deep water-line	7.8	7.8	7.4	6.4	5.6	4.5	3.8

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Regulations for the Promotion of the Sea Transportation of Japan The Imperial Diet which was held early in 1939 passed three important bills for the promotion of the sea transportation business of Japan. They are the Sea Transportation Association Law, the Shipbuilding Law and the Shipbuilding Financing Law. The first law aims at the inclusion of all the shipowners in Japan in one national association in order to unify the working of ship companies by the hand of the Department of Communications, while the control of the business was formerly left to the autonomous judgments of the Japan Shipowners' Association. The second and third laws aim at the control of shipbuilding in the country so as to lower the prices of ships to the international level and to help a greater production of ships for the realization of a predominant fleet of commercial vessels on the Pacific in the near future.

Business Conditions of Shipping and Shipbuilding Companies The business conditions of principal shipowners and dockyards in 1937 and 1938 were as follows:

BUSINESS CONDITIONS OF PRINCIPAL SHIPOWERS AND DOCKYARDS IN 1937 AND 1938

(Unit: ¥1,000)

			Paid-up Capital	Reverves	Net Profit	Rate of Profit	Rate of Dividend
Nippon Yusen Kaisha	1937	A	64,250	61,622	8,456	39.0	6.0
		B	78,250	68,033	9,945	43.5	6.0
	1938	A	92,250	75,622	5,312	24.3	6.0
		B	92,250	78,837	5,590	21.6	6.0
	1939	A	92,250	80,847	8,057	26.6	7.0
Osaka Shosen Kaisha	1937	A	62,500	37,824	8,223	40.0	6.0
		B	62,500	40,848	10,999	49.5	6.0
	1938	A	62,500	41,733	10,633	49.1	6.0
		B	62,500	62,500	11,044	51.6	7.0
Toyo Kisen Kaisha	1937	A	5,781	126	160	21.7	5.0
		B	7,000	136	275	32.7	7.0
	1938	A	11,000	192	788	51.0	10.0
		B	11,000	442	994	45.3	10.0
Nisshin Kisen Kaisha	1937	A	10,125	4,266	512	19.1	3.0
		B	10,125	3,324	418	8.3	0
	1938	A	10,125	—	(−) 121	—	0
		B	10,125	—	—	—	0
Kokusai Kisen Kaisha	1937	A	20,000	—	4,756	—	—
		B	20,000	—	6,770	—	—
Mitsubishi Heavy Industry (Dockyard)	1937	A	75,000	43,037	5,299	16.3	7.0
		B	90,000	46,660	5,969	15.4	7.0
	1938	A	105,000	50,468	6,368	14.2	7.0
		B	105,000	54,736	7,448	16.6	7.0
Kawasaki Dockyard	1937	A	80,000	451	3,326	11.4	2.0
		B	80,000	618	4,414	14.1	2.0
	1938	A	80,000	839	4,545	14.4	2.0
		B	80,000	1,067	4,470	14.2	2.0
Uraga Dockyard	1937	A	9,000	3,531	993	31.8	8.0
		B	11,000	3,962	1,116	32.3	8.0
	1938	A	11,000	4,413	1,320	31.3	8.0
		B	11,000	5,029	1,381	32.4	10.0
Ishikawajima Dockyard	1937	A	14,000	835	637	27.1	8.0
		B	14,000	1,060	663	23.3	8.0
	1938	A	14,000	1,315	899	22.7	8.0
		B	20,000	1,654	1,013	22.5	8.0

Note: A denotes the first half and B the second half of the year.

Principal Shipowners The following table shows the principal shipping companies and the number and total tonnage as owned by each of the interests.

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PRINCIPAL SHIPOWNERS IN JAPAN AND THEIR REGISTERED TONNAGE

(June, 1938)

Owner	Location	Number of Ships	Total Tonnage
Nippon Yusen Kaisha	Tokyo	90	660,354
Osaka Shosen Kaisha	Osaka	121	537,415
Kokusai Kisen Kaisha	Tokyo	22	160,030
Mitsui Bussan Kaisha	,,	36	143,851
Kinkai Yusen Kaisha	,,	47	154,882
Yamashita Kisen Kaisha	Kobe	32	182,935
Kawasaki Kisen Kaisha	,,	21	92,587
Nippon Fishery Company	Tokyo	98	82,427
Kuribayashi Shosen Kaisha	Muroran	19	64,891
Toyo Kisen Kaisha	Tokyo	15	78,709
Kawasaki Dockyard Company	Kobe	9	56,335
Tatsuma Kisen Kaisha	Nishinomiya	15	62,550
Kita-Nippon Kisen Kaisha	Otomari in Karafuto	35	77,862
Ministry of Railways	Tokyo	30	64,592
Nanyo Kaiun Kaisha	Tokyo	11	54,615
Nisshin Kisen Kaisha	Tokyo	23	45,780
Dairen Kisen Kaisha	Dairen	54	184,823
Chosen Yusen Kaisha	Keijo (Seoul)	25	50,653

Ships under Construction According to a survey conducted by the Ministry of Communications, there were at the end of September, 1938, a total of 176 ships of more than 1,000 tons each, involving a total tonnage of 392,795 tons, which were under construction.

Laid-up Ships. The following table which is based on a survey conducted by the Ministry of Communications shows the changes in the conditions of laid-up ships in the principal harbours in the country.

LAID-UP SHIPS IN PRINCIPAL PORTS

	Steam-ships	Sailing-ships	Total
January, 1939			
Number	169	104	273
Tonnage	7,604	4,895	12,499
October, 1938			
Number	154	92	246
Tonnage	9,223	4,553	13,776
October, 1937			
Number	178	124	302
Tonnage	9,657	5,829	15,486

LIST OF LARGE N. Y. K. VESSELS

	Tonnage:	Passenger Accommodation:			
	Gross	1st Class	Cabin Class	2nd Class	Tourist Cabin
M.S. Kamakura Maru	17,526	243	—	95	—
M.S. Asama Maru	16,975	239	—	96	—
M.S. Tatuta Maru	16,975	239	—	96	—
S.S. Taiyo Maru	14,458	—	91	—	241
M.S. Terukuni Maru	11,931	121	—	68	—
M.S. Yasukuni Maru	11,933	119	—	68	—
M.S. Hikawa Maru	11,622	—	76	—	69
M.S. Hié Maru	11,621	—	76	—	69
M.S. Heian Maru	11,615	—	76	—	69
S.S. Husimi Maru	10,936	84	—	38	—
S.S. Suwa Maru	10,672	83	—	38	—
S.S. Haruna Maru	10,421	83	—	40	—
S.S. Hakone Maru	10,420	83	—	40	—
S.S. Hakozaki Maru	10,413	83	—	40	—
S.S. Hakusan Maru	10,380	85	—	40	—
S.S. Kasima Maru	9,908	74	—	34	—
S.S. Katori Maru	9,849	74	—	34	—
M.S. Heiyō Maru	9,816	42	—	—	80
S.S. Yamato Maru	9,656	61	—	217	—

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	Tonnage: Gross	Passenger Accommodation: 1st Class	Cabin Class	2nd Class	Tourist Cabin
S.S. Rakuyō Maru	9,419	42	—	—	51
S.S. Asahi Maru	9,327	63	—	220	—
S.S. Anyō Maru	9,257	—	24	—	47
S.S. Huzi Maru	9,130	38	—	165	—
S.S. Yosino Maru	8,990	18	—	177	—
S.S. Ginyō Maru	8,613	—	20	—	37
S.S. Atuta Maru	7,983	57	—	14	—
S.S. Kamo Maru	7,955	53	—	14	—
S.S. Kitano Maru	7,952	57	—	14	—
Ships under Constraction					
S.S. Kasiwara Maru	28,000	220	—	120	—
S.S. Izumo Maru	28,000	220	—	120	—
S.S. Nitta Maru	16,500	127	—	88	—
S.S. Yawata Maru	16,500	127	—	88	—
S.S. Kasuga Maru	16,500	127	—	88	—

LIST OF LARGE O. S. K. SHIPS

	Gross Tonnage	Nominal Horse Power	Year Constructed
S.S. Arizona	9,684	5,500	1920
M.S. Rio de Janeiro	9,627	5,000	1929
M.S. Buenos Aires	9,626	5,000	,,
M.S. La Plata	7,267	3,800	1925
M.S. Santos	7,267	3,800	1925
M.S. Montevideo	7,267	3,800	1926
S.S. Arabia	9,480	5,500	1918
S.S. Africa	9,476	5,500	,,
S.S. Manila	9,486	5,600	1915
S.S. Hawaii	9,467	4,800	1915
S.S. Horai	9,192	7,400	1912
S.S. Mizuho	8,506	6,400	,,
S.S. Takachiho	8,154	7,100	1933
M.S. Argentina	12,755	16,500	1939

LIST OF KOKUSAI LINERS

	Deadweight Capacity Tons	Main Diesel Engine B.H.P.	Maximum Speed Knots
M.V. Kagu Maru	9,206	7,000	19.7
M.V. Kano Maru	9,689	7,600	19.4
M.V. Kasii Maru	9,240	7,000	19.6
M.V. Katuragi Maru	9,581	6,000	18.0
M.V. Kinka Maru	10,096	9,200	23.6
M.V. Kinryu Maru	10,142	9,200	21.0
M.V. Kinugasa Maru	9,199	7,000	19.3
M.V. Kirisima Maru	9,781	6,000	18.3
M.V. Kiyosumi Maru	9,849	7,600	19.7
M.V. Komaki Maru	9,779	7,600	19.6
M.V. Kongo Maru	9,801	7,600	19.7
M.V. Kurama Maru	10,294	4,050	17.0

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SHIPS REGISTERED IN THE EMPIRE

(On September 30, 1938)

Steamships

Tonnage	Japan Proper No.	Japan Proper Gross tons	Korea No.	Korea Gross tons	Formosa No.	Formosa Gross tons	Kwantung No.	Kwantung Gross tons	Total No.	Total Gross tons
20- 100	1,898	85,797	556	24,220	128	6,276	54	2,925	2,636	119,218
100- 500	715	173,587	58	12,517	14	3,091	23	5,775	813	194,970
500- 1,000	223	166,435	7	4,882	1	768	5	3,673	236	175,758
1,000- 3,000	409	774,074	21	41,171	—	—	22	41,719	452	856,964
3,000- 6,000	427	1,916,191	4	13,393	—	—	39	172,595	470	2,102,179
6,000-10,000	205	1,536,306	—	—	—	—	5	33,291	210	1,569,597
over 10,000	25	320,946	—	—	—	—	—	—	25	320,946
Total	3,905	4,973,336	646	96,183	143	10,135	148	259,978	4,842	5,339,632

Sailing Ships

20- 100	14,142	658,217	1,067	39,739	35	2,209	284	13,063	15,528	713,228
100- 500	2,227	317,646	15	1,948	8	1,141	5	777	2,255	321,512
500-1,000	4	2,229	—	—	—	—	—	—	4	2,229
over 1,000	4	9,507	—	—	—	—	—	—	4	9,507
Totol	16,377	987,599	1,082	41,687	43	3,350	289	13,840	17,791	1,046,476

Other Sailing Ships Measured In Koku

(10 koku counted as one ton)

Koku										
200- 500	76	21,862	—	—	—	—	—	—	76	21,862
500-1,000	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
over 1,000	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Total	76	21,862	—	—	—	—	—	—	76	21,862
Grand Total	20,358	5,963,121	1,728	137,870	186	13,485	437	273,818	22,709	6,388,294

REGISTERED SHIPS IN JAPAN PROPER

(Since 1870)

End of	Steamers No.	Steamers Gross tons	Sailing Ships No.	Sailing Ships Gross tons	Other Sailing Ships Measured in Koku No.	Other Sailing Ships Measured in Koku Gross tons	Total No.	Total Gross tons
1870	35	24,997	11	2,611	—	—	46	27,608
1882	198	64,313	399	51,684	—	—	597	115,997
1892	375	157,147	239	34,163	—	—	614	191,310
1897	626	426,624	171	27,412	—	—	797	454,036
1902	1,033	605,122	3,591	329,839	1,260	548,422	5,884	989,803
1907	1,574	1,109,444	4,210	357,275	1,168	442,399	6,952	1,510,959
1912	1,981	1,430,329	6,443	441,039	1,671	554,834	10,095	1,926,851
1916	2,159	1,696,631	9,314	585,593	1,171	380,116	12,644	2,320,236
1921	2,955	3,167,737	14,280	960,947	830	264,419	18,065	4,155,126
1926	3,246	3,607,038	14,184	873,468	564	177,073	17,994	4,498,213
1930	3,351	3,907,908	15,380	896,272	367	117,041	19,098	4,815,884
1932	3,308	3,874,619	15,038	867,658	308	97,060	18,654	4,752,283
1933	3,295	3,780,197	14,981	862,846	275	87,401	18,551	4,752,283
1934	3,365	3,811,773	15,062	874,935	229	71,623	18,656	4,693,870
1935	3,471	3,862,942	15,289	900,792	154	48,047	18,914	4,768,538
1936	3,602	4,034,284	15,687	930,322	97	29,316	19,385	4,967,532
1937	3,737	4,421,648	16,262	965,961	78	22,596	20,077	5,389,868
1938 (Sept.)	3,905	4,973,336	16,377	987,599	76	21,862	20,358	5,963,121

Shipbuilding Yards At the end of 1937, private shipbuilding yards capable of building ships of more than 20 tons numbered 894, those capable of building ships of more than 100 tons numbered 323, and those capable of building

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ships of more than 1,000 tons numbered 40, making a total of 1,257.

SHIPS LAUNCHED DURING 1937:

(Ships smaller than 100 tons omitted)

Steamers	Number	160
	Tonnage	444,956
Sailing ships	Number	112
	Tonnage	15,495
Total	Number	272
	Tonnage	460,451

SHIPS BUILT AT PRIVATE YARDS

		Steam Boats		Sailing Boats	
	No. of Private Yards	No.	Gross tons	No.	Gross Tons
1897	81	112	12,431	66	4,391
1907	224	76	28,838	220	16,841
1912	228	168	48,155	372	28,899
1916	219	94	144,024	519	45,831
1920	352	69	226,081	12	1,711
1926	324	27	51,303	5	560
1930	430	49	148,382	11	5,849
1932	531	46	56,084	20	2,679
1933	559	39	75,907	28	3,913
1934	588	78	141,856	99	13,004
1935	697	94	132,365	101	13,536
1936	793	133	293,285	107	14,382
1937	1,257	160	444,956	112	15,495

Note: Figures for 1926 and after do not include boats smaller than 100 tons.

HOLDERS OF CERTIFICATE OF COMPETENCY AS MARINERS

End of	Japanese	Foreigners	Total
1882	1,901	325	2,226
1912	26,139	351	26,490
1916	33,976	351	34,327
1921	45,775	349	46,124
1926	60,154	132	60,286
1930	76,787	132	76,919
1932	89,177	132	89,309
1933	92,751	132	92,883
1934	96,469	132	96,601
1935	101,370	132	101,502
1936	106,080	132	106,212
1937	110,797	132	110,929
1938(June)	113,509	132	113,641

HOLDERS OF MARINERS' SERVICE BOOK

End of	Japanese	Foreigners	Total
1902	79,753	774	80,527
1907	164,293	1,109	165,402
1912	206,806	1,889	208,695
1916	254,597	2,853	256,950
1921	357,174	5,000	362,174
1930	212,917	4,823	217,740
1932	233,910	5,098	239,008
1933	175,251	2,877	178,128
1934	166,693	2,218	168,911
1935	186,437	2,287	188,724
1936	205,849	2,366	208,215
1937	235,785	2,423	238,208

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CHAPTER XXVII

JUSTICE AND POLICE

Judicature

The Judicature's Position

Since the promulgation of the Japanese Constitution in 1889, the right of the sovereignty of the Emperor has been divided into the three distinct departments, of legislation, judicature and administration.

In accordance with Article 57 of the Constitution, "the Judicature shall be exercised by the Courts of Law according to law, in the name of the Emperor." Judges are appointed from among those possessing such qualifications as are determined by law and they are guaranteed by the Constitution against being deprived of their positions unless by way of criminal sentence or disciplinary punishment. Not only are the judges guaranteed their positions, but they have authority in exercising judicial power to judge on their own independent views, using the statutes as the sole standard of judgment without being in any way swayed by interference from others and unaffected by authority arising from any quarter.

Since the judges are entirely independent of the administration the results of judicial decisions are equally independent thereof, and the decisions are not affected by the administrative power except in cases of pardon or provisional release.

Composition of the Courts

In Japan, the ordinary Courts of Law for the adjudication of civil and criminal cases consist of (1) Local Courts (Ku-Saibansho), (2) District Courts (Chiho-Saibansho), (3) Courts of Appeal (Koso-in), and (4) the Supreme Court (Tai-shin-in). The Local Courts, the Courts of Appeal and the Supreme Court are all collegiate courts with special divisions, in each of which sit a number of judges.

Local Courts The Local Courts are presided over by single judges. A three instance system is adopted in the adjudication of all ordinary cases, and any one may lodge an appeal against a judgment rendered in the first instance and demand revision of that rendered in the second instance.

In the matter of civil cases, the Local Courts possess judicial power to adjudicate on the following matters in the first instance :

1. Demands for money less than 1,000 yen or for articles, the value of which is less than 1,000 yen.

2. The following cases irrespective of value :

(a) Legal actions brought by lessors against lessees, or vice versa, for the receipt, vacation, use, occupation or repair of houses or other buildings or parts thereof, or for the seizure of the furniture and fixtures or belongings of lessees by lessors.

(b) Legal actions only concerning the boundaries of real estates.

(c) Legal actions only concerning occupations.

(d) Legal actions brought by employers against employees, or vice versa, for contracts of employment, the terms of which do not exceed one year.

(e) Legal actions brought by travellers against hotel or inn keepers, or vice versa, for matters concerning board or lodging, or by travellers against water or land forwarding agents, or vice versa.

(f) Matters concerning bankruptcy.

In criminal cases, the Local Courts, as the courts of law for adjudication in the first instance, possess judicial power concerning the following matters, provided they have not been subjected to preliminary examination :

1. Offences punishable with detention or fine.

2. Offences punishable with penal servitude, imprisonment for fixed terms or by imposition of fines, except those punishable with penal servitude or imprisonment for more than one year.

District Courts In civil cases, the District Courts possess judicial power concerning the following matters:

1. In the first instance :

Demands other than those falling under the jurisdiction of the Local Courts or of the Courts of Appeal.

2. In the second instance :

(a) Appeals lodged against judgments rendered by the Local Courts;

(b) Demands determined by law for revision of decisions or orders render-

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ed by the Local Courts.

Further, with reference to criminal cases, the District Courts possess judicial power concerning the following matters:

1. In the first instance:

Criminal cases falling neither under the jurisdiction of the Local Courts nor under the special jurisdiction of the Supreme Court.

2. In the second instance:

(a) Appeals lodged against judgments rendered by the Local Courts;

(b) Complaints determined by law against decisions or orders rendered by the Local Courts, except those falling under the jurisdiction of the Supreme Court.

Courts of Appeal The Courts of Appeal possess judicial power concerning the following matters:

1. Appeals lodged against judgments rendered in the first instance by the District Courts.

2. Complaints determined by law against decisions or orders rendered in the first instance by the District Courts, except those falling under the jurisdiction of the Supreme Court.

Powers to adjudicate in the first and second instances in civil cases brought against the members of the Imperial Family belong to the Tokyo Court of Appeal.

The Supreme Court The Supreme Court (Taishin-in) is the highest court of law and possesses judicial power concerning the following matters:

1. In the final instance:

(a) Appeals against judgments rendered by the lower courts;

(b) Complaints determined by law against decisions or orders rendered in the second instance by the District Courts or by the Courts of Appeal;

(c) Complaints against decisions to reject appeals made by the Local or District Courts.

2. In the first, and at the same time, final instance: Preliminary examination and adjudication of offences against the Imperial House, offences of internal disturbance, and offences committed by members of the Imperial Family, for which punishment heavier than imprisonment should be imposed.

Public Procurators

A public procurator's office, with the necessary number of procurators, is attached to each court. The work of the public procurator is, in accordance with the code of criminal precedure, to take legal actions, to go on with necessary legal proceedings, to demand a right application of the law, and to observe the right execution of a judgment. According to the code of civil procedure, he also has rights to ask for a report whenever he thinks it necessary and present his opinions to the court on it, and as a representative of public welfare he carries out his supervising business as laid down by the law in all judicial and administrative matters related to the court. But the public procurator acts absolutely independently of the court.

Court Officials and Procurators

Qualifications Candidates for the office of judge or procurator are chosen by the Minister of Justice from among those who have passed the higher judicial service examination. The selected candidates then have to serve a term of over one and a half years of probation in the courts or in a public procurator's office and pass a further examination, after which, should the report on their estimated ability be favourable, they will receive an appointment as judge or procurator. But those who have been professors of law in the Imperial Universities or lawyers of over three years standing can be appointed as judges or public procurators without examination and estimation.

The following are not to be appointed as either judges or public procurators.

(1) Those who have been convicted of a grave crime, with the exception of those political offenders who have been rehabilitated.

(2) Those who have served sentences on minor offences.

(3) Those who have been adjudicated bankrupt and could not be exempted from the responsibility.

Position of Judges and Public Procurators Judges are permanent officials appointed by His Majesty directly, or by His Majesty's order indirectly, or by His Majesty's approval, according to the grade of their position. Unless by way of criminal sentence or disciplinary punishment judges are not to be moved to another post or place, be suspended from office, be deprived of position, or receive a reduction of salary, without their consent, except in so far as the Minister of Justice may order retirement from service by the decision of a general meeting of the Court of Appeal or the Supreme Court on account of disability caused through weakness of body or mind.

The retiring age is for the President of the Supreme Court 65 years, and for other judges 63 years.

The public procurators are appointed by His Majesty directly or by His

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Majesty's order indirectly or by His Majesty's approval. Unless by way of criminal sentence or disciplinary punishment the public procurators are not to be deprived of their positions against their own will.

The Procurator-General at the age of 65 years and all other public procurators at 63 years of age must retire from service. A public procurator must obey the orders of higher authorities and judicial policemen must obey the orders issued by the public procurators or through them within the district of jurisdiction of the public procurator's office.

The Jury System

In 1923 the Jury Law was issued, and Japan finally adopted the jury system under which persons other than judges are allowed to take part in criminal trials. The jury system is used in such criminal cases as where the punishment may be capital, or penal servitude or imprisonment for life. Other criminal cases in which the sentence may be penal servitude or imprisonment for a term longer than 3 years are tried by jury only upon demand of the accused and when they come within the jurisdiction of the District Courts. The following cases are not submitted to trial by jury:

(1) Offences which come under the special authority of the Supreme Court.

(2) Offences against the Imperial House, causing an internal disturbance, helping an enemy, disturbing international relations, and sedition.

(3) Violations of the Peace Maintenance Law.

(4) Violations of the Military Secrets Preservation Law, the Army or Navy Criminal Laws or any other offences in connection with military secrets.

(5) Violations of the Public Election Laws.

The accused can refuse to have his case tried by jury or withdraw his own demand to be tried by jury at any time previous to the statement of the case by the public procurator, under which circumstances the case cannot be referred to a jury.

The jury is composed of 12 men. At the trial, the chief judge, after having heard all the evidence for and against the accused, sums up the facts and main points of the case, and charges the jury to deliberate and render its verdict by a majority vote. The verdict must be a simple statement as to guilt or otherwise. If the court considers the verdict improper the case may be referred to another jury.

In a case where sentence has been passed on a jury's verdict of guilt, no appeal can be made to the Court of Appeal, but a demand for revision may be presented to the Supreme Court.

Penal System

History It was in the time of the Empress Suiko, 620 A.D., that the first written Penal Code was issued in Japan. The code was very simple, but later the Chinese penal code, the "To", was introduced and the Japanese code was drafted in a more systematic manner and promulgated by the Emperor Mommu, in 702, as the "Taiho Ritsu-Ryo." Five kinds of punishment were mentioned, namely, flogging, whipping, penal servitude, exile, and death, but in most cases these could be varied to confiscation of property or payment of a fine. Grave crimes were treason, atrocities, blasphemy, undutifulness to one's parents, adultery, etc. Confession of the accused was required as a necessary procedure of a criminal suit, and naturally torture was recognized as an indispensable means of obtaining such a confession. Several hundred years after the issuance of the Taiho Ritsu-Ryo the Shogunate Governments adopted extremely terroristic penal systems with the purpose of preventing the occurrence of criminal cases. One of the most important of them was the One Hundred Criminal Regulations of the Tokugawa Shogunate. It was a secret criminal code which was not published and was accessible to the judges only, an expression of the despotism of the ruling class that had as its motto, "leave the people ignorant of the niceties of law."

With the downfall of the Tokugawa Shogunate the Great Emperor Meiji abolished the system of intimidation and reformed the old penal code. The codification of Civil Law was carried on under the advice of Monsieur Gustave Boissonade, a French scholar of jurisprudence who was invited to Japan for that purpose. A new Penal Code and Criminal Procedure Law, the characteristics of which were that, "though the lawful punishment of criminals is assured, the penalties are tempered with sympathy toward the accused and are in no ways severe," were enacted and promulgated. "No crime shall be punished unless there is a regulation in the law," (nullum crimen et nulla poena sine lege). is one of the guiding principles of the code, which was formulated on the French penal code of 1810. Within a few years it was found that the new code was out of date and various amendments were discussed from 1884 to 1907, in

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which year a thorough revision was made and the present Penal Code issued. Since then the social conditions of the people have undergone rapid changes, more advanced theories regarding penalties have been gaining ground and so many defects have been noticed in the present code, that in 1926 the Extraordinary Legislative Committee passed a resolution that the Penal Code should be revised. A special investigation committee set to work and in 1931 an outline and draft of a revised penal code and prison law was drawn up. It is expected that the thorough study of the draft that is now going on will soon be completed.

Penalties Penalties are divided into six kinds, namely, the death penalty, penal servitude, imprisonment, monetary penalties, custody, and fines. Confiscation is recognized as an additional punishment. The death penalty is by hanging and is carried out in prison. Penal servitude and imprisonment are for limited terms and for life; limited terms extend from one month to 15 years. Under penal servitude labour is compulsory, but a prisoner serving a term of imprisonment is not compelled to work, though he may be allowed to do so at his own request. A monetary penalty is 20 yen and above, unless made lighter on decision. Custody is from one to under 30 days, and a fine is from 10 sen to less than 20 yen. Those who cannot pay monetary penalties and fines are kept in workouses as an alternative.

Suspension of Sentence and Provisional Release The present penal law allows probation. The execution of a penalty often leads to self-abandonment and turns comparatively harmless people, who are not yet addicted to criminal deeds, into habitual jail-birds. This is found to be especially so when the penalty is one of penal servitude for a short time, and it is, therefore, far better for people convicted of light and incidental offences to be excused from the real infliction of the penalty under special conditions and to be given proper admonitions in order to make them repentant by self-examination. Consequently, the Japanese courts are empowered, under certain conditions, to postpone the execution of sentence for from one to five years, beginning with the day of the sentence and according to the nature and condition of the case, on persons sentenced to penal servitude or imprisonment for less than 2 years.

Probation is cancelled (1) when the probationer, during the time of probation, commits another offence and is sentenced to imprisonment or is given a heavier sentence, (2) when the probationer is sentenced to imprisonment or a heavier penalty is imposed because of some other crime committed before the granting of probation, and (3) when, in cases not mentioned above, the probationer is found to have had at some previous time a sentence of imprisonment or some other heavier penalty inflicted on him. Should the term of probation expire without being revoked the sentence is automatically cancelled thereby. The draft of the penal code of 1931, besides confirming the system of probation, admits the principle of postponement of passing sentence in specially pitiable cases of a non-serious nature.

Release on parole was practised as early as 1790 in the House of Correction at Ishikawajima, Yédo; the present law admits it and it is widely practised. As reformation is one of the chief aims of punishment, when convicts are evidently repentant and there is no fear of their committing further crimes, it is unnecessary to continue the punishment. Therefore, it is stated in the present Penal Code, "when the convicts who are under penal servitude or imprisonment are found to be evidently repentant, provisional release may be authorized by the administrative office after they have finished one-third of the limited term or ten years of the term for life" (Article 28).

Provisional release may be cancelled (1) when the persons on parole have committed another offence during the term of the release and have been sentenced to a monetary or heavier penalty, or (2) when they are sentenced to a monetary or heavier penalty because of some other offence committed before the provisional release, or (3) when they were sentenced to a monetary or heavier penalty because of another offence committed before the provisional release and that penalty must now be fulfilled, or (4) when they break the provisional release rules. In this case the rest of the term of sentence must be served.

The China Affair and the Released Those who are released on probation on the strength of this system continue to increase in number year after year. In 1936, those released totalled more than 5,300. When the North China Incident broke out in 1937, many convicts received orders for military service, and steps were taken speedily to release on probation many of them who were found fit both mentally and physically for service in the army in order to give them the opportuniy of doing their duty as soldiers of the Empire.

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Feeling sincerely grateful to the Throne for the privilege thus extended, these soldiers departed valiantly for the front much to the admiration of those who were acquainted with the circumstances. This episode may be remembered as an instance of no small import in connection with penal administration.

Juvenile Criminals Article 27 of the Code of Criminal Procedure says, "public suit may not be instituted when the suit is found unnecessary because of the character of the criminal, his age and environment, the condition of his crime and his behaviour after the incident," and leaves the decision as to whether proceedings should be taken to the public prourator. The existing criminal system of Japan is thus inclined to some extent to subjectivism, putting emphasis on the offender himself rather than on the offence. Its evident expression is found in dealing with young offenders. According to the provisions of the Juvenile Criminal Law, 1922, young boys or girls who are under 18 years of age are called juveniles and their offences are dealt with, not under the penalty system, but by a system of protection. Even when they are punished, the penalty is inflicted in a special way. Protective measures are (1) to give admonitions, (2) to leave them to the guidance of school principals, (3) to let them solemnly declare their sincere repentance in a written statement, (4) to place them, under certain conditions, in the care of their parents, (5) to place them under the care of temples, churches, protective bodies or other proper persons, (6) to hand them over to the care of the juvenile probation officers, (7) to send them to reformatories, (8) to send them to houses of correction, and (9) to put them under proper treatment in hospitals. These measures may be continued till the juveniles reach the age of 23 years. When juveniles are admitted to probation or provisional release they are not put under police supervision as is the case with the adults, but are left to the care of the juvenile probation officers. For the protective disposition of juvenile offenders juvenile courts have been established.

Special Measures for Juveniles Special measures for the penal punishment of juvenile offenders are :

(1) The death penalty or penal servitude for life is not inflicted upon a person who is under 16 when the crime is committed. When the crime is so grave that the death penalty or penal servitude for life should be passed, the sentence is mitigated to penal servitude or imprisonment for 10-15 years.

(2) When a juvenile criminal should be sentenced to penal servitude or imprisonment for more than three years at its maximum, the minimum and the maximum limits are fixed within the scope of the penalty to be inflicted on the crime committed. And when he should be sentenced to imprisonment for more than 5 years at its minimum, the term is diminished to 5 years. That is to say, in case of a juvenile convict an indeterminate sentence is admitted.

(3) Juveniles sentenced to penal servitude or imprisonment are put in a special jail or in a section of the common prison secluded from adults. If they reach the age of 18 during the term of confinement they may still be kept secluded till they reach the age of 23.

(4) Juveniles sentenced to penal servitude or imprisonment can obtain provisional release (a) after 7 years in case of a life-term sentence, (b) after 3 years in case of (1) above mentioned, (c) after serving one-third of the time in case of (2) above.

(5) Juveniles are not sent to work houses.

The China Affair and Juvenile Offenders The work of the juvenile courts, with the collaboration of the allied institutions, has since made remarkable progress and each year over ten thousand children come under its attention, the majority of whom after the regimen of discipline come forth regenerated as dutiful and willing members of society. The importance of juvenile protection has never been appreciated more keenly than at this time of long-term construction. In some instances, the delinquents themselves are practising strict thrift in order to be able to use the savings for the consolation of soldiers at the front or in the hospitals. In other instances, they are rendering service by working for the homes of soldiers at the front, making the premises of shrines clean, or joining in public services. Furthermore during 1938, as many as 162 of the regenerated youths entered the military service. There will be many more of them this year. One of these has become an aviator and already holds a brilliant record as a pilot; another has been a recipient of commendation for valour and exemplary conduct. Some of those who have failed to become soldiers have gone to the continent to till the soil; in fact last year 176 persons expressed the same desire and 53 of them are already at their work in the land of promise. Many others have

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received mechanical and other technical training and have found employment in industries which are in line with home-front measures.

Second and Habitual Offenders

In case of those who repeat criminal deeds and commit other offences, especially in the case of professional and habitual offenders, it is necessary to put them into confinement for considerable lengths of time in order to give them time to reform their character and at the same time protect society at large from their depravations. To deal with these people Japanese criminal law provides a system of aggravating penalties for the recidivists and admits special dealing with habitual thieves as a complementary system.

Repetitious Offenders (Art. 56–59, Penal Code) When a person commits another crime and is sentenced to limited penal servitude within five years from the day of release from former penal servitude or from remission of execution of a penalty, he is classified as a second offender. Under the name of repetitious offenders come all second offenders and up. The cases of remission of penal execution are extinction of prescription, special pardon and the case stated in the Penal Code, Art. 5. Amnesty and probation not only remit penal execution, but cancel the effect of the penalty altogether, and the crimes concerned cannot be taken as the basis for forming a repetitious offence. Again, when a person commits a crime during a term of probation the offence for which the probation was admitted is not counted as the first offence. The penalty inflicted on a repetitious offender is aggravated.

Habitual Thieves Habitual offenders are most numerous in burglary and larceny cases. The habitual offenders often regard prison as their residence and repeat crimes immediately after their release, to the great harm of the community, in order to get back "home". They have, therefore, to be separated from society by the infliction of comparatively long sentences. In many cases it has been impossible to increase the penalty, or when it has been increased it has still been too short, and as there is no provision in the existing Penal Code for unlimited imprisonment the Thief Prevention Law was enacted in 1930. According to this law, when persons commit burglary or larceny habitually by the use of weapons, or by forming a band of more than two, or stealthily breaking into houses by night, they are punished by being sent to penal servitude for more than 2 years in the case of a thief and more than 7 years in that of a burglar. The draft of the revised penal law of 1931 adopts the system of incarceration for unlimited terms for habitual offenders (Draft, Article 91–95).

Peace Preservation

Penalties are imposed as deterrents, but are not always effective, especially in the case of insane people and habitual drunkards, as well as in that of habitual offenders. For that reason it is advisable that, in addition to meting out punishment for any wrong-doings, it should be possible to segregate such people from law-abiding society. To meet this need, most of the countries of the world have a supplementary system of Peace Preservation Laws, which restrict to a certain extent the freedom of released persons as long as their dangerous character is unimproved. In Japan the existing Penal Code makes no provision for such a system, but the draft of 1931 suggests four kinds of peace preservation regulations, namely, preventive surveillance, curative treatment, compulsory labour, and preventive detention.

Surveillance When persons who are defective in mind or body or are deaf-and-dumb are to be sentenced to imprisonment or some heavier penalty, the Court can decide to place them under surveillance. In case the sentence has already been passed for one reason or other, surveillance will follow the execution of the sentence, but in some cases it may be carried out before the commencement of execution or at any time during its course, (draft, Art. 127). Those who are put under this measure are to be kept in the surveillance house and receive treatment for their defectiveness, while being under surveillance. They may be released when further surveillance is found unnecessary by order of the administrative offices. In principle the time of surveillance is 5 years, but this may be renewed by the Court when thought necessary. When the sentence and the surveillance disposition are pronounced at the same time, the Court may choose either one of them as one of the two became unnecessary by the enforcement of the other.

Curative Treatment When drunkards or users of narcotics commit offences while in a state of intoxication or insensibility and it is found necessary to correct them of their bad habits, the Court may order them to be kept in Homes of Correction for a period of 2 years and receive proper curative treat-

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ment.

Compulsory Labour When persons who habitually commit crimes because of vagrancy or hatred of labour are to be sentenced, the Court may order compulsory labour together with the regular sentence for a period of 3 years, during which time they are to be kept in compulsory labour houses and compelled to work diligently under strict discipline in order to acquire the good habit of work. The chief official of the labour house may send them to work for the Government or to public or private factories, to farms or other places of labour, allowing them to stay outside the Compulsory Labour Houses, if deemed expedient.

Preventive Detention When the convicts who are to be released at the expiration of a term of penal servitude are found to be addicting to incendiarism or likely to commit murder or burglary, the Court may order them to undergo preventive detention, (draft, Art, 139). They are to be kept in Houses of Prevention and get the treatment necessary for leading them to full repentance. The duration of the treatment is 2 years in principle, but may be prolonged by the Court. This measure is to take effect after the expiration of the regular term of penal servitude, (Draft, Art. 140–142).

Criminal Thought Offence The Communist movement in this country has, since two or three years ago, been heading for its end and ruin on account of various factors, both internal and external, including the enforcement of a strict policy of the Government for rounding of the Communists and the enhancement of the national spirit brought about by the outbreak of the Manchurian Incident. The conditions, however, still remain such that no optimism can be warranted in regard to the future of the Communist movement.

The number of arrests made on charges of violation of the Peace Preservation Law since 1928 has exceeded 60,000 person. Of these, more than 10,000 persons have been granted a reprieve in their indictment or a stay of execution of this sentence, have served their sentence or have been released on bail. The minds of these men are of divers trends at present; some of them have recanted, others, are of a very ambiguous turn of mind, making it impossible to judge whether they are going to change their minds or not, while still others seem to embrace rebellious ideas.

It goes without saying that those who have not yet changed their minds are liable to repeat their offence or commit similar ones. Even some of those who have already changed their minds may again commit some offence under the influence of their environment or because of social conditions unless some preventive measures are taken, in view of the fact that "thought" offences are attributable largely to social conditions. It is an urgent need, therefore, under the current situation both at home and abroad, that a prudential policy should be established for the termination of the rebellious movement by preventing repetition of similar offences in the future. The necessity is keenly felt for the establishment of adequate facilities to encourage those who have not yet changed their minds or who have changed their minds only partially to effect a complete change and at the same time enable those whose minds have been completely changed to lead a legitimate and orderly life no matter how social conditions may change in the future. It is in this necessity that the reason is found for the adoption of the protection and surveillance system.

Protection and Surveillance System The new rule which involves the creation of protection and surveillance stations and the establishment of a protection and surveillance commission is aimed at protecting persons who have once committed "thought" offences and preventing them from repeating the crime. It not only calls for placing old offenders under surveillance but aims at giving them positive guidance in order that they will not commit similar offences and will walk in the path of rectitude. This positive nature of the new system is expected to help in bringing about the defeat of Communism and elevating the Japanese spirit through encouraging those on the way of changing their minds to forge ahead, and assisting those who have already done so to earn a living. It constitutes an important link in the national "thought" defence line on the strength of its mission towards the preservation of peace and public order by preventing "thought" offences on the one hand and on the other by serving to elevate and clarify the essential spirit of the nation.

Objectives of the New System The objectives of the protection and surveillance system are limited to persons who have committed offences in the light of the Peace Preservation Law. Offenders of other kinds do not come within its scope. Only those who have been granted a reprieve in indictment by the public prosecutor, or a stay of execution of their sentence by the law court, or

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who have been released on bail, or who have served their term, are placed under protection and surveillance. The invocation of this rule, however, must be made with the approval of the Protection and Surveillance Commission which is under the control of the Minister of Justice, and in such cases where the commission adopts a resolution against the invocation, the rule cannot be invoked.

Organs and Procedure The new system is enforced through the operation of 22 protection and surveillance stations throughout the country and a protection and surveillance commission. These stations are independent offices and are located in Tokyo, Yokohama, Mito, Mayebashi, Shizuoka, Nagano, Niigata, Osaka, Kyoto, Kobe, Takamatsu, Nagoya, Kanazawa, Hiroshima, Okayama, Fukuoka, Kumamoto, Sendai, Akita, Aomori, Sapporo and Hakodate and their staffs are composed of guiding officials, protecting officials and secretaries.

The guiding officials take charge of directing and supervising the protection and surveillance business and as such may be regarded as the central machinery of the protection and surveillance stations. The protecting officials conduct the enquiry and surveillance business under instructions from the station masters, who are selected from among the guiding officials. There are at present 33 whole-time protecting officials over all the country and the Minister of Justice may commission other suitable persons as part-time officials.

The protection and surveillance stations are to be notified by the authorities concerned when some "thought" offenders have been granted a reprieve in indictment, a stay of execution of their sentence, have been released on bail, or have left prison after serving their term. Upon receipt of such a notification, the station concerned must immediately institute an investigation into the career, environment, mental and physical condition, and changes in thought and other relative affairs of the person in question. In the investigation, special attention should be given to ascertaining whether the person in question has changed his mind or not and if so, the motive and extent of the change as well as the character and financial and family conditions of his guardian and whether there is any prospect of the person in question earning a living in the future.

If the results of the investigation lead to a decision to place the person under protection and surveillance, the station concerned is to refer the matter to the protection and surveillance commission which must then pass a judgment. The station cannot place any person under protection and surveillance until it has received a notification from the commission that its decision has been approved.

Methods of Effecting the Protection and Surveillance There are three different methods for effecting the protection and surveillance. One is that the protecting officials concerned keep a personal surveillance over the person in question, another is to hand the person over to his guardian. In the third method, the person is put in the charge of some protective organization, temple, shrine, church, hospital, etc. In all the three cases, the station authorities concerned must explain to the person in question the significance of the decision to place him under protection and surveillance and caution him about his future conduct.

According to circumstances, two or even three methods may be employed simultaneously. The authorities concerned may also put restrictions on the abode, intercourse and correspondence of the protected if such a measure is deemed necessary or advisable.

The period of protection and surveillance is fixed at two years but it may be shortened or prolonged. Prolongation of the period, however, requires the approval of the protection and surveillance commission.

As already stated, the protection and surveillance system has, as its primary aim, the encouragement of "thought" offenders to change their minds and the assistance of those who have changed their minds in securing a living. It therefore is natural that adequate measures should be taken to guide such persons properly in thought and help them to enjoy life.

In view of the specific nature of "thought" offenders, the authorities follow a principle of respecting their social conscience and conception of justice while encouraging them to master the Japanese spirit. As a stable living has a close bearing upon the perpetuation of the change in mind, efforts are also made to secure suitable positions for persons under protection and surveillance and to assist them in making their own homes and appreciating the beautiful points of the Japanese family system. Facilities for attendance at school are also provided in some cases.

The adoption of the above system constitutes an epoch-making event in the history of criminal administration in this country in that it has extended the scope

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of state protection and assistance from juvenile offenders to some adults. It has long been a loud cry that the enterprises for aiding ex-convicts and persons under specified circumstances should not be left to the hands of charitably disposed civilian organizations and individuals alone but that the State should share the responsibility with society. The enforcement of the new rule forms an official action which recognizes the legitimacy of the contention.

It is considered a natural conclusion that this system will eventually lead to legislation recognizing that general activities in protecting and aiding discharged prisoners should be in the nature of State enterprise.

There has been another claim in this connection, that the management of this kind of public enterprise should be rationalized and expanded in scope, and that closer relations should be established between the enterprises and the law courts, public procurators, prisons, police and employment offices as well as local communities. This demand, it is to be noted, has also been partially met by the inauguration of the protection and surveillance system for "thought" offenders.

Thus, the new system is expected to help in promoting the progress of the enterprises for protecting and aiding discharged prisoners and in facilitating the fulfilment of the mission of such enterprises in preventing crime.

Criminal Compensation System

A nation has the responsibility of compensating innocent persons who have been wrongfully punished or have been kept in detention during trial. The Criminal Compensation Law was enacted in 1931. Cases to be compensated according to the Law are as follows:

(1) When a verdict of "not guilty" or an acquittal has been given by the examining judge to a person who has been kept in detention, the State makes compensation for the loss caused by the detention.

(2) In case a verdict of "guilty" is reversed by a higher court and the accused has already suffered the execution of the penalty or was kept in detention before the execution, the State makes compensation for the loss caused by the penalty or detention.

When the accused is dead, the bereaved get the compensation. The bereaved in the terms of the Law are meant to be the spouse, children, grandchildren, parents, grandparents and those whose names were in the same census registration at the time of the death of the accused.

As compensation for unlawful arrest or detention, a sum of less than 5 yen is paid against the warrant of arrest or for each day of detention after the arrest or for each day of detention after the execution of the warrant of detention.

As compensation for penal servitude, imprisonment, or detention, a sum of less than 5 yen is paid for each day of the whole period. The same rule applies to detention before the execution of the death penalty.

As compensation to the bereaved of a person who has mistakenly suffered the death penalty, a sum of money considered reasonable by the Court is given in addition to the compensation for detention.

As compensation for a monetary penalty or fine wrongly imposed, the amount of money corresponding to that of the monetary penalty or fine already paid is given back. In case a person was unable to pay the amount imposed and in lieu was kept in a Labour House, a sum of 5 yen for each day of detention is paid as compensation.

Claims for compensation should be made to the Court returning the verdict of "not guilty", or to the Court in which the examining judge pronounced the acquittal.

A Survey on Crimes The number of criminal code offences, first instance, was from 100,000 to 110,000 in the early part of the Taisho Era (1912-1917), but began to lessen in 1920 and stayed between the 80,000 and 90,000 mark for years. In 1933, it began to increase again and went over the 120,000 mark in 1934, the record high since 1912. The proportion to population was, on the average, 20 in every 10,000 in the early part of the Taisho Era, 16 in 1920 and 17.86 in 1934.

Comparing crimes in 1912-1915 with those in 1930-1933 the largest number pertained to gambling and lotteries, but these lessened from 10 to 7 in every 10,000 of population, those of theft from 4 to 3, of fraud from 2 to 1, and of usurpation from 1 to 0.4. On the contrary, the proportionate number of inflicting injuries increased from 1 to 1.4 and that of the unintentional inflicting of injuries from 0.1 to 0.8. Those of murder, burglary or incendiarism kept 0.1 in both periods.

In 1934 the total number of convictions in Japan proper was 120,854, of which gambling and lottery accounted for 59,145 or 48.9 per cent, theft for 21,748 or 18 per cent, inflicting injuries

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10,299 or 8.5 per cent, fraud and threat 7,416 or 6.1 per cent, unintentionally inflicting injuries 6,226 or 5.2 per cent, usurpation 2,974 or 2.5 per cent, murder 1,041 or 0.86 per cent, incendiarism 938 or 0.77 per cent, and burglary 797 or 0.65 per cent.

When divided into crimes committed in city areas and those in country areas, the number of the former was 90,162 or 41.65 in every 10,000 of city population and that of the latter was 30,692 or 6.59 in every 10.000 of the country population.

Taking totals according to prefectures, Tokyo prefecture led others with 17,878, Osaka came next with 10,454, Hyogo 7,654, Aichi 5,749, Hokkaido 5,383 and Fukuoka 5,211. All other prefectures had less than 5,000 each, those which had less than 1,000 were Okinawa 472, Yamagata 634, Tottori 677, Ishikawa 680, Shimané 782, Miyazaki 790, Tokushima 820, Iwaté 863, Fukui 985 and Miyagi 996.

In proportion to every 10,000 of population in prefectures Tokyo again led with 29.11, followed by Kanagawa 27.80, Hyogo 27.35, Okayama 27.02, Osaka 26.66, Oita 25.34, Kyoto 24.77, Nara 24.77, Nara 24.22, Wakayama 22.69 Aichi 20.80. Hiroshima 20.30, and Yamagata came last with 5.65.

In proportion to every 10,000 of population in prefectures, according to the kinds of crimes, in gambling and lottery Kanagawa headed the list with 18.4 followed by Nara, Tokyo, Hyogo, Ota, Wakayama, Osaka, Kyoto, Okayama, Mié and Chiba, all exceeding 10. Kagoshima had the smallest number with 1.18. In general the districts around Tokyo and Osaka had the highest proportions while Tohoku (northeast) and Kyushu had the lowest proportions. In theft Osaka came first with 7.36, next came Tokyo with 7 followed by Kyoto, Aichi, Hyogo, Fukuoka, ending with Akita's 0.76. In this crime Tohoku districts had the least number again. In inflicting injuries Okayama was the highest with 3.87 followed by Ehimé, Hyogo, Yamanashi, etc., Nagano being the lowest with 0.57. In fraud and threat Kyoto came first with 2.33 and Okinawa was the last with 0.41. In unintentionally inflicting injuries Kanagawa came first with 1.90 followed by Tokyo, Kyoto, Osaka, Hyogo and other prefectures and Yamaguchi ended the list with 0.15. In usurpation the first was Okayama with 1.45 and the last was Kagoshima with 0.2. In murder Fukuoka came first with 0.32 and Aomori, Ishikawa and Miyagi came last 0.5 each. In incendiarism Akita came first with 0.37 and Kyoto came last with 0.04. In burglary Tokyo and Kanagawa headed the list with 0.25 each and Kochi closed it with 0.01.

New System for Arbitration of Domestic Disputes

The Law for Arbitration of Domestic Disputes, which was promulgated on March 16, 1939, after having been introduced in the 74th Diet by the Government and duly passed by the two Houses, is an important piece of legislation designed to make it possible for disputes between family members or relatives and other domestic contentions to be settled amicably through the arbitration of a law court or of an arbitration committee organized within a law court.

Already in force along lines similar to the Law are such systems for arbitration under the jurisdiction of the Department of Justice as the Law for Arbitration of Disputes Concerning Leased Land and Rented Houses (effective from October 1, 1922), that for Arbitration of Tenancy Disputes (effective from December 1, 1924), that for Arbitration of Commercial Disputes (effective from November 1, 1926) and the Provisional Law for Arbitration Concerning Monetary Obligations, all of which are functioning satisfactorily. Compared with cases coming under these laws, no one will hesitate to declare that domestic disputes are far better suited to arbitration. Especially in view of the habits and customs traditional to the Japanese people, no one will fail to see the need of making it possible for domestic disputes to be settled amicably through arbitration. Indeed, the four laws of arbitration previously existing may be said to have been intended as preparations for the introduction of arbitration for domestic disputes.

Thus, with the need for a system of arbitration of domestic disputes having been felt in various quarters for many years, the present Law must be said to have been late in coming into existence. This delay has been largely due to the preparations which have been under way at the Department of Justice for more than a decade for the radical revision of the Book on Relatives and the Book on Inheritance in the Civil Code, on the basis of recommendations submitted by the Temporary Legislation Council. A tentative plan for the desired revisions has already been drawn up and is now in the course of re-examination. At the same time it

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is being planned, on the basis of one of the recommendations of the said council, to institute the Court of Justice for Domestic Disputes, "in order to settle matters concerning families with sympathetic considerations in line with moral principles." Therefore, the policy previously followed in this connection favoured putting the system of arbitration of domestic disputes in effect simultaneously with the projected revision of the Civil Code and the institution of the Court of Justice for Domestic Disputes.

After the outbreak of the present conflict with China, however, an increasingly urgent need has been seen of facilitating amicable settlements of all domestic disputes speedily through mutual concession between the parties concerned and on the basis of legal principles and human sympathy, so as to enable the soldiers on frontline duty to fight without worrying about the troubles which they have left unsettled at home and also to make the nation-wide cooperation in supporting those on the China front effective to the fullest possible extent. Thus, the establishment of the system of arbitration of domestic disputes has become a matter of urgent necessity permitting no further delay. For this reason, the present Law has been legislated ahead of the projected revision of the Civil Code or the institution of the Court of Justice for Domestic Disputes. As for the introduction of the last-named system, which is to function beyond the limits of the Civil Code or of the newly-instituted system of arbitration for domestic disputes, necessary preparations are now being pushed vigorously and the said system is expected to be brought into being shortly.

Some Details This Law consists of only twelve articles, which contain only such stipulations as are exclusively needed in arbitrating domestic disputes; those provisions of the Law for Arbitration Concerning Leased Land and Rented Houses, which are also suited for arbitration in domestic disputes, are made invocable for the present Law as well.

(1) Article 1 makes it clear that this Law has made it possible for an application to be filed for arbitration in cases concerning domestic disputes, stipulating that "an application may be filed, under the present Law, for arbitration for disputes between members of a family or relatives, or other cases generally concerning family affairs." Members of a family, as stipulated in Article 732 of the Civil Code, include those relatives of the head of the family and their spouses who live in the latter's home, while the term relatives denotes blood relations of the kinships within six degrees and their spouses as well as legal relations within three degrees in kinship, as stipulated in Article 725 of the said code. Disputes other than those between these persons, if they are domestic disputes between those similar in position to these persons or other cases generally concerning domestic affairs, may also be brought up for arbitration. For example, a marriage or the adoption in a family of a person as legal son or daughter is made lawful when it is duly registered (Articles 776 and 847 of the Civil Code), and even if two persons live together as husband and wife or as parent and son or daughter after duly holding a ceremony to solemnize such union, they are not, legally speaking, husband and wife or parent and son or daughter unless they are duly registered as such. Nevertheless, a domestic dispute arising between these persons or between one of them and some other member or relative of the other's family may be made subject to arbitration under the present Law. Further, such disputes as one between an illegal son not legally recognized yet and his actual father or a member or relative of the latter's family may also be interpreted as corresponding to domestic disputes under this Law.

(2) Article 2 elucidates the fundamental idea of arbitration for domestic disputes. Such arbitration is primarily intended to make it possible for an amicable settlement satisfactory to both parties concerned to be reached in a domestic dispute in line with ethical principles and within the limits of law.

(3) Articles 3 and 4 stipulate the distinctive jurisdiction under which arbitration is to be instituted under the present Law. According to these stipulations, an application for arbitration should be filed at the Local Court in the area under whose jurisdiction the other party of the dispute lives or at a Local Court jointly chosen by both parties. And in case a law court has received an application for arbitration for a case which does not come under its jurisdiction, the said court is, as a principle, to refer the case to the right court by decision instead of rejecting the said application for acceptance. However, so far as domestic disputes are concerned, these stipulations concerning the jurisdiction of a law court need not necessarily be stretched too far, as it often happens

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that a better result is obtained by allowing reasonable discretion to suit actual circumstances.

For instance, in case a senior member of the family concerned lives at a place other than the locality of the residence of the other party of a domestic dispute and when it is considered advisable to work for the required arbitration with the participation of the said senior member, it may be arranged that the case be dealt with at the Local Court of the area under whose jurisdiction the said senior member lives. Therefore, in case a law court has received an application concerning a case which does not come under its jurisdiction and when it sees sufficient reason to do so, the said law court may refer the case to a Local Court other than that under whose jurisdiction the case ordinarily comes or may deal with the case itself without referring it elsewhere. Further, even in case a law court has received an application for arbitration in a case which comes under its own jurisdiction, the said court may refer it to another Local Court by decision when it deems it appropriate to do so. Such flexibility provided for the jurisdiction of a law court in handling cases under the present Law undoubtedly is well adapted to arbitration of domestic disputes.

In this connection, it is further stipulated that no exception can be taken to the decision awarded by a law court.

(4) Article 5 stipulates that an application for arbitration in a case involving an unreasonable cause should be rejected. In the other systems of arbitration, too, it has been laid down that applications for unreasonable purposes should be rejected, but in that article it is further stipulated that applications which are not in keeping with good custom should also be rejected. Applications which are not in keeping with good custom are likely in many cases to be intended for the abuse of rights or other unjustifiable purposes, but even in cases where such intentions are not involved, it has been laid down that applications not in keeping with good customs should be rejected, inasmuch as arbitration in domestic disputes is based on the spirit of respect for customs and habits traditional to the Japanese people. Furthermore, it is stipulated elsewhere (Article 11) that an arbitration committee may desist from arbitration in case it is deemed that such causes as stipulated in the present article are involved.

(5) In Article 6 it is stipulated that the parties involved and those otherwise interested in a case for arbitration should present themselves personally, but that they may send their representatives in case they are unavoidably prevented from presenting themselves, and that those other than lawyers are required to obtain permission of the law court concerned in order to become such representatives. It is noteworthy in this connection that this article makes it clear that lawyers acting as representatives in a case for arbitration need not obtain special permission, whereas previous systems of arbitration have required lawyers to obtain the permission of the law court concerned.

(6) In Article 7 the legal force of arbitration is defined to the effect that arbitration has the same force as in judiciary conciliation, a party being liable to be subjected to immediate compulsory enforcement in case he fails to live up to the obligation which he has incurred thereby. Further, the arbitration effected by an arbitration committee becomes similarly effective only when it is approved by the law court concerned by decision (Article 8 of the present Law and Article 28 of the Law for Arbitration of Disputes Concerning Leased Land and Rented Houses). This stipulation is common to all other systems of arbitration but in the case of arbitration of domestic disputes, there is an accompanying provision that this stipulation does not apply to such obligations as involve matters which do not allow disposal by the party concerned, because in cases concerning domestic disputes there may be various matters for arbitration other than deliveries of goods or payments of money and it is impossible to make the result of arbitration equally effective on certain of such matters.

(7) Article 8 names a number of stipulations of the Law for Arbitration of Disputes Concerning Leased Land and Rented Houses, which are made applicable to corresponding cases under the present Law. Some of these stipulations are explained below.

Article 2 of the Law for Arbitration of Disputes Concerning Leased Land and Rented Houses, which stipulates that an application for arbitration is required to make clear the actual situation of the dispute at issue, has been made applicable to applications to be filed under the present Law as well.

Again, by the invocation of Paragraph 2 of Article 4 of the same law, a law suit pending at a law court concerning a domestic dispute can be referred to arbitration by the law court, which has

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accepted the suit, through the exercise of its own authority. Thus, cases which are considered better suited to amicable settlement by arbitration than by law suit proceedings may be referred to arbitration by the law court concerned without waiting for an application from the party involved.

In case a law suit is pending in connection with the case for which an application for arbitration has been received or in case a law court has referred a case to arbitration through the exercise of its own authority, the proceedings of the said law suit are to be suspended pending the closure of the arbitration (Article 5 of the same law). As it would be unwarranted to keep a law suit in progress while referring its case to arbitration for amicable settlement, it has been laid down that in such cases, proceedings of the said law suit are to be suspended so as to make it possible for the best efforts to be made for the benefit of arbitration. However, in case an application has been filed for such arbitration with the object of shunning reasonable obligations under cover of this stipulation, the said application is to be rejected under the provisions of Article 5 of the present Law.

Cases for arbitration come under the jurisdiction of a law court or an arbitration committee, and in practice, the law court is to take charge of simple cases of arbitration, while the committee is to deal with complicated cases, but in case both parties involved so desire, the arbitration committee is required to sit for their case (Paragraph 2 of Article 14 of the previous law). In the case of a law court undertaking arbitration, the said law court is required to fix a date and summon the applicant for such arbitration and the other party involved on that day in case it has accepted an application for arbitration or has referred a law suit it has accepted to arbitration, the law court being authorized to request the presence of persons otherwise interested if it is deemed necessary to do so (Article 6 of the previous law).

Proceedings of arbitration are not to be opened to public hearing; it is stipulated that only those whom the law court concerned considers duly qualified may be permitted to witness the proceedings as visitors (Article 8 of the previous law). This stipulation is common to all existing systems of arbitration, but it is of special necessity for arbitration in domestic disputes because the parties involved or those otherwise interested will not be able to state their actual cases fully and express their real intentions unless the proceedings are closed to the public.

Another article of the said law made applicable to cases under the present Law is Article 13 which authorizes the law court concerned to order action as may be deemed necessary prior to effecting arbitration. For instance, in case a dispute has arisen between members of a family or its relatives regarding the partition of an estate, the said estate may thus be caused to be held in trust by a senior member of the family until arbitration is effected.

Further, in case the action thus ordered by the law court concerned requires expenses, one of the parties or both of them may be made to pay for such expenses in advance (Article 9 of the previous law). An application or other statements for arbitration may be made either verbally or in writing (Article 10), and the findings of arbitration are to be prepared by the clerical staff of the law court concerned (Article 11).

As for the organization of an arbitration committee, the said body is to consist of a chief arbitrator and two or more members (Article 15 of the previous law). The chief arbitrator is to be appointed annually from among the judges by the Chief Justice of the District Court concerned (Paragraph 1 of Article 16). The members of the Committee are to be named annually in advance by the Chief Justice of the District Court; and from among these committee men, suitable persons are to be chosen for each case by the Chief Arbitrator. If arbitration is to be expected to lead to its rightful results, it is obvious that the most suitable persons available ought to act as members of the committee, and for arbitration in domestic disputes it is stipulated that those who serve on the committee should be persons of good reputation as their first qualification. Further, the committee men are to be paid a daily allowance and travelling and hotel expenses (Article 18).

Proceedings of arbitration at the committee meetings are to be directed by the chief arbitrator (Article 19), and the committee's decisions are to be authorized by a majority vote of the members, the chief arbitrator having the casting vote in case of an equally divided vote (Article 20). Discussions in the meetings are to be kept in confidence (Article 21), while the committee is authorized to summon the parties involved, to request for the par-

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ticipation of those interested at a date it fixes, to give permission to their representatives to present themselves on their behalf, or to order action as may be deemed necessary before arbitration is effected (Article 22 of the previous law and Article 10 of the present law). The arbitration committee is also authorized to hear the statements of the parties involved or those otherwise interested and to institute examination of evidences in case it is deemed necessary to do so (Article 26 of the previous law). These stipulations are common to all the other systems of arbitration.

In case the arbitration committee has concluded that an application for arbitration is not in keeping with good customs or is intended for the abuse of rights, the said committee is authorized to desist from instituting arbitration as stated before (Article 11 of the present Law).

In case arbitration is effected by a commitee, the law court concerned is to be furnished with a report of the chief arbitrator and will then decide to approve or not to approve the arbitration thus effected. Such decision for approval invests the arbitration effected with the same power as in judiciary conciliation, provided that the law court concerned is not authorized to decide for disapproval of the arbitration effected unless such arbitration is considered unfair to a serious extent (Articles 26-28 of the previous law).

In case the parties involved do not respond to the summons of the arbitration committee without justifiable reasons, the law court in charge of the case for arbitration concerned, after consulting the committee, may sentence them to fines of ₹50 or less (Article 32 of the previous law).

It is also stipulated that a fee is to be paid for an application made for arbitration by the arbitration committee or by the law court (Article 29 of the previous law). The amount of the said fee still remains unfixed, but it is likely to be fixed at an amount not exceeding 50 sen. The parties involved or those otherwise interested may request the clerical staff of the law court concerned to show them the records of their case or give them an exemplified copy, certified copy or extract copy of the said records or a certificate concerning the case (Article 30 of the previous law).

(8) The stipulations contained in Articles 9 to 11 of the present Law have already been dealt with. In Paragraph 1 of Article 12, it is stipulated that in case a member of the arbitration committee or one who has formerly been on the committee, without reason, disclosed what were the views of the chief arbitrator or the other members or whether the said views were the majority or minority views, the said person is made subject to a fine not exceeding ₹1,000, this stipulation being aimed at securing freedom and fairness for discussion at the committee meetings. Designed for similar purpose is the provision of Article 49 of the Law for Arbitration of Tenancy Disputes. Then, Paragraph 2 of the article in question stipulates that in case a member of the committee or one who has formerly been on the committee has, without sufficient reason, disclosed the secrets of another person which he has learned in connection with matters he has handled during the execution of his official duties, the said offence is to be made liable to a sentence of three months or less in penal servitude or a fine of ₹1,000 or less. This stipulation of punishment is peculiar to the system of arbitration for domestic disputes. This is because arbitration of domestic disputes affords considerable chances to learn family secrets, which are likely to cause great disadvantages for the parties involved or those otherwise interested, unless they are kept strictly confidential, thereby standing seriously in the way of arbitration for domestic disputes.

(9) In the systems of arbitration for disputes concerning leased land and rented houses, tenant farming and commercial affairs, it has been laid down that in case an arbitration committee fails to effect arbitration, the committee is to decide on terms of arbitration as may be deemed appropriate and send copies of its findings to the parties involved. It is stipulated that in case the parties involved do not take exception to such terms of arbitration within one month after receipt of the said copies, they are to be considered to have accepted the proposed arbitration. Further, in the systems of arbitration in disputes concerning monetary obligations and tenant farming, it is so stipulated that the law court concerned may administer justice in lieu of the so-called arbitration. However, neither of these two devices has been incorporated in the present Law. The reason is that domestic disputes often involve details which are too complicated to be made subject to these devices, and also that in such disputes, the intentions of the par-

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ties involved in particular ought to be respected in a greater degree than in the arbitration for disputes concerning other problems.

Statistics

The following are the statistics relevant to the judicature of the country:

NUMBER OF COURTS (June, 1938)

	Supreme Court	Courts of Appeal	District Courts	Branch Courts	Local Courts	Branch Offices
	1	Tokyo	12	17	64	417
		Osaka	9	12	43	280
		Nagoya	6	9	30	206
		Hiroshima	6	13	36	255
		Nagasaki	8	17	53	291
		Miyagi	6	16	36	232
		Sapporo	5	3	20	102
Total	1	7	52	87	282	1,783

Number of Cases handled at Courts in 1936

Courts	Total	New	Settled
Local Courts	1,245,747	1,176,049	1,181,438
District Courts	103,817	74,278	74,076
Courst of Appeal	10,094	4,959	5,254
The Supreme Court	5,184	4,155	2,768

Number of Criminal Cases handled in 1931—1936

	No. of Accused	Preliminary Examinations	Cases of First Instance	Cases of Second Instance	Cases of Third Instance
1931	440,577	6,317	101,799	6,778	2,152
1932	457,285	6,676	101,402	7,374	2,257
1933	509,355	7,737	113,939	7,814	2,493
1934	545,360	7,660	123,488	7,301	2,270
1935	524,358	6,920	121,084	8,278	2,364
1936	505,500	7,100	124,494	10,424	4,123

Criminals Sentenced in the First Instance, Japan Proper

			Penal Servitude		Imprisonment				
	Total	Death Penalty	For Life	For Limited Terms	For Life	For Limited Terms	Monetary Penalties	Custody	Fines
1931	98,431	31	59	33,396	—	117	58,746	1	6,081
1932	93,186	37	62	36,190	—	81	50,427	1	6,388
1933	107,318	26	42	39,365	—	91	59,849	—	7,945
1934	122,330	28	72	42,318	—	84	69,211	—	10,617
1935	121,662	31	51	42,335	—	116	69,905	—	9,224
1936	120,871	19	37	41,413	—	86	70,856	—	8,460

Classified by Crimes,

1936

			Penal Servitude		Imprison-ment				
	Total	Death Penalty	For Life	For Limited Terms	For Life	For Limited Terms	Monetary Penalties	Custody	Fines
Incendiarism	716	—	—	716	—	—	—	—	—
Fires through negligence	1,695	—	—	—	—	—	1,695	—	—
Forgery of currency	272	—	—	270	—	—	1	—	1
Forgery of documents	670	—	—	395	—	1	275	—	—
Forgery of seals	29	—	—	29	—	—	—	—	—

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	Total	Death Penalty	Penal Servitude For Life	Penal Servitude For Limited Terms	Imprisonment For Life	Imprisonment For Limited Terms	Monetary Penalties	Custody	Fines
Sexual crimes	829	—	—	430	—	—	330	—	69
Gambling	60,713	—	—	2,127	—	—	51,719	—	6,867
Malversation	1,300	—	—	740	—	—	560	—	—
Murder	910	5	16	889	—	1	—	—	—
Inflicting injury	10,184	—	—	1,539	—	—	7,280	—	1,365
Inflicting injury by negligence	6,925	—	—	—	—	83	6,837	—	5
Criminal abortion	254	—	—	254	—	—	—	—	—
Theft	20,574	—	—	20,574	—	—	—	—	—
Burglary	785	14	22	749	—	—	—	—	—
Fraud and blackmail	7,999	—	—	7,984	—	—	15	—	—
Usurpation	2,919	—	—	2,672	—	—	130	—	117
Others	4,097	—	—	2,045	—	2	3,014	—	36
Total	120,871	19	37	41,413	—	86	70,856	—	8,460

Chosen (Korea)

	Total	Death Penalty	Penal Servitude For Life	Penal Servitude For Limited Terms	Imprisonment For Life	Imprisonment For Limited Terms	Monetary Penalties	Custady	Fines
1932	17,068	32	20	11,197	—	9	4,550	—	1,260
1933	16,786	44	26	10,740	—	27	4,731	5	1,213
1934	17,945	21	21	11,254	—	12	5,275	—	1,362
1935	18,713	20	17	11,119	—	25	5,828	2	1,702
1936	18,788	26	21	10,854	—	21	6,254	—	1,612

Taiwan (Formosa)

	Total	Death Penalty	Penal Servitude For Life	Penal Servitude For Limited Terms	Imprisoment For Life	Imprisoment For Limited Terms	Monetary Penalties	Custody	Fines
1932	27,297	—	2	2,863	—	7	11,034	—	13,341
1933	28,681	6	3	2,613	—	5	11,112	2	14,940
1934	28,543	6	9	2,679	—	2	10,687	1	15,159
1935	30,566	1	2	2,643	—	1	12,732	2	15,158
1936	25,635	3	5	3,079	—	8	8,470	—	14,070

Karafuto (Saghalien)

	Total	Death Penalty	Penal Servitude For Life	Penal Servitude For Limited Terms	Imprisonment For Life	Imprisonment For Limited Terms	Monetary Penalties	Custody	Fines
1932	310	—	1	289	—	2	17	—	1
1933	265	—	—	237	—	—	22	—	6
1934	312	1	2	287	—	—	18	—	4
1935	356	—	—	334	—	—	21	—	1
1936	428	—	1	412	—	—	15	—	—

Nanyo (South Seas)

Penal Servitnde Imprisonment (Natives)

	Total	Death Penalty	For Life	For Limited Terms	For Life	For Limited Terms	Monetary Penalties	Custody	Fines
1932	136	—	—	88	—	—	42	—	6
1933	196	—	—	108	—	—	78	—	10
1934	275	—	—	141	—	—	110	—	24
1935	269	—	—	146	—	—	94	—	29
1936	177	—	—	140	—	—	37	—	—

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CRIMINAL CASES SETTLED IN ALL INSTANCES IN JAPAN PROPER

(Crimes against Special Laws Included)

	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936
Total	149,831	181,792	186,668	183,582	192,377
Male	142,042	172,067	174,982	173,789	182,909
Female	7,083	9,027	11,077	9,314	9,064
Juridical persons	706	698	609	479	404
First instance					
Guilty,					
Male	130,389	159,274	164,266	163,934	166,377
Female	6,895	8,834	10,786	9,033	8,811
Juridical persons	704	696	608	479	404
Acquittals,					
Male	464	429	423	370	503
Female	19	35	30	32	48
Juridical persons	2	2	1	—	—
Second instance					
Guilty,					
Male	7,555	7,523	7,268	6,549	10,887
Female	134	126	209	167	141
Acquittals,					
Male	173	186	164	229	284
Female	3	—	17	11	2
Third (Final) instance					
Guilty,					
Male	3,452	4,631	2,835	2,679	4,812
Female	32	31	34	67	62
Acquittals,					
Male	9	25	26	28	46
Female	—	1	1	4	—

PRISON STATISTICS

NUMBER OF PRISONS (June 30, 1938)

Prisons	Branches	Total
52	105	157

NUMBER OF PRISONERS KEPT IN PRISON HOUSES AT THE END OF EACH YEAR

	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936	1937 (End of March)
Convicts	41,188	42,253	46,324	49,922	48,904	51,094	51,977	52,171
Accused	127	100	77	109	80	120	47	174
Criminal defendants	4,634	4,642	5,624	6,062	5,273	5,252	4,628	4,303
Detained in the House of Labour	481	505	477	530	572	490	462	541
Infants	7	7	6	4	8	14	9	6
Total	46,437	47,507	52,508	56,627	54,837	56,970	57,123	57,404
(Women in the total)	738	729	779	914	976	915	919	915
Daily average	44,529	47,866	49,570	55,155	54,352	56,167	—	—

NUMBER OF CONVICTS IN PRISON AT THE END OF EACH YEAR CLASSIFIED BY AGE

Age	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936
Under 18	717	858	918	817	821	868
Under 20	1,950	2,059	2,199	2,023	1,956	2,014
Over 20	39,586	43,407	46,805	46,064	48,317	49,095
Total	42,253	46,324	49,922	48,904	51,094	51,977

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YEARLY COMPARISON OF THE NUMBER OF NEW CONVICTS

/ Year	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936
Criminal Code Offences						
Theft	15,498	17,771	19,259	20,646	18,848	19,167
Gambling and lotteries	1,379	1,144	1,405	1,652	1,838	1,920
Fraud and usurpation	5,441	5,990	6,792	7,372	8,097	7,621
Forgery of documents, negotiable securities and seals or stamps	484	500	508	451	381	458
Injury	1,402	1,561	1,528	1,523	1,494	1,303
Receiving stolen articles	350	340	516	544	418	—
Murder	558	666	684	709	642	635
Burglary	651	800	757	776	729	731
Incendiarism	613	772	818	758	701	584
Interference with the execution of official duties	97	83	94	94	48	—
Destruction and concealment of another man's property	11	9	18	18	25	—
Forgery of currency	31	50	68	46	24	—
Abortion	39	32	30	44	54	34
Obscenities, illicit sexual intercourse and bigamy	204	243	279	332	287	261
House-breaking	248	282	288	245	249	—
Perjury	38	38	46	43	38	—
False accusation	15	15	12	16	17	—
Others	437	442	442	555	571	1,431
Offences against Special Laws						
Criminal law of the army and navy	28	46	56	19	42	71
The forest law	37	40	37	43	30	26
The military service law	8	9	12	14	11	18
The mail and telegraphy law	7	5	2	5	—	—
Others	858	971	1,368	1,203	1,034	4,078
Police laws and prefectural laws	5,504	4,478	4,461	4,986	5,520	3,426
Total	33,938	36,287	39,480	42,094	41,093	41,764

YEARLY COMPARISON OF THE NUMBER OF NEW CONVICTS ACCORDING TO THE TERM OF SERVITUDE

/ Year	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936
Penal Servitude							
Penal servitude for life	43	38	57	61	64	55	43
Over 15 years	20	52	38	56	45	45	38
Less than 15 years	57	58	68	53	63	38	57
Under 10 years	765	760	890	996	963	816	804
Under 5 years	1,764	1,723	2,046	2,309	2,300	2,154	2,040
„ 3 „	2,719	2,766	3,210	3,685	4,046	3,719	10,968
„ 2 „	5,560	5,745	6,840	7,479	8,462	7,640	—
„ 1 year	9,894	10,668	12,049	13,111	13,651	13,472	13,730
„ 6 months	4,390	4,464	4,638	5,033	5,306	5,282	5,244
„ 3 „	1,838	1,829	1,560	1,771	1,882	1,970	2,925
Total	27,050	28,103	31,396	34,554	36,782	35,191	35,349
Imprisonment							
For life	—	—	—	—	—	—	6
Over 15 years	—	—	—	2	—	—	—
Less than 15 years	—	—	—	1	—	—	—
Under 10 years	—	—	—	3	—	—	—
Under 5 years	—	—	—	11	—	—	—
„ 3 „	—	—	—	1	—	3	—
„ 2 „	5	7	2	1	1	2	—
„ 1 year	11	6	3	5	4	5	—
„ 6 months	28	54	69	48	40	47	—
3 „	316	249	304	368	238	313	—

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Year	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936
Total	360	316	378	440	283	370	1,755
Detention	5,765	5,500	4,491	4,458	4,994	5,518	4,149
Death penalty	15	19	22	28	35	14	11
Total	33,190	33,938	36,287	39,480	42,094	41,093	41,764

YEARLY COMPARISON OF THE NUMBER OF NEW CONVICTS ACCORDING TO EDUCATION

	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936
Educated in					
Higher schools					
Male	201	226	262	199	270
Female	1	—	3	—	—
Middle schools					
Male	1,627	1,911	2,039	1,967	2,179
Female	8	9	22	16	12
Primary schools					
Male	21,730	24,643	26,647	26,020	27,665
Female	151	175	258	203	241
Uneducated					
Male	6,736	6,966	6,605	6,023	6,147
Female	129	134	134	146	142
Illiterates					
Male	1,072	816	918	880	836
Female	109	104	167	104	104
Illinformed					
Male	9	10	10	3	7
Female	1	—	—	—	1
Total (investigated)					
Male	31,375	34,572	36,481	35,092	37,104
Female	399	422	584	469	500

YEARLY COMPARISON OF THE NUMBER OF NEW CONVICTS ACCORDING TO OCCUPATION

	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936
Occupation					
Agriculture					
Male	2,524	2,817	2,731	2,665	3,798
Female	51	64	72	65	46
Fisheries					
Male	341	389	351	331	372
Female	1	—	—	1	2
Mining					
Male	162	188	186	207	309
Female	1	—	—	1	1
Industry					
Male	6,265	6,561	7,150	7,528	8,549
Female	18	23	21	10	27
Commerce					
Male	4,555	5,113	5,245	5,203	4,944
Female	31	42	56	53	60
Transportation					
Male	680	768	795	823	794
Female	—	—	—	—	—
Official and Cultural					
Male	1,034	1,175	1,554	1,786	1,457
Female	8	18	21	17	20
Miscellaneous					
Male	3,135	3,098	3,597	3,695	3,734
Female	57	30	49	26	41
Servants					
Male	658	882	910	671	783
Female	10	22	34	43	32
Unoccupied					

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	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936
Male	12,021	13,581	13,962	12,183	12,364
Female	222	223	331	253	269
Total (Investigated)					
Male	31,375	34,572	36,481	35,092	37,104
Female	399	422	584	469	500

Prison System

Historical Background

A short historical retrospect of our penal system will show that it is only in comparatively modern times that "Imprisonment" became the recognized method for the punishment of crime.

Up till recent times the idea at the root of the Japanese penal system was minatory. In other words, the so-called principle of general prevention by warning the people at large against the commission of crimes by imposing heavy punishments upon criminals was adopted. Accordingly, the punishments were principally capital and corporal and extremely cruel in character. For instance, the Criminal Code of the Yédo Period (1602–1867) recognized the exposing in public of the heads of persons executed; crucifying, burning at the stake and other similar cruel punishments were imposed. In those days the jails were used merely as places of detention for various offenders until their trial, not as places for reforming offenders. Imprisonment was a very unusual form of punishment, for prisons were unknown and imprisonment was not a legal penalty.

Exile and Banishment Punishments which brought loss of liberty for specified periods to the criminal were exile and banishment. Persons punished with exile were sent to distant islands and places such as Satsuma, islands of the Goto group, Oki, Iki and Amakusa, and there they were forced to work under such miserable conditions that most of them died of starvation. Banishment was a penalty designed to expel persons convicted of crimes from certain fixed areas, and, as the result of the enforcement of this punishment in certain districts industries declined and farms and fields lay waste, giving rise to many social evils such as the increase in the number of ronin (masterless samurai), mushukumono (vagabonds) and other dangerous elements. In 1778, therefore, as a remedial measure, the Tokugawa Shogunate instituted the system of kozan-yékifu (mine labour) and, in 1790, that of ninsokuyoseba (places for the detention of convict-coolies). The system of kozan-yékifu dealt with vagabonds with no previous convictions. These were sent as coolies to pump water out of the Sado goldmine. In and after 1788, those who had been punished by flogging or branded as ex-convicts by tattoo marks and were homeless or those who, it was feared, might perpetrate crimes in the future were also sent there.

Prototype of Present Prisons The ninsoku-yoseba were to all intents and purposes the prototype of present day prisons and penal servitude. These places for the detention of convict- coolies were located at Ishikawajima and Tsukudajima in Yédo (Tokyo) and at Kamigo, Ibaraki prefecture, and there vagabonds and those who had been punished by flogging or branded as ex-convicts by tattoo marks were detailed to work as oil pressers or at other kinds of labour for a fixed wage, with the ulterior object of giving them such instruction and training as would fit them to lead the lives of respectable members of society. In and after 1820 those who were punished with banishment heavier than that from the confines of Yédo were put to forced labour for a fixed period of time in lieu of that punishment. Thus the ninsoku-yoseba, which had been instituted as workhouses for vagabonds, were turned into prisons for the reclamation of criminals through ordered life and labour. In its correctional idea ninsoku-yoseba was entirely identical with the London "Bridewell," which was established in England in 1550 "to punish, correct, and reform by labour of a diversified nature," and the Amsterdam workhouse (tuchthuis) founded at the end of the 16th century and well known for its motto, "Schrick niet ! ick wreeck geen quaet, maer dwing tot goedt, straf ist myn handt, mar lieflijck myn gemoedt." (Do not fear ! I will not take revenge upon you for your misdeed; on the contrary, I wish to lead you to good. Although I am rigorous in handling you, my heart is filled with kindliness towards you.) In and after 1790 the prisoners detained in the ninsoku-yoseba who behaved well and showed notable signs of penitence were liberated on certain conditions and this may be taken as the

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enforcement of provisional release of prisoners for the first time in Japan. When it is remembered that the system of provisional release of prisoners in Europe originated in a favoured release of prisoners from a convicts' colony in Australia in 1791, it is an interesting coincidence that the same system was inaugurated simultaneously both in the West and the East.

Improvement of 1872 In 1871, with a view to carrying out a great improvement in our prison system, the Emperor Meiji despatched the Vice-Director of Prisons, Mr. Jinsai Obara, to Hong Kong and Singapore to inspect and study the prison systems there, and, as a result, the Prison Regulations, the first written law concerning prisons in Japan, were promulgated in 1872. According to the provisions of these regulations, the reclamation and education of the inmates of prisons should be based on love and benevolence. At the beginning of the Regulations, it is stated: "Prison is a place for the incarceration of criminals for chastisement. They are placed there because of love and benevolence towards them and not because of any desire to inflict cruelty upon them; prison is intended for chastising them and not for subjecting them to hardships. Punishment is imposed on them because it is unavoidable and because it is a means of removing evil from the State. The authorities of prisons shall conscientiously observe this principle in treating prisoners." The Regulations were framed on a progressive system and on very advanced lines, but subsequently their operation was suspended for a time, and, in 1881, the Revised Prison Regulations were published. The Regulations were again revised in 1889, and with the revision of the Criminal Code in 1907 the existing Prison Law was enacted and published the following year.

Management of Prisons

Prisons are placed under the control of the Minister of Justice. Prior to 1900 they were under the control of the Minister of Home Affairs, but since that year they have come under the supervision of the Minister of Justice. With the transfer of affairs relating to prisons from the Department of Home Affairs to the Department of Justice, the Bureau of Prisons was established in the latter Department for the administration of matters concerning the execution of sentences, prisons, provisional releases of prisoners, and the identification of criminals by finger-prints. A director, several secretaries, a hygiene official of the Department, several clerks and three assistant-experts in finger-prints were appointed to conduct the business of the Bureau.

In 1938, there were 52 ordinary prisons, 3 reformatory prisons for minors, and 105 branch-prisons, and 1,215 detention rooms in police headquarters.

The kinds and number of prison officials at the end of 1937 were as follows:

Governor	43
Assistant-governors	34
Doctors	93
Chaplains	143
Instructors	37
Industrial work experts	440
Pharmacists	54
Chief warders (including 5 chief wardresses)	524
Interpreters	4
Warders	7,088
Wardresses	129
Total	8,589

Prison superintendents are appointed from among officials ranking as governors and assistant-governors by the Minister of Justice, and branch-prison governors from among assistant governors and chief warders.

Classification

In the Japanese prison system there are four kinds of prisons: (1) prisons for those sentenced to penal servitude; (2) prisons for those sentenced to imprisonment; (3) houses of detention for persons destined to spend time in detention, and (4) prisons of confinement for (a) those sentenced to death, (b) those awaiting trial. In view of the different characters of these prisons, they should, in principle, be established independently of one another, and, in the case of their being erected in the same area, they are usually separated. At present, workhouses are not classified as prisons, but are attached to prisons for the sake of convenience.

Treatment of Prisoners

Object of Treatment As to what is the primary and fundamental purpose of punishment by imprisonment, nothing is stated in the Criminal Code or in the Prison Code now in force. Some Japanese jurists are of opinion that punishment must remain in its essence retributive and deterrent, and accordingly a prisoner must be made to expiate his offence by a dull, soulless, and monotonous servitude. But such new scholars of criminal law and penology as Dr.

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Yeiichi Makino, Professor of Criminal Law, Tokyo Imperial University, Prof. Kameji Kimura and Dr. Akira Masaki, former Assistant Director, Bureau of Prisons, Department of Justice, interpret it as a form of education and emphasize its socializing effects. Be that as it may, Japanese juridical authorities have for more than ten years endeavoured to reform prisons on the latter principle. On April 4, 1924, Dr. Kisaburo Suzuki, the then Minister of Justice, declared at a meeting of officials connected with prisons and criminal affairs, "The enforcement of punishments consists in the adoption of such measures as may improve the quality of convicted persons and socialize them as good and law-abiding members of society." Further, at a meeting of the governors of prisons and reformatory prisons for minors, held on October 11, 1927, Kado Hara, the then Minister of Justice, gave the following instructions:

"The object of enforcing punishments on the inmates of prisons is to cause them to reflect on and repent their offences and to turn them into good members of society. There are many and various means of attaining this object, but they are, in the final analysis, to cultivate their character, to give them training for different occupations, and to maintain their health in good condition, while improving the circumstances which constitute the causes of their offences so as to enable them to lead a decent life. In order to realize the end aimed at, therefore, a mere confinement and watching of them is not sufficient; on the contrary, it is necessary to know their individual characteristics and to inquire into and ascertain the motives and causes of their crimes, giving them thereby appropriate treatment."

Classification System Inasmuch as punishment by the restriction of personal liberty is enforced today principally with a view to education, criminals are properly classified according to ages, characteristics, terms of imprisonment, numbers and kinds of offences, and are then confined in different prisons so as to facilitate the enforcement of adequate measures for their education in accordance with their categories and, further, to prevent prisons from becoming breeding-places of crime through mutual contact and contagion as the result of promiscuous confinement of all grades. When it is impossible to distribute them among independent prisons and they are confined in the same area, prisoners are usually classified strictly, and confined separately, according to their categories. There are prisons for minors at Odawara, Kawagoyé, Himéji, Okazaki, Iwakuni, Kurumé, Morioka, and Hochiojo, and in Hokkaido for the confinement of those under 18 years of age sentenced to penal servitude or imprisonment, prisons for aged persons at Hamamatsu and Yonago and for women at Tochigi, Miyoshi and Miyazu. Further, there are prisons for the confinement of persons sentenced to terms of imprisonment exceeding 10 years at Kosugé, Takamatsu, Hiroshima, Okayama, Miyagi, and Abashiri; the Abashiri agricultural prison is intended for training prisoners as agricultural labourers. At Uraga, located in an old warship anchored off the port, is a branch of the Odawara prison for minors. There juvenile offenders are given training as fishermen, and sometimes engage in coastal and deep-sea fish-vessels or steamers.

In addition to the above-mentioned classified confinement, with a view to proper individualized treatment, they are examined by doctors, alienists, psychologists and educationists to find out their psychopathic idiosyncrasies, hereditary natures, physiological peculiarities, adaptabilities to occupations, educational possibilities, etc. in different prisons previous to their confinement. Further, a "social diagnosis" is made by collecting reports on them from city, town and village offices, police stations, schools, and organizations devoted to their protection in order that they may be suitably classified for treatment.

Progressive System A treatment on the progressive system is accorded to convicts who form the bulk of the inmates of prisons. This treatment aims at leading them to repent and their treatment is graded in proportion to their aspiration and diligence, thereby gradually bringing them to the conditions of ordinary social life. The relaxation of the enforcement of penalties not merely extends the scope of the personal liberty of convicts, but serves to cultivate a sense of responsibility on their part and strengthens their will for self-reclamation. In short, its chief purpose is not to make "good convicts", but to turn them into "good citizens." The treatment in question does not apply to persons who are sentenced to imprisonment for less than 6 months, aged and decrepit persons, and those of unsound mental or physical faculties. Any prisoner committed for the first time is kept in solitary confinement for a certain period of time and a close study is made of him. On the basis of the results he is classified according to character, physical and mental con-

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dition, number of convictions, age, nature of crimes, term of service, home, health and thought.

The Four Stages The stages of the progressive treatment are: (1) those under investigation; (2) those in course of correction and training; (3) those in process of improvement; and (4) those who have developed a sense of responsibility. After being subjected to a study of character, convicts are received into the first class to begin with. Those who are accorded this treatment are given fixed marks according to their terms of imprisonment and promotion to higher classes is given only when a sufficient number of marks have been earned by diligence, good conduct, and growth of the sense of responsibility and of the will for self-improvement. Those belonging to the first and second classes are kept in confinement in association, while those belonging to the third class are kept in confinement in association in the day time, but in solitary confinement at night, those belonging to the fourth class are confined in a special room.

The Treatment Governors of prisons may cause convicts in each workshop to elect some from among them to keep the workshop in good order and look after other necessary matters. The elected ones must be popular, trustworthy and belong to the third class. Prisoners belonging to the third class must jointly, once a month, carry out the work of cleaning and sweeping the prison grounds and keeping them in order. Except in cases of special need, prisoners belonging to the fourth class do not undergo physical examination or have their cells searched, and, further, are permitted to talk with one another so long as it does not interfere with the maintenance of discipline. They are also permitted to elect two representatives that they may express their desires to the authorities. These representatives are nominated by the governor of the prison concerned from among several candidates elected by prisoners belonging to the fourth class. Prisoners of the fourh class may be permitted to take walks in a place designated for that purpose in the prison grounds in hours of recess, or hold meetings, take walks in a group, or hold athletic meetings on days free from labour. They give a pledge to the governor, holding themselves responsible for the physical examination of those of their own class, for the search of their cells and keeping them in order, and the maintenance of order among themselves. In case of any one of them violating the pledge, the privileged treatment will be suspended for some or all of them. Any one of those belonging to the first class who earns more than ¥5.00 for labour may be permitted to use less than one-fifth of the monthly total in buying postage stamps and in other ways that are deemed necessary; any one of those belonging to the second class, less than one-fourth of the monthly total; any one of those belonging to the third class, less than one-third of the monthly total; and any one of those belonging to the fourth class, less than one-half of the monthly total. While those of the first class are not permitted to change the kinds of labour they engage in, those of he second class and up are permitted to do so. Those who have superior skill or high efficiency and belong to the third class are charged with the task of directing industrial work and those who are similarly qualified in the fourth class are given the task of directing and supervising it. Those of the third class who have particularly superior skill and high efficiency are permitted to work for their own profit in time other than working hours, but that time is limited to two hours per day.

Moral Education Prisoners belonging to the first and fourth classes are chiefly given individual moral and religious instruction, while those belonging to the second and third classes receive the same instruction en masse. Listening to music broadcast on the radio and listening to the playing of gramophone records is permitted to those belonging to the second and higher classes. The time for the enjoyment of this privilege is fixed at twice a month for those belonging to the second class, which may be increased to three times and four times for those belonging to the third and fourth classes respectively. The governor may permit members of the third and fourth classes to hold moral cultural meetings, the number of times being limited to once for those belonging to the third class and twice for those belonging to the fourth. Prisoners of the fourth class are permitted to read books or see pictures in the prison library on days free from labour, and may also borrow suitable newspapers and magazines from it. Those of the third and fourth classes may be permitted to play athletic games, the number of times for such amusements being limited to once a month for those of the third and twice for those of the fourth class. While those belonging to the first class

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are permitted to interview or send letters only to their relatives and those who are concerned with their protection, those belonging to the second and higher classes are permitted to interview or send letters to those who do not interfere with their moral instruction, besides their relatives. The number of interviews and the number of letters that may be written increase in proportion to advances in class.

Provisions, drinks and other articles for the maintenance of the health of prisoners are uniform and do not differ according to classes. Those belonging to the fourth class are given white garments, are permitted to decorate their cells with flowers or pictures, and are lent table-ware and other sundry articles for common use.

Suspension of Progress In case any prisoner violates the prison regulations, the treatment on the progressive system may be suspended for up to a period of 3 months, but in case it is recognized that there are certain circumstances which have to be taken into consideration before the suspension or in case the prisoner shows signs of sincere penitence the enforcement of the the sentence of suspension may be postponed for a fixed period of time. If he further violates the prison regulations during that period, the sentence of suspension will be enforced, but if he passes the said period without any further violation it will not be carried out. Further, in case a prisoner shows marked signs of penitence after the sentence has been delivered, this will be taken into consideration and the sentence repealed in full or in part. In case a prisoner who has been punished with suspension of the treatment again violates the prison regulations, he may be transferred to a lower class according to the circumstances of the case. When a prisoner who has been punished with such degradation shows marked signs of penitence he will be restored to his former category without reckoning his marks.

When any person of the fourth class has served one-third of his term of imprisonment and the prison governor considers him fit for provisional release his case should be reported on to the Minister of Justice. Even one who belongs to lower classes and who has served one-third of his term and shows notable signs of penitence and is considered to be fully adapted to social life may be specifically granted provisional release, subject to the approval of the conference for provisional treatment on the progressive system.

Prison Labour

Paragraph 2 of the Japanese Criminal Code provides : " Any convict sentenced to penal servitude shall be detained in a prison and subjected to a fixed amount of labour." This " fixed amount of labour constitutes prison labour. It is not legally imposed on convicts punished with imprisonment or custody, but its imposition is permitted in case they desire it. Since the institution of the ninsoku-yoseba at Ishikawajima hard labour has been recognized as an essential part of the discipline of prisoners, and present-day criminal theory in Japan is opposed to punishment by the restriction of personal liberty without the imposition of hard labour. Accordingly, prison authorities are encouraging industrial work at their own request by prisoners punished with imprisonment or custody.

The Three Systems Industrial work in prisons is managed on three systems, viz.: the public account system, the " made-to-order " system, and the contract system. Under the public account system, a prison itself purchases materials, provides itself with the necessary machinery, implements and tools and makes prisoners manufacture or repair articles or carry on labour under the direction of prison officials, and sells the products. Under the " made-to-order " system, the chief materials are supplied by the outside buyers and prisoners either manufacture or repair articles under the direction of industrial work experts and assistant industrial work experts on the prison staff, and when the articles are either manufactured or repaired the wages of the workers and the cost of requisites in the manufacture or repair are calculated and the prices of the articles fixed by the standard of current prices. The articles are then delivered to the buyers on payment of the account. Under the contract system, applicants have to supply not only materials, machinery, implements and tools, but also experts for the direction of work, a prison only offering the labour of prisoners and receiving their wages in exchange. Under the contract system now in force in Japan, the prison authorities undertake the supply of provisions, etc. to prisoners, as well as undertaking their supervision and selection for work, and nothing like the lease system that was in vogue in South American countries at one time is recognized.

Among the above-mentioned three different systems, the public account system does not permit any third party

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other than prison officials to direct prisoners in the prosecution of their work as in the case of the contract system and, moreover, enables the prison authorities to select and impose on prisoners such kinds of work as are suited for their moral instruction and vocational education. In these respects, it is considered to be the most desirable for the enforcement of penological measures and its adoption is greatly encouraged.

Training for Occupations In imposing work on prisoners, the most suitable kinds of work are given them not only by taking into consideration health, economy, terms of imprisonment, ability, occupations in free life, and future means of livelihood, but also by scientifically examining their individual adaptabilities to occupations. Industrial work in prisons is the most suitable means of giving moral instruction to prisoners; in particular, training them in certain lines of work in the course of detention is the best way to prevent them from perpetrating crimes once again. Since 1926, therefore, houses for the training of prisoners for occupations have been erected in different prisons throughout the country and there prisoners have been trained for occupations requiring special skill, such as those of carpenters, joiners, furniture-makers, tin-smiths, plasterers, timber-mill workers, painters, smiths, shoemakers, etc. The term of training is 6 months, during which fundamental theories and practice are taught.

Rewards Given as Favours Working hours are from 12 to 13 hours a day and differ according to months. It is permitted to give educational or moral instruction to prisoners or allow them to take exercise within these hours. A time of recess—15 minutes in the morning and 25 minutes in the afternoon—is given them. All the income from the work of prisoners goes into the national treasury, irrespective of whether it arises from work or from wages. A prisoner who has worked may receive a reward as a favour. This gratuity varies from ¥0.20 to ¥10.00 per month and the sums are fixed according to conduct, character, kinds of work, and the results of the work done. Any one who does particularly superior work is given an additional reward not exceeding ¥10.00. The reward for his work is, in principle, not given a prisoner until he is released from prison, but (1) in case a prisoner is entitled to ¥10.00 a month or more, and the money is needed to support his father, mother, wife, child, or to compensate the sufferer from his crime, or to purchase books or other necessary articles, one-third of the amount may be given him while in confinement, and (2) in case it is particularly necessary to do so for the sake of a prisoner, the entire reward may be handed over to him, irrespective of its amount and the way of spending it. In case a prisoner has been injured or has fallen sick while at work, and has died in consequence or has become unable to carry on any work, he may be entitled to a pecuniary reward according to the circumstances of the case. This reward is fixed within the limit of from ¥50 to ¥180 according to the details of the case.

The Hito Prisoners are given moral instruction en masse on national holidays, on the first two days of January and the 31st of December, or on Sundays. The same instruction is also given prisoners individually in case it is deemed necessary. It is chiefly given by chaplains appointed from among priests of the Shinshu sect. Adult prisoners who are uneducated and those under age receive an elementary school education. The latter are also given military training, which gives very satisfactory results in the way of moral instruction. Prisoners are permitted to read books and look at maps and pictures, unless it is injurious to the good order of the prison, but writings concerning current topics are forbidden. As, however, it is needful to keep them acquainted with changes in the condition of society, lest they should fall behind the times, a specially edited newspaper, "Hito," (Man) is issued and distributed among them.

Aid of Discharged Prisoners

Criminals come in general from among the poorer people, and when they are released from prisons after the completion of their term they are greatly handicapped in entering into gainful occupations or getting positions in shops or offices, being known as "Zenka-mono" or "former criminals," and dealt with as such by the society, and it becomes difficult for them to earn a livelihood, so that they are forced into further crimes. Of the total number of discharged prisoners the percentage of those who engage in crime a second time within 6 months of their discharge is found to be 43.1, and the percentage of those who commit a crime within another 6 months is 15.4, that is, the percentage of dicharged prisoners who commit a crime for the second time within one year is as high as 58.5. For the protection of the discharged prisoners

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measures have to be employed for giving moral instruction and a knowledge of some useful arts while providing them with necessary funds so that they may establish themselves in some suitable occupation. These works have been entirely left in the hands of volunteer social workers who have made valuable contributions. But the number of establishments for this purpose is insignificant as compared with the number of the ex-convicts who are in immediate need of protection and the fund contributed by benevolent persons to these protection houses is too insufficient. The trend of times since 1931 is to disregard the need for such social institutions because the attention of the people is drawn to far more important social problems requiring the reconstruction of national life so that little or no attention is paid to the preventive type of social work. Under the circumstances the amount of contributions to institutions for discharged prisoners began to dwindle, while the decreased rate of interest has lessened the income from endowment funds, and to make matters worse, the commodity prices have gone up. The present conditions of protection work for ex-convicts are such that they are far from making any material contribution toward decreasing the percentage of the second or habitual offenders referred to above.

Japan may have achieved much in regard to the efficiency of its procurators and the conditions of law courts and prisons, but the country's accomplishments in that direction will not produce full results unless necessary measures are instituted for the protection of ex-convicts. The only Governmental measure in this respect is that which pertains to thought offenders which became effective in November, 1936, and known as the Protection and Surveillance Law. The good results so far attained, by the establishment of the protection and surveillance stations and the organization of a special commission for the guidance of released thought offenders, has encouraged the authorities to expand the scope of this work, to include ex-convicts. Plans are under way for launching out protection measures for ex-convicts all over the nation by the promulgation or a law which is long overdue.

The Organizations Among these organizations, one noted for its systematic constitution and management was the Shutsu-gokunin Hogo Kaisha (Ex-Convicts Protection Co.) established by Mr. Meizen Kinbara in Shizuoka prefecture. In 1907, the Government decided to make an appropriation of ¥10,000 from the national treasury every year for the encouragement of the work and later, in 1912, the sum was increased to ¥30,000. With the development of the work the number of organizations grew and was returned at 211 throughout the country at the end of 1912. In 1913, Baron Hachiroyemon Mitsui, head of the House of Mitsui, donated ¥750,000 to the work, and with this money the Hosei-Kai, a foundation, was established for the control of, and extension of help to, various organizations interested in the work throughout the country. In 1925, the Government subsidy was increased to ¥100,000, and since 1923, the Imperial House has made an annual grant to encourage the work, with the result that the work has made steady development, the organizations today number approximately 800.

The Beneficiaries The persons protected by these organizations are not limited to those who have served the terms of their sentence, but include those who have been provisionally released; those, whose prosecution is suspended; those, the enforcement of whose sentence is suspended; and those who have been released from punishment for minor offences; as well as the members of the families of those who are detained in prisons. The method of protection is roughly classified into (a) quarters and protection, (b) indirect protection, and (c) temporary protection. Those to whom the method (a) is applied are quartered in places specially selected by the above-mentioned organizations and are given board, lodging and clothes as well as employment. Those to whom the method (b) is applied are not directly protected, but visits are paid to their fixed places of residence from time to time so as to give them advice and suggestions. Those to whom the method (c) is applied are given only temporary help at the time of liberation from prisons such as providing them with clothes and other necessaries and journey money.

Today, there exists in the Department of Justice the Section for the Protection of Ex-Prisoners which undertakes the direction and supervision of the welfare work of various associations, but as it cannot be expected that a small Section can thoroughly undertake such wide-spread work, it is increasingly advocated in different quarters that a system for the promotion of the welfare of ex-convicts should be

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instituted and the work connected therewith conducted by the State.

Police System

Its Fundamentals

There are two aims of the national administration. One is the administration of political affairs for the direct benefit of the nation as a whole, and the other is to protect the public welfare of the individuals who compose the nation. The function of the police is to look after the latter. There is a judicial function of the police that goes side by side with the first one, but the principal significance of the establishment of the police system is in its protection of public welfare. The work it performs can be considered more in a negative aspect than a positive one for it does not promote welfare work so much as it prevents and roots out matters which are, or may be, detrimental to peaceful social life. The police are endowed with authority to enforce the law or to give orders to the people. Police authority forms a part of the sovereign power of the State.

Authority Vested in State In Japan police authority is entirely vested in the State and is not delegated to other public bodies. In European countries, there are commonly the State police and the local police, the latter being under the jurisdiction of local authorities. In Japan all the police come under the direct administration of the State and no chiefs of local governments or local governments themselves have power over them except in a very few limited subjects. The police are administered in the name of the Emperor by the Minister of Home Affairs through the Superintendent-General of the Metropolitan Police, in Tokyo prefecture, governors of other prefectures and the Hokkaido procurator. Although nominally under the Governor of Tokyo prefecture, the Superintendent-General of the Metropolitan Police Board in Tokyo takes his orders direct from the Home Minister as the Board has many political responsibilities unknown in other prefectures. The appointment is actually a political one, the ordinary police business being carried out by the Chief of Police. In the Hokkaido and other prefectures the highest police official is the Chief of the Police Division. Under the Chiefs of Police are the police superintendents, inspectors, assistant inspectors and policemen. A police superintendent is appointed chief of a police station or secretary of a Police Division, or in Tokyo and Osaka prefectures he may be appointed inspector over several police stations. A police inspector or an assistant police inspector may, in some cases, be appointed chief or seretary of a police station. Policemen are divided into sergeants, indoor and outdoor service men, special service men, and police-detectives.

As mentioned above, police officials carry out judicial functions, and when acting in the capacity of judicial police officials and under the dictates of the public procurators they execute warrants of arrest or detention and arrest persons in flagrant offence. They may seize private possessions or search a house by order of a Court of Justice, an examining judge or a public procurator, or help a public procurator in the investigation of criminal cases.

In Times of Peace and Crisis In times of peace the maintenance of public order rests with the police. Individual policemen wear sabres. Pistols are carried only in special cases though in the police force there are troops of armed constables, while if matters become too serious and on special occasions, the gendarmerie is called on for help. The gendarme is a kind of military policeman, but at such times as the police force is too weak to keep public order, a Governor may ask for the aid of the gendarmerie. Moreover, at a time of crisis or extraordinary social disturbance, the army takes the place of the usual police force and acts with a despotic authority without limitation of the Law. The occasions which may call forth the military power for keeping public order are as follows : (1) when the country or a district is placed under martial law in times of war, (2) when a district is put under martial law for the maintenance of public order, (3) when the governor asks for the help of the army for subduing social disturbances, and (4) when a Divisional Commander recognizes the need of military power for keeping local order in an emergency in which the request from other authorities is too late.

Police Business

Police business in Japan is many-sided, and may be classified into 4 main lines and 24 kinds :

Public Peace (a) supervision of publications. The publication of all kinds

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of printed matter should be reported and a copy of each must be sent to the authorities. Secret publication is strictly forbidden. A sum of money as guarantee of good faith has to be deposited by the publishers of newspapers or periodicals which deal with political problems. The name of the person responsible for any publication must be printed on the publication. Secret matters which come under the control of the public procurators, the Ministers of War and Marine, and the Minister of Foreign Affairs must not be reported in newspapers or periodicals. The Home Minister may prohibit the publication of a periodical or any other printed matter which he considers detrimental to public welfare and morals.

(b) Supervision and care of public meetings, organization of societies and mass movements. According to the Public Peace Police Law, all public meetings on political questions and some other meetings which come under control of the authorities must be reported to a police-station beforehand. A policeman may be present at such a meeting and may stop a speech or close the meeting. The organization of such associations or societies as may endanger the existing form of Government and system of private property is strictly forbidden. The said P. P. P. Law inflicts heavy penalties on those who break these regulations.

(c) Supervision of businesses or commercial shops. Most businesses are free, but in some cases some kind of police supervision is necessary in the interests of public welfare, hygiene, prevention of damage, the safety of traffic, and social economy. For instance, such shops and businesses as inns, public baths, employment exchanges for geisha and prostitutes, credit information businesses, barbers, seal or stamp engravers, old clothes dealers, peddlers and stallholders are inspected or taken care of by the police. Pawnshops and curio or second-hand shops are under special regulations and police inspection and supervision is thoroughly practised as many stolen articles find their way into these shops, and lead to excellent results in the arrest of thieves and burglars. Guides, scribes and employment exchanges for profit are also under special regulations and strict supervision.

(d) Religion. It is the duty of the police to prevent the desecration of shrines and breaches of the peace in temple grounds. Superstitions and superstitious actions are prohibited by the Police Penal Law.

(e) Accidents. The police take charge in cases of fire, flood, explosion, of people being injured, etc. Regulations are issued on the handling of guns and explosives; the wearing of swords or the like is strictly forbidden; the handling or selling of poison is under a special regulation. Sulphur and oil businesses are under police care also. Buildings are under police supervision for their beauty, fire-proofness, and hygiene; factories, warehouses, theatres, and public resorts receive special attention. Crematories, slaughter-houses and incinerators must not be within residential or commercial districts of cities. Regulations regarding buildings are stricter than in Western countries because of the large number of wooden houses liable to fire and the constant fear of earthquakes. Electricity and gas businesses must not endanger the lives of people. Mines are under a special police regulation as they are most liable to fatal accidents. Prevention of floods also comes into the sphere of police business.

For the prevention and extinction of fires, fire-brigades are established in cities under the control of the Chief of the Police Division in the prefecture. In Tokyo prefecture, a fire division is established in the Metropolitan Police Board and firebrigade stations are located in different parts of Tokyo. In the larger cities, Osaka, Kyoto, Yokohama, Kobé and Nagoya special fire-brigade stations are established by the State. In the smaller municipalities fireguilds are established at the expense of local self-governments. The firemen are volunteers and differ from those in the said cities who are officials of the State.

(f) Public morals. The police look after the maintenance of good public manners and morals. Japan has a licensed prostitute system and forbids private prostitution and conniving at it. Through the efforts of Christian and other religious and public bodies and the growth of other means of pleasure, prostitution is growing less, but it is a duty of the police to see that the prostitutes are treated as humanely as possible as long as their term of service exists. All pleasure resorts such as theatres, places of performances, wrestling, movies, etc. are carefully supervised and any obscene or immoral performances prohibited.

Restaurants, dining rooms, bars, cafes and other eating places are under police supervision. The laws for prohibiting liquors and smoking to minors, the prohibition of lotteries, misbehaviour in the street or outdoors, and the regulations regarding street advertisements and the erection of monuments must be

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enforced.

(g) The care of men who are a danger to public peace and welfare, juveniles who are addicted to bad habits, ticket-of-leave men, the insane, beggars and vagrants are supervised by the police.

(h) Actions which may harm others such as forcing an interview, extorting contributions, blackmail, causing disturbances, obstruction, etc., are forbidden by the Police Penal Law. Deceitful actions, spreading false reports, and the mishandling of dead bodies come under the care of the police. Obstructing officials in pursuit of their duty is strictly forbidden. The care of lost articles, prohibition of deceitful religious actions, the supervision of "mujin-ko" and "tanomoshi-ko" or mutual financing associations come under police power to some extent.

Public Hygiene The problem of the health and hygiene of the people is one of the greatest concerns of the Department of Home Affairs, and in many points the responsibility of looking after such cannot be confined to the police alone, though in its direct management the police have much to do.

(a) Prevention of epidemics. For the prevention of epidemics there are many laws in force, the most important of them being the Epidemic Prevention Law, the Regulation for the Medical Inspection of Aviators, the Seaport Quarantine Law, the Vaccination Law, the Tuberculosis Prevention Law, the Trachoma Prevention Law, the Leprosy Prevention Law, the Venereal Diseases Prevention Law and the Parasites Prevention Law. The water police help in the medical inspection of passengers and goods arriving in vessels from abroad. The annual compulsory cleaning of individual houses and public buildings, drains, wells, dumping grounds, etc. is supervised by the police. When an epidemic breaks out policemen are used to try and confine it to as small an area as possible.

(b) Medical. As the health and welfare of the people depend on proper medical attention, doctors, dentists, midwives, nurses, masseurs and acupuncturists are under special regulations, as also are druggists and pharmacists. Poisonous chemicals are well looked after.

(c) General Health. A law is in force prohibiting the sale of unwholesome food, and utensils for eating, drinking and preparing food are under police supervision. (See Chapter XXXII.)

Traffic Police (a) Road. The police are responsible for safety on the streets. "Walk and drive on the left" is the rule of the road in Japan.

(b) Vehicles. Railroads, electric cars, automobiles, trucks, waggons, rikishas, bicycles, etc. are under police supervision.

(c) Water police. The water police look after foreign-going vessels entering and leaving open ports, navigation in closed ports, rivers and lakes, and the business of steamship companies doing a coastal trade.

(d) Ocean navigation has many international ramifications and though there are countless matters which ought to come under police supervision it is separated from common police business and put under the administration of the Department of Communications.

(e) The aviation police are put under the management of the Minister of Communications.

(f) Colonial police come under the control of the Minister of Overseas Affairs except in some cases which may come under the supervision of local governments.

Police and the People

The function of the State, as far as it concerns the economic life of the people is largely protective and administrative and certain laws and ordinances of the State have to be imposed on various businesses in order that the people shall be fully protected. The police work by orders from higher authorities at the request of the Ministers of Agriculture and Forestry, Commerce and Industry, and Finance.

(a) Banks, savings banks, mutual financing associations, negotiable security businesses, trust businesses, insurance businesses, commercial exchanges, the central wholesale markets in the six largest cities, foreign trade business in important articles, weighing and measuring machine businesses, and auditors partially are under police supervision or limitations.

(b) Agriculture is supervised by the police in such matters as the prevention of the spread of noxious insects, the control of plants imported or exported, the fertilizer industry, agricultural warehouses, the sericulture industry and the control of rice imports and exports.

(c) The hygiene and prevention of epidemics among domestic animals is looked after by the police. Many laws are enforced regarding the improvement of animals, and police power is needed for a proper practice of them, especially in connection with horse-racing.

(d) Forestry police mainly prevent damage to the forests.

(e) Fishery police protect the pro-

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pagation of aquatic animals and at the same time look after the safety of the fishermen. There are many laws and regulations on fisheries, whale-fishing, fishing boats, etc.

(f) The hunting of beasts and birds is limited to those mentioned in the revised Game Laws of 1918, the seasons and districts of hunting are put under police regulation.

(g) For the protection of labourers there are numerous laws in force, for instance, the Factory Law, Laws on the limitation of age of factory or marine workers, the Labour Accident Prevention Law, the Mine Law, and the Ordinance regarding the enlistment of workers. Policemen either help factory or mine inspectors or directly handle matters mentioned in these laws. Labour movements and disputes call for the use of police power frequently.

POLICE STATISTICS

	1933	1934	1935	1936
Police offices:				
Police stations	1,199	1,200	1,201	1,203
Water-Police stations	24	24	24	23
Branch stations	4,551	4,644	4,672	4,742
Police-boxes	14,056	14,147	14,240	14,242
Police officials:				
Police superintendents	339	339	346	351
Police inspectors	1,632	1,632	1,632	1,607
Assistant police inspectors	3,604	3,627	3,661	3,909
Policemen	63,439	63,974	60,887	60,609
Total	65,462	65,997	66,526	66,476
Fire-brigade stations	218	228	232	241
Fire-brigade officials	3,812	3,873	3,893	3,981
Firemen	12,674	12,559	12,486	12,646
Fire-guilds	11,211	11,362	11,446	11,477
Volunteer firemen	2,035,491	2,087,907	2,105,874	2,139,869
Criminal cases handled by police,				
Cases reported	2,713,729	2,925,557	2,937,557	2,634,933
Persons arrested	2,665,497	2,893,135	2,876,220	2,543,309
Suicides:				
Successful, men	10,945	10,860	10,400	11,490
women	6,582	6,379	6,270	6,262
Unsuccessful, men	3,945	3,944	3,844	3,794
women	2,758	2,765	2,642	2,710
Murder, Manslaughter, etc.	1,439	1,692	—	1,648
Traffic accidents:				
Cases	68,823	69,342	66,415	59,444
Killed	2,572	3,226	3,549	3,484
Wounded	46,338	50,204	49,227	45,323
Places of Entertainment:				
Theatres, buildings	1,878	1,899	1,898	1,942
Performances	33,217	31,967	31,593	35,628
Cinemas, buildings	1,459	1,458	1,503	1,547
Shows	76,118	78,497	82,540	82,419
Variety houses	587	526	507	507
Performances	16,302	16,063	16,037	16,974
Miscellaneous shows	59	65	73	80
Performances	12,544	12,444	11,689	11,274
Shops and houses under police supervision: (Items less than 10,000 are omitted)				
Pawn shops	13,300	12,738	12,585	12,203
Dealers in second-hand articles	270,968	283,873	294,297	308,988
Hotels	49,552	48,851	48,676	47,736
Boarding houses	10,436	10,902	11,916	12,626
Doss-houses	14,442	13,959	13,954	12,163
Restaurants	63,084	61,349	61,107	62,293
Cafés and bars	35,200	37,056	36,202	34,971

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	1933	1934	1935	1936
Geisha houses	20,949	21,197	21,612	22,052
Bath-houses	22,235	21,701	21,391	21,551
Eating houses	159,340	159,823	156,211	156,918
Employment exchanges	12,879	11,736	11,175	10,192
Printing houses	13,705	14,162	14,860	15,464
Barber's shops	74,694	74,687	75,944	76,455
Women's hair-dressers	55,095	53,314	51,154	48,283
Recreation houses	20,398	20,683	22,794	23,116
Building contractors	31,125	36,179	28,823	43,248
Shipping agents	11,839	12,250	12,307	12,064
Waggon-business men	149,446	148,881	142,977	137,747
Taxicab garages	23,381	27,898	28,972	32,803
Scribes	18,640	18,977	18,440	19,056
Bicycle dealers	37,676	39,545	40,850	42,216
Rikishamen	20,468	17,346	14,926	12,389
Factories	74,701	82,412	90,065	98,581
Licensed prostitution houses	10,281	9,738	9,526	9,386
Geisha girls, etc.				
Geisha	74,200	72,538	74,855	78,699
"Saké" waitresses	85,590	85,121	82,621	85,685
Café and bar waitresses	99,312	107,478	109,335	111,700
Prostitutes	49,302	45,705	45,837	47,078
Cinema films, inspected:				
Totol number of metres,	16,198,963	18,223,908	20,029,092	21,905,867
Japanese	13,722,236	15,322,117	16,651,811	18,267,431
American	2,035,822	2,278,121	2,431,976	2,699,090
European	440,905	623,670	945,305	939,346
Natural calamities and fires				
Flood:				
Municipalities struck	3,607	6,325	6,982	5,377
Flooded areas (hectare)	215,063	249,591	529,052	198,006
Buildings damaged	305	386,334	7,794	37,799
Boats lost	136	5,887	307	313
Persons drowned	18	973	532	93
Persons injured	22	5,529	949	158
Damages in yen	9,332,576	389,777,809	176,309,551	31,433,894
Tidal waves:				
Municipalities struck	489	333	405	291
Buildings damaged	19,974	6,034	3,985	2,464
Boats lost	11,266	2,107	1,364	339
Persons drowned	2,848	127	73	28
Persons injured	1,146	958	112	20
Damages in yen	19,943,549	4,580,944	3,683,076	1,722,680
Typhoons:				
Buildings damaged	19,867	42,763	15,312	55,947
Persons killed	67	201	71	97
Persons injured	83	786	32	254
Damages in yen	7,604,146	75,649,789	20,671,728	39,309,347
Fires:				
Number of fires	19,380	20,481	19,064	19,135
Dwellings damaged	12,488	23,717	13,750	11,323
Other buildings damaged	10,864	14,112	12,445	10,440
Damages in yen	34,935,000	171,922,000	53,945,000	48,729,000

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CHAPTER XXVIII

EDUCATION

Historical Background

Chinese letters and Confucian books were first introduced to Japan in the third century, and it was then that the civilization of the country made a real start. From the nearby peninsula of Korea came sericulture, weaving, brewing, and the art of the blacksmith. It was about his time that the Imperial Prince Wakairatsuko established a Court School.

In the sixth century Buddhism came to the Island Empire to give added material progress to the Japanese civilization, and in 607 the Imperial Prince Shotoku-taishi (see Chapter III) caused the Horyuji Temple to be built at Nara and there he established a shcool in the temple. These were the earliest schools of Japan.

In the latter half of the seventh century a college in the capital and some provincial schools were established to educate officials, according to the Taiho Laws. Later, in the Héian Age, the courses of study became encyclopædic and both public and private schools were established. In the Muromachi Age school education suffered a decline and only two places of study were recorded, namely, the Kanazawa Library and Ashikaga School, although there might have been private lecture halls kept secretly by scribes and Buddhist monks.

The Tokugawa Shogunate encouraged the study of Confucianism and several schools of this moral system and Chinese philosophy were introduced, and education extended to the common people. There were established many schools; the highest one was called the Shohéi Hill Academy or Shohéi School, which was established by the Shogunate. The central government had many other schools, while each local clan government also had its own schools. In addition to these, private schools and "téra-koya" appeared all over the country for the education of the people in general

"Téra-Koya" Education

The "téra-koya" needs some special explanation, as it played the most important part in the education of the masses before the Meiji Era, and laid the foundation for the remarkable progress of elementary education in new Japan.

The word "téra" means Buddhist temple and "koya" children's house, so the téra-koya was a school for chldren established by a Buddhist temple. It was originated many years before the time of the Tokugawa Shogunate by Buddhist monks. Side by side with Governmental schools for the samurai class, téra-koya education began to spread in the Yedo age among the common folks in business and farm quarters. It gradually ceased to be entirely in the hands of the monks, and assumed a form and nature quite different from the original.

The school-house was no longer in or attached to a temple; teaching was not restricted to the monks; the teacher might be a samurai, monk, doctor or Shinto priest. "Téra-koya" became merely a general name, and the founders téra-koya schools chose any name they liked for their own. The size of the schools was diverse, the largest one accommodating as many as two or three hundred pupils. There was rarely more than one teacher, but in the larger schools there might be an assistant. The age of the pupils ranged from 6 to 15 years. It was co-education, although the sexes sat apart. The courses of study were commonly penmanship, Japanese literature, and the use of the abacus, with such optional subjects as Chinese literature, poem composition, sewing, flower-arrangement or tea ceremonies. Many textbooks on moral precepts and letter writing were published and used in these schools. These schools were usually kept up largely out of the pocket of the school master himself, for his work was entirely voluntary, inspired by pure devotion to service, for which he gained the honour and respect of the community. According to the report of the Department of Education, there were 15,862 téra-koya in Japan at the beginning of the Meiji Era, or just before the establishment of the new elementary school system.

It must be remembered also that technical schools had made considerable progress in old Japan. Medical schools

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in particular were established in the Taiho Era, and medical science made steady progress toward the middle of the Yedo Age. The Tokugawa Shogunate established a medical school in 1765, and local clan lords followed this example. There were several private ones well known to the people. But these taught the Chinese method of the science, and the "materia medica" was almost entirely of herbs and animal matter. The modern or Western medical and its system and practice were introduced through Dutchmen at the end of the Yedo Era, so we may say that medical science was the earliest of all the sciences that were learned by the Japanese people from the Westerners.

Educational Administration

The present educational system of Japan dates from 1872 the 5th year of Meiji, when elementary education was made compulsory. The new system was established, in the main, after the examples of the French system, and the entire country was divided into 7 university districts, each of them consisting of 32 middle school districts and each of which was again divided into 210 primary school districts, or one primary school for 600 of population. The national educational principles are stated in the Imperial Rescript on Education issued on Oct. 30, 1890. This world-renowned rescript was published to lay down leading ideas and principles for the guidance of the Japanese, and it reads as follows:

"Know ye, Our Subjects!

Our Imperial Ancestors have founded Our Empire on a basis broad and everlasting and have deeply and firmly implanted virtue; Our subjects, ever united in loyalty and filial piety, have from generation to generation illustrated the beauty thereof. This is the glory of the fundamental character of Our Empire, and herein also lies the source of Our education. Ye, Our subjects be filial to your parents, affectionate to your brothers and sisters; as husbands and wives be harmonious, as friends true; bear yourselves in modesty and moderation; extend your benevolence to all; pursue learning and cultivate arts, and thereby develop your intellectual faculties and perfect your moral powers; furthermore, advance the public good and promote common interests; always respect the Constitution and observe the laws; should any emergency arise, offer yourselves courageously to the State; and thus guard and maintain the prosperity of Our Imperial Throne, coeval with heaven and earth. So shall ye not only be Our good and faithful subjects, but render illustrious the best traditions of your forefathers.

The way here set forth is indeed the teaching bequeathed by Our Imperial Ancestors, to be observed alike by Their Descendants and subjects, infallible for all ages and true in all places. It is Our wish to lay it to heart in all reverence, in common with you, Our subjects, that we may all thus attain to the same virtue."

The 30th day of the 10th month of the 23rd year of Meiji.
(Imperial Sign Manual)
(Imperial Seal)

All school education in Japan is supervised by the State, being partly entrusted to local public bodies such as the prefectural councils, towns and villages.

Private individuals are also allowed to found schools and universities, although here too the Government does not give much latitude of method or scope, and the uniformity of school education in all parts of the Empire has worked well in bringing the degree of advancement in modern ways and thought to almost the same level throughout the land, and greatly strengthening the national spirit and unity of the people.

The points entrusted to local public bodies are chiefly financial matters, pertaining to the establishment and maintenance of schools, some of which are obligatory while some are left to the discretion of local bodies. The obligatory matters are the establishment by Hokkaido and the prefctures of normal schools, middle schools for boys and girls, schools for the blind and for the deaf-and-dumb, technical schools by order of the Minister of Education, and that of ordinary elmentary schools by cities, towns and villages. Municipalities may not establish higher normal schools, and Hokkaido and the prefectures alone are authorized to establish universities, higher schools and normal schools.

The main principles regarding the nature and objects of schools, their scholastic terms, curricula, organizations, entrance qualifications, qualifications for the teachers, equipment, means of meeting the expenditure, and tuition fees are prescribed by Imperial Ordinances. The establishment of schools

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by public bodies or private individuals must be approved by the local supervising authorities, which also exercise control to a certain extent over their methods of education and finances.

Religion is, on principle, excluded from the educational agenda of schools. In all schools established by the Government and local public bodies, and in private schools whose curricula are regulated by laws and ordinances, it is forbidden to give religious instruction or to hold religious ceremonies either in or out of the regular curricula.

Education in the colonies comes under the control or the colonial governments, and the military schools belong to the War and the Navy Departments, while there are some technical schools which come under the supervision of other departments. But with these exceptions, it may be safely said that the Minister of Education has charge of all matters relating not only to school education, but also to what may be termed social education, such as art, science, literature and religion. He is assisted by the parliamentary councillor in the conduct of political affairs and in matters which are connected with the business of the Imperial Diet. The vice-minister assists him in the business part of the Department.

Of the affairs within the jurisdiction of the Department, those that are related to education, art, science, and literature are distributed respectively among the Bureaux of Higher Education, General Education, Technical Education, Social Education, School Books, and Student Control, and those pertaining to religion are under the direction of the Bureau of Religion. Those affairs which do not properly belong to any one of these bureaux are dealt with in the Minister's Secretariat. In addition there are school superintendents, who inspect schools and directly supervise educational affairs; supervisors of social education who direct and supervise social educational affairs; superintendents of compilation who compile and examine text-books; and supervisors of school hygiene who look after the sanitary conditions of schools. Various advisory committees with prominent men in and out of office as members are instituted to help the Minister of Education in matters of wider scope.

The Minister of Education is authorized to direct and supervise the Superintendent of the Metropolitan Police and the local governors in matters under his control.

The prefectural governors direct and supervise their subordinate officials and exercise supervision over the public and private schools, kindergartens and libraries within their jurisdictions. There is a Division of Educational Affairs in each prefecture which has control of matters relating to education. School inspectors and sub-inspectors in it inspect schools and conduct educational business directly.

The mayors of cities and towns and the heads of villages deal with affairs regarding elementary schools and exercise control over them. The mayors of cities, moreover, have authority to make recommendations to prefectural governors in the appointment of the principals and teachers of elementary schools. The municipalities have school boards to look after elementary schools.

School Education

As is shown in the following tables, Japan is well provided with schools, ranging from kindergartens up to universities. Almost all the elementary schools are controlled by public bodies.

Conditions are different when we come to secondary education, for which there exist a considerable number of private schools, and in the case of schools of the highest grade the private establishments quite outrange in number those under official control.

Only 18 out of the 45 existing universities were built by the Government, 2 by public bodies and the rest by private bodies.

The total number of schools in Japan proper and their enrolment in the last five years, 1933-1936, is shown below:

Year	Schools	Students
1937	48,215	15,242,333
1936	47,750	14,949,792
1935	46,138	14,035,823
1934	45,903	13,760,200
1933	45,793	13,408,971

Classified according to types, the number of schools in Japan proper on March 1, 1937, with the number of students enrolled, was as follows:

	Schools	Students
Elementary Schools	25,840	11,566,912
Middle Schools	559	352,320
Girls' High Schools	985	432,553
Business Schools	1,301	433,437
Young People's Schools	17,043	1,964,599
Higher Schools	32	17,097
Universities	45	72,195
Colleges	118	71,779
Higher Trade and Industrial Colleges	60	26,591

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	Schools	Students
Normal Schools	101	30,256
Higher Normal Schools	2	1,795
Higher Normal Schools for Women	2	875
Special Institutes for the Training of Teachers	1	58
Institutes for the Training of Business School Teachers	4	364
Institutes for the Training of Young People's School Teachers	47	1,315
Schools for the Blind	78	5,040
Schools for the Deaf and Dumb	62	5,526
Miscellaneous Schools	1,935	259,621
Total	48,215	15,242,333
Kindergartens	1,946	152,627

Elementary Education

Elementary education in Japan is compulsory and has attained to its present high level of excellence through many improvements since the promulgation of the School Ordinance in 1872. In the Imperial Ordinance relating to Elementary Schools the object of elementary education is defined as follows :

" Elementary schools are designed to give children the rudiments of moral education specially adapted to make of them good members of the community, together with such general knowledge and skill as are necessary for the practical duties of life, due attention being paid to their bodily development."

According to the system of compulsory education all children from 6 to 14 years of age are called school-age children, and those who exercise parental authority over them, or their legal guardians, must send them either to the ordinary elementary schools established by the cities, towns or villages until they complete the required course of study, or to schools established by the Government, prefectures or by private individuals, recognized as equal to the ordinary ones above mentioned. The law is not enforced when a child is unfit for study owing to physical or mental deficiency or cannot be sent to school by reason of extreme poverty. There is a provision which requires the employers of school-age children to see that the work imposed does not interfere with their going to school.

The responsibility of establishing ordinary elementary schools is placed upon cities, towns and villages, and they are making efforts to maintain schools even in the dire depression of the past few years. At the same time, however, special provisions permit the State Treasury to bear part of the expense, and the diffusion of elementary school education in Japan proper is all but ideal, the number of the school-age children attending schools maintaining the rate of 99.58 per cent for the past five years.

The full figures are as follows :

These figures represent the condition existing on March 31 of the respective years.

Year	School-age Children	Children Attending Schools	Children not Attending Schools	Percentage of Children Attending Schools
1937	11,482,451	11,434,983	47,468	99.59
1936	11,358,094	11,311,266	46,828	99.59
1935	11,150,824	11,103,920	46,904	99.58
1934	11,024,532	10,978,718	45,814	99.58
1933	10,754,962	10,708,930	46,032	99.57

Elementary schools are divided into two grades, namely, ordinary or lower and higher. The former are for the beginners and their course extends over six years. The latter are for those who have completed the lower course, and their courses are of two or three years' duration. The subjects taught are morals, Japanese language, arithmetic, Japanese history, geography, science, drawing, singing, sewing (for girls only) and gymnastics. In the higher courses, either one or more subjects out of handicraft, agriculture, industry, commerce and domestic science (for girls only), are added, and if local circumstances make it advisable, handicraft in ordinary elementary schools and foreign languages and other useful subjects in higher elementary schools may also be taught.

An elementary school may comprise both the ordinary and the higher elementary school courses and may equip itself with a supplementary course of not more than two years.

Under the present system of compulsory education the father's responsibility ends when his child has graduated from the lower elementary school. But

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the ordinary elementary education of children is not sufficient for the existing conditions of society, and many cities, towns and villages establish higher elementary schools either independently or in connection with ordinary ones.

The following table will give a general idea of the conditions of elementary schools as they were in 1937:

ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS IN 1937

Schools	Governmental	Public	Private	Total
Ordinary	—	6,924	77	7,001
Ordinary and Higher	4	18,622	20	18,646
Higher	—	192	1	193
Total	4	25,738	98	25,840
Classes				
Ordinary and supplementary	55	197,298	662	198,015
Higher and supplementary	7	38,247	43	38,297
Total	62	235,545	705	236,312
Teachers	92	260,471	899	261,462
Pupils	2,333	11,537,841	26,738	11,566,912
Graduates	450	2,263,322	4,291	2,268,063
Entrants	488	2,636,961	5,550	2,642,999
Daily Attendance				
Ordinary	2,047	9,573,920	24,300	9,600,267
Higher	197	1,638,998	1,465	1,640,660
Total	2,244	11,212,918	25,765	11,240,927
Percentage of Daily Attendance				
Ordinary	95.83	97.14	96.48	97.14
Higher	96.12	96.52	97.47	96.52
Average	95.86	97.05	96.75	97.05

Teachers There are more male teachers than female in the Japanese elementary schools, and they are classified according to their education and special abilities, as (1) elementary school teachers (2) lower elementary school teachers, (3) teachers on special subjects, (4) assistant teachers, and (5) substitute teachers. The teachers belonging to the first two classes are regular teachers properly qualified for the elementary education of children.

ELEMENTARY SCHOOL TEACHERS CLASSIFIED

(March 1, 1937)

Ordinary Elementary Schools	Male	Female	Total
Regular teachers	121,367	57,634	179,001
Special teachers	3,608	6,969	10,577
Assistant teachers	3,472	1,974	5,446
Substitute teachers	11,290	11,016	22,306
Total	139,737	77,593	217,330
Higher Elementary Schools			
Regular teachers	35,890	3,388	39,278
Special teachers	1,862	1,285	3,147
Assistant teachers	61	9	70
Substitute teachers	1,279	358	1,637
Total	39,092	5,040	44,132
Grand total	178,829	82,633	261,462

Secondary Education

For the secondary grades there are middle schools for boys, girls' high schools, business schools and Young People's schools.

Middle Schools The course of the middle school extends over five years, and its object is to give boys such a higher general education as will fit them to be useful members of society after their graduation. The subjects taught

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are morals, civics, the Japanese language and Chinese classics, history, both Japanese and foreign, geography, a foreign language (either one of English, German, French or Chinese), mathematics, science, technical studies, drawing, music, practical work (carpentering, gardening, etc) and gymnastics.

From the fourth year upwards, the subjects are selected and arranged into two groups, the pupils making choice between the two. Under special circumstances, however, the Minister of Education may authorize a school in which either of the two groups may be dispensed with. This dual system of curriculum is of benefit on the one hand to the pupils who wish to take up employment immediately upon graduation, and on the other to those who wish to advance to collegiate schools.

To the regular course a supplementary course of one year or less may be added, and, if local circumstances require, a preparatory course of two years may also be provided. A boy who desires to enter a middle school must complete either its preparatory course or the full course of an ordinary elementary school. Those who are twelve or more years of age and in possession of adequate scholastic attainments may be admitted upon examination. Those who have completed the fifth year (the course of the ordinary elementary school ends with the sixth year as mentioned above) of an ordinary elementary school and are physically well developed and have shown excellent scholarship are allowed to apply for the entrance examination, even though under twelve years of age; this is to give a chance to specially gifted boys.

The following are the figures for middle schools and their pupils on March 1 of each year:

Year	Schools	Pupils
1937	559	352,320
1936	557	340,657
1935	555	330,992
1934	554	327,261
1933	558	329,459

A general idea of the condition of the middle schools in 1937 may be obtained by the following table:

MIDDLE SCHOOLS IN 1937

	Governmental	Public	Private	Total
Schools	2	438	119	559
Classes, regular course	25	6,261	1,426	7,712
Number of boys in one class	38.56	45.66	45.51	45.61
Teachers, licensed	59	10,249	2,417	12,725
		Female 2	Female 2	Female 4
„ non-licensed	—	870	590	1,460
		Female 5	Female 3	Female 8
Total	59	11,126	3,012	14,197
Pupils, regular course	964	285,897	64,892	351,753
	Preparatory	—	15	15
Pupils; supplementary course	—	459	93	552
Total	964	286,356	65,000	352,320
Graduates, regular course	158	47,160	9,243	56,561
	Preparatory	—	15	15
„ supplementary course	—	951	93	1,044
Total	158	48,111	9,351	57,620
Applicants, regular course	1,169	105,186	39,415	145,770
„ supplementary course	—	3,042	183	3,225
Total	1,169	108,228	39,598	148,995
Admitted, regular course	204	64,977	16,207	81,389
Admitted, supplementary Course	—	1,892	145	2,037
Total	204	66,869	16,353	83,426
Left school, regular course	32	17,297	7,050	24,379

Girls' High Schools The system of high schools for girls is made flexible to suit practical requirements. A girl who has completed elementary school or has equivalent scholastic attainments and is twelve years or more of age may be admitted to a girls' high school. The course of the girls' high school extends over four or five years, and those schools whose entrance requirement is the completion of the higher elementary school or the possession of the same or higher scholastic attainments are allowed to shorten their course to three years. There is another kind of girls' high school which is called Girls' Do-

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mestic High School, where domestic science is the main course of study, and its regular course extends over two to four years. Girls who wish to take only one part of the course are allowed to do so on application. A supplementary course of two years or less may be provided for the benefit of those who wish to continue their study after completing the regular course, and a post-graduate course or a higher course of two or three years for the purpose of giving higher education. In the cases of the higher course, higher qualifications are required of the teachers and its standard is brought up almost to that of the higher school for boys.

The subjects taught in a girls' high school are the same as those taught in the middle schools, but with the addition of domestic science and sewing, the required hours of study being from 28 to 29 a week. In the case of the Girls' Domestic High School, technical study added and the hours for domestic science and sewing are double those of the ordinary high school, the time allowed for other subjects being shortened, and foreign languages omitted altogether. Under special circumstances the foreign language, drawing and music may be omitted, and if local circumstances require, pedagogics, manual arts, technical studies and other useful subjects may be taught in addition to the normal curriculum. In cases the total weekly hours may be increased to a little over 30. The curriculum of a domestic course of three years, the entrance requirement of which is the completion of the first year of the higher elementary school, is to be suitably drawn up on the basis of that of a domestic course of two years, the entrance requirement of which is the completion of the higher elementary school, and be submitted to the Minister of Education for approval.

The progress of female education is phenomenal in modern Japan and girls, high schools have taken very marked strides in recent years both in number and quality. At the end of March, 1937, there were 985 girls' high schools in Japan proper, many of them being provided with, or contemplating the provision of, a post-graduate course or a higher course.

The number of schools and girl students on March 1 of each year was as follows :

Year	Schools	Girls
1937	985	432,553
1936	974	412,126
1935	970	388,935
1934	975	371,807
1933	963	361,739

GIRLS' HIGH SCHOOLS IN 1937

	Governmental	Public	Private	Total
Schools:				
High School	2	581	223	806
Domestic H. S.	1	160	18	179
Total	3	741	241	985
Classes:				
Regular course	20	5,720	2,371	8,111
In a class, average	46.60	48.98	48.30	48.78
Post graduate	—	24	—	24
In a class, average	—	27.50	—	27.50
Domestic High School	4	592	116	712
In a class, average	48.25	42.49	40.47	42.19
Teachers, licensed:				
High School, regular course, male	15	5,567	1,993	7,575
female	28	3,954	2,172	6,154
Post graduate, male	—	43	—	43
female	—	2	—	2
Domestic High School, male	6	320	94	420
female	4	522	76	602
Teachers, unlicensed:				
High School, regular course, male	—	297	470	767
female	—	207	463	670
Post graduate, male	—	14	—	14
female	—	5	—	5
Domestic High School, male	—	70	41	111
female	—	56	36	92

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	Governmental	Public	Private	Total
Total, male	21	6,311	2,598	8,930
female	32	4,746	2,747	7,525
Total	53	11,057	5,345	16,455
Pupils	1,282	311,056	120,215	432,553
Graduates	280	73,607	24,174	98,061
Applicants	1,365	127,709	64,675	193,749
Admitted	316	86,982	29,785	117,083
Left school in the school year	16	12,454	5,979	18,449

Business Schools Business schools of secondary grade are established for the purpose of giving young people the practical knowledge and skill necessary in various vocations, and much is left to the discretion of the founders as to the systems of schools in order to suit the special needs of different industries, trades and localities. The courses may extend from two to five years according to the nature of the school. A period of not longer than one year may be added to the maximum prescribed course. Further provisions are allowed to meet the needs of those who desire to take only a part of the curriculum, for those who, after completing the prescribed course, still desire to remain for further study, and for those who wish after completing the course of a middle school or girls' high school, to enter a business school with the object of receiving business education; and lastly for those who wish to receive instruction in a simple way for only a short period.

On March 1, 1937 there were 1,301 business schools. The figures for the years 1933-37 are given below:

Year	Schools	Pupils
1937	1,301	433,437
1936	1,250	396,968
1935	1,125	367,026
1934	1,041	316,846
1933	1,024	298,893

Business schools are divided into two classes, A and B. Those schools which belong to A class admit boys and girls who have completed the course of the ordinary elementary school, while those which belong to B class admit those who have completed the course of the higher elementary school. And they are of six kinds, namely, Technical, Agricultural, Fisheries, Commercial, Navigation and Practical. Figures relating to these business schools in 1937 are given below.

BUSINESS SCHOOLS (A)

	Schools	Teachers	Pupils	Graduates	Applicants	Admitted	Left School
Technical	110	2,619	43,930	8,612	40,813	12,927	2,198
Agricultural	255	3,015	58,215	16,803	26,899	20,272	2,573
Commercial	325	7,283	187,822	30,950	96,523	48,599	14,039
Navigation	8	125	1,787	474	749	446	70
Fisheries	14	170	2,503	519	1,212	736	118
Practical	282	3,588	67,706	24,595	36,190	28,921	3,869
Total	994	16,800	361,963	81,953	202,386	111,901	22,867

BUSINESS SCHOOLS (B)

	Schools	Teachers	Pupils	Graduates	Applicants	Admitted	Left School
Technical	38	454	9,894	4,051	15,298	7,028	1,295
Agricultural	111	962	22,299	7,698	9,749	8,701	1,294
Commercial	86	824	23,468	8,143	16,552	11,590	2,048
Navigation	1	9	55	72	151	151	42
Fisheries	5	15	269	44	233	170	32
Practical	66	568	15,489	9,223	14,724	12,270	2,027
Total	307	2,832	71,474	29,231	56,707	39,910	6,738

Of these schools, 13 technical, 15 agricultural, 138 commercial, and 144 practical schools were under private management.

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Young People's School On April 1, 1935, the Young People's School was established by the amalgamation of the Young Men's Training Institute and the Business Continuation School. The attendance became compulsory from April, 1939.

The purpose of the new institution is to elevate young people's attainment as citizens of Japan by training mind and body, by cultivating moral nature and by educating in knowledge and ability indispensable to their profession and practical life.

The course of study of Young People's School is graded into three, common, regular and post graduate. The common course extends over two years, the regular course five years for boys and three years for girls (four years for boys and two years for girls may be allowed according to local conditions), and the post graduate course over one year. Graduates of the lower course of elementary school may enter the common course of Young People's School; those who finished the common course may be advanced to the regular course, while the graduates of the higher course of elementary school have the same privilege; and graduates of the regular course or those who are in possession of an adequate scholastic attainment may take the post graduate course.

Subjects of study are, in the common course, morals, civics, some of subjects common to middle schools, agricultural subjects and gymnastics, with additional studies on housekeeping and sewing for girls only; in the regular course the same subjects are given in a more advanced grade; and in the post graduate course, morals, civics and certain studies selected from the subjects of the regular course. Special course may be added. Pupils are free of charge as a rule.

The number of Young People's Schools and that of their pupils for the years 1933-1937 were as follows:

Year	Schools	Pupils
1937	17,043	1,964,599
1936	16,708	1,902,876
1935	15,306	1,281,814
1934	15,140	1,271,530
1933	15,091	1,270,874

Higher Education

The institutions for higher education are higher schools, universities, colleges, and higher trade and industrial colleges.

Higher normal schools, institutions for training teachers of higher education, post-graduate or supplementary courses in secondary educational institutions and higher grade classes of the special educational institutions are mentioned under other headings, though they might be included here with the other higher educational organs.

The number of schools under this heading, higher normal schools and teachers training institutions and that of students on March 1 of each year follow:

Year	Schools	Students
1937	259	190,332
1936	259	189,151
1935	255	186,963
1934	257	184,473
1933	261	183,792

Higher Schools (Koto Gakko) The higher school is primarily an institution whose object is to complete the general education of young men. But it is as a matter of fact a preparatory school for universities or higher trade and industrial colleges in present-day Japan. No women are admitted. It is divided into two courses, the higher and the lower. The former extends over three and the latter over four years, making seven in all. A post-graduate course of one year may be taken after the higher course. Some schools have the higher course alone. On May 30, 1937, the higher schools with the higher course alone numbered 25, while those with both lower and higher courses numbered 7.

The entrance requirements for the lower course are practically the same as those for the middle schools. The higher course is divided into the literature and science courses and a candidate must be one who has completed the lower course of the same school or one who has completed the fourth year of the middle school or whose scholastic attainments are equal or superior to the same standard.

There are about the same number of preparatory courses of universities which correspond to higher schools and are directly attached to universities. The following figures for 1936-37 refer to the higher schools only.

HIGHER SCHOOLS

(1936-1937)

Schools	32
(Schools which have lower course)	(7)
Teachers	1,269
Lower Course	161
Students	14,656
Lower Course	2,441

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Graduates	4,477
Lower Course	573
Applicants	30,538
Lower Course	3,769
Entrants	4,670
Lower Course	601
Left School	396
Lower Course	49

Of the 32 schools, 25 are governmental, 3 public and 4 private.

Universities A university (Daigaku), in its regular form, consists of several faculties, but a single faculty may also constitute a daigaku. Each faculty is required to have a post-graduate course, and in those universities which include several faculties a university hall may be established for keeping the various post-graduate courses in touch with one another. Under special circumstances a preparatory course may be provided.

Admission to a university is extended to the graduates from higher schools and from preparatory courses of its own, and to those who have the same scholastic attainments. When a student has studied in the university for three years or more (four years or more in the faculty of medicine) from the date of his entrance, and has passed a prescribed examination, he may assume the degree of "Gaku-shi" (lit. "learned gentleman") or Bachelor. He is also qualified to enter the post-graduate course. In many universities facilities are provided for those who wish to pursue studies only in some particular subjects according to prescribed regulations.

A university is authorized to confer a doctor's degree on persons who have pursued studies for a period of two years or more in the post-graduate course and whose theses have been approved by the faculty council. Those who have not pursued studies in the post-graduate course may also submit theses and apply for doctor's degrees. The degree is conferred when the faculty council is satisfied with the theses.

UNIVERSITIES, March, 1937

		Professors	Students & Pupils	Graduates	Appplicants	Entrants	Left School
GOVERNMENTAL:							
Tokyo Imperial		676	8,039	2,246	5,144	2,585	412
Kyoto Imperial		567	5,631	1,303	2,469	1,922	522
Tohoku Imperial		233	1,735	434	1,058	594	72
Kyushu Imperial		272	1,960	516	1,166	677	165
Hokkaido Imperial		300	2,252	649	4,918	762	48
Osaka Imperial		227	1,291	252	607	382	118
Niigata Medical		46	362	71	103	97	7
Okayama Medical		45	449	105	131	116	1
Chiba Medical		56	760	184	604	240	14
Kanazawa Medical		55	521	128	362	151	5
Nagasaki Medical		79	527	130	442	139	12
Kumamoto Medical		37	335	86	113	92	6
Nagoya Medical		71	435	73	132	130	22
Tokyo Commercial		167	2,225	669	3,737	794	60
Kobé Commercial		47	647	214	431	215	17
Tokyo Technical		109	583	169	571	199	19
Tokyo Literature and Science		123	413	108	207	150	30
Hiroshima Literature and Science		83	365	106	201	135	9
Total	18	3,193	28,530	7,443	22,396	9,380	1,539
PUBLIC:							
Kyoto Medical		63	668	168	570	191	3
Osaka Commercial		89	775	240	1,294	260	22
Total	2	152	1,443	408	1,864	451	25
PRIVATE:							
Kéio-Gijuku		298	6,861	1,962	6,069	2,398	234
Waséda		430	8,063	2,752	9,591	3,154	569
Meiji		153	3,305	1,073	1,715	1,415	277
Hoséi		189	2,514	729	1,518	1,260	452
Chuo		157	2,668	882	1,453	1,108	552
Nippon		316	3,867	1,188	2,703	1,703	654
Kokugakuin		87	580	208	361	266	31

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		Professors	Students & Pupils	Graduates	Applicants	Entrants	Left School
Doshisha		103	1,392	399	866	622	170
Tokyo Jikéi-kai Medical		64	1,274	351	2,244	356	21
Ryukoku		89	641	181	336	250	70
Otani		84	471	140	209	181	44
Senshu		134	1,355	392	836	583	174
Rikkyo		121	1,481	407	945	549	95
Ryuméi-kan		72	931	335	588	506	175
Kansai		160	1,370	417	897	699	246
Takushoku		89	724	227	377	284	74
Risshio		100	338	106	116	115	27
Komazawa		89	416	134	106	95	18
Tokyo Agricultural		67	681	250	662	288	46
Nippon Medical		62	1,143	282	2,154	331	21
Koyasan		33	241	94	120	111	25
Taisho		118	509	158	174	147	62
Toyo		68	160	65	73	55	20
Jochi		65	196	64	136	116	53
Kansaigakuin		128	1,041	377	630	466	76
Total	25	3,276	42,222	13,173	34,879	17,058	4,186
Grand Total	45	6,621	72,195	21,024	59,139	26,889	5,750

The oldest of the 45 universities is Tokyo Imperial University, which was founded in 1877, Kéio-Gijuku and Waséda were founded much earlier, but they were raised to the present standard in 1920 according to the ordinances enacted at that time.

Of the total number of students and pupils, that of regular university students was 51,028 and that of pupils in the preparatory course or elective courses was 21,167.

The following figures as they stood on March 1, 1936 and 1937 show the number of students in these universities classified according to faculties.

	1936	1937
Post graduate course	2,604	2,602
Law	8,271	8,432
Medical Science	7,087	8,225
Science	1,107	1,112
Agriculture	1,903	2,200
Economy	5,714	6,138
Commerce	4,753	4,736
Law and Literature	4,307	4,390
Politics and Economy	1,312	1,358
Technology	3,992	4,170
Literature	4,701	4,571
Law and Economy	630	645
Science and Technology	795	821
Literature and Science	649	756
Commerce and Economy	1,030	872

Tokyo Imperial University

Organization and Location Tokyo Imperial University (Tokyo Teikoku Daigaku) is a state institution for higher learning and research, and is organized in accordance with the Government's requirements for a university. It is composed of seven Faculties, together with various special institutions. The faculties are those of Law, Medicine, Engineering, Letters, Science, Agriculture, and Economics. The principal institutions attached to the university are the Library, the Institute for Infectious Diseases, the Aeronautical Research Institute, the Tokyo Astronomical Observatory, and the Earthquake Research Institute, which are under the direct control of the President of the University. Besides these institutions, there are the Hospitals, the Marine Biological Station, the Botanic Gardens, the Historiographical Institute, the Forestry Experimental Stations, and the Fishery Laboratory, all under the control of the respective Faculties.

The university proper is situated in Hongo, Tokyo, occupying about one hundred acres of the Kaga Yashiki where are preserved some parts of the ancient gardens. This area comprises the part of the Kaga Yashiki occupied by the university since 1877 and the new addition acquired after the earthquake in the year 1923 from Marquis Maeda, the ancient feudal Lord of Kaga. The name Kaga Yashiki is retained in memory of olden times, and as being dear to many foreign professors of the university who lived in the compound in the early days. The Faculty of Agriculture had been in Komaba, Tokyo, but it was removed to the present site in 1935, grounds of about twenty-five acres adjacent to Kaga Yashiki. Thus all the principal institutions and buildings of the university are now being brought close to one another in

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the university compound in Hongo. However, the Institute for Infectious Diseases, the Aeronautical Research Institute and the Astronomical Observatory retain their sites at some distance from Hongo.

Special mention should be made of the disaster of September 1, 1923, which affected the whole university to a greater or less degree. A plan of reconstruction is being carried out, good many buildings replacing the destroyed ones have been already completed, among which the new library stands foremost. The new plan having made a remarkable progress, the university ground is already exhibiting an entirely new feature with its buildings and gardens.

Origin and Growth The foundation of the University may be dated in various ways, for its growth had several marked stages in the course of past seventy years. Up to the present the official date of the foundation has been considered to be 1886, when two institutions, the Tokyo Daigaku (Tokyo University) and the Kobu Daigakko (College of Engineering) were amalgamated into the Teikoku Daigaku (Imperial University), the only institution of its kind in the Empire at that time. But the establishment of the Tokyo University in 1877 may be taken as the real founding of the present University, which is in fact a continuation and outgrowth of the former. Again, however, the Tokyo University had its predecessors and was an amalgamation of various institutions of higher learning. The earliest of these institutions can be traced back to 1855, when the Tokugawa Government opened what was called the Yogaku-sho, i. e. the Bureau for Occidental Learning. After some vicissitudes, this institution was discontinued for a short time, owing to the change of régime which supplanted the Tokugawa Shogunate and restored the Imperial Government in 1868. The new government restored the institution in 1869, and extended its scope to that of a college of arts and sciences, with the new name Daigaku Nanko (the Southern College). The appellation "Southern" was meant to designate it as a counterpart of the Daigaku Toko, the Eastern College, which was a medical school with a hospital. This medical school may be said to date from 1861, when a special institute was established for the study of Occidental medicine, though its remoter origin may be traced still further back to the eighteenth. These two colleges, South and East, had, however, no direct connection at the time of the organization of the Daigaku Nanko in 1869. Yet the idea had been to found a large institution of learning comprising all branches of science. After several changes in the status and titles of these two institutions, they were incorporated in 1877 into the Tokyo University under the control of one president, thus realizing the ideal of a university. At this juncture, ground was selected at the present site of the university, where a part of the Medical College was first removed from its "Eastern" location, and was followed by the "Southern" colleges of Law, Science, and Literature.

Since then the development of the university has been marked by the incorporation of other institutions of learning and research; the most important of these was that of the College of Engineering, in 1886, when the new title of "Imperial University" was adopted. In this connection it should be explained that the prefix "Tokyo" was added to "Imperial University," later in 1897, in consequence of the founding of a similar institution in Kyoto, followed by other Imperial Universities in other cities.

The second important step was taken in 1890, in the incorporation of the Tokyo Norin Gakko (School of Agriculture and Forestry) which became the College of Agriculture, one of the six colleges composing the Imperial University. This newly incorporated institution had been started by the Government's Department of Agriculture and Commerce in 1886. From 1890 to 1918, the university was composed of the six colleges of Law, Medicine, Engineering, Literature, Science, and Agriculture; but in 1918, the College of Economics was inaugurated, being a development of a department in the College of Law.

While the nucleus of the university had thus begun in the middle of the nineteenth century under the Tokugawa régime, its backbone formed in 1869 under the new régime, its status secured in 1877, and its new title and an extension of its scope adopted in 1886, its later growth amounted to the incorporation or establishment of several institutes, more or less independent of the educational work of the several colleges (or faculties). The most important of these new additions to the university were the reorganization of the Astronomical Observatory in 1888; the incorporation, in the same year, of the institute which later developed into the present Historiographical Institute; the incorporation of the Institute

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for Infectious Diseases in 1916; and the founding of the Aeronautical Research Institute in 1918, and of the Earthquake Research Institute in 1925. Besides these, the founding of the Hospitals, the Marine Biological Station, the extension of the Botanic Gardens, and the acquisition of large tracts of forest in various places, have marked steps in the growth of the university.

Faculties The Faculty of Law comprises the 2 departments of law and political science, with 34 professorial chairs. The Faculty of Medicine includes the 2 departments of medicine and pharmacy, with 35 professorial chairs. The Faculty of Engineering comprises the 10 departments of civil engineering, mechanical engineering, naval architecture, aeronautics, technology of ordnance, electical engineering, architecture, applied chemistry, technology of explosives and mining engineering and metallurgy, with 58 professorial chairs. The Faculty of Literature comprises the 19 departments of Japanese language and literature, Japanese history, Chinese philosophy, Chinese language and literature, Oriental history, Occidental history, philosophy and history of philosophy, Indian philosophy, Sanskrit language and literature, psychology, ethics, science of religion and history of religion, sociology, pedagogics, esthetics and history of fine arts, science of language, English language and literature, German language and literature, and French language and literature, with 41 professorial chairs. The Faculty of Science comprises the 10 departments of mathematics, astronomy, phisics, chemistry, zoology, botany, geology, mineralogy, geography, and seismology, with 41 professorial chairs. The Faculty of Agriculture comprises the 7 departments of agriculture, agricultural chemistry, forestry, veterinary medicine, fishery, agricultural economy and agricultural engineering, with 42 professorial chairs. The Faculty of Economics comprises the 2 departments of political economy and commerce, with 17 professorial chairs.

Those of adequate learning, aged 19, or above, who are desirous of attending the lectures or experiments for one or more subjects prescribed in the faculty departments, may be admitted as elective pupils in the Faculties, but only when there are vacant seats.

Auditors may be admitted to the faculties on application, when the study of the students is not inconvenienced by their presence. They must conform with the conditions prescribed by the faculties, unless they are entrusted by the Japanese or foreign governments. In addition, there are practical courses of agriculture, forestry, and veterinary medicine in connection with the Faculty of Agriculture. Applicants for admission must be graduates from middle schools, or those who are recognized as having equal attainments.

Students who remain in one department for more than 6 years (in the department of medicine, 8) are struck off the school roll. The practical courses in the Faculty of Agriculture run for 3 years.

The period for scientific research by students in the University Hall is fixed at 2 years. If their research necessitates the prolongation of this period, the President may permit it, on their application, to the extent of 5 years. They are under the control of the dean of the faculty whose curriculum they follow. As to their teacher or teachers, the faculty concerned decides.

In March, 1936 the number of professors was 655 and that of students 8,091.

Tuition is ¥120 a year for under graduates and ¥75 for post graduates.

Annual salary of the professors is from ¥1,130, to ¥4,050 besides th stipend attached to a chair from ¥500 to ¥1,600.

The Budget The budget for the fiscal year 1939-40 is as follows:

REVENUE

Ordinary	
From the Government	¥4,053,240
Miscellaneous income	5,658,107
Total	9,711,347
Extraordinary	
From the Government	1,022,646
From the Endowment Fund	798,055
Contributions	30,000
Total	1,850,701
Total revenue	11,562,048

EXPENDITURE

Ordinary	
Salary	¥2,296,122
School disbursements	6,923,443
Salary of foreign professors	14,850
Pension allotment	462,329
Miscellaneous	14,603
Total	9,711,347
Extraordinary	
Total	1,850,701
Total expenditure	11,562,048

University Library The University Library takes charge of books, manu-

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scripts, charts, etc. in the possession of the university including those in the general library and departmental libraries. Before the great disaster of September 1, 1923, the general library contained about 700,000 volumes, most of which were reduced to ashes. Some of the departmental libraries met the same fate. The great loss aroused universal sympathies both at home and abroad. Marquis Tokugawa offered the university the whole of the Nanki Library with its collection of about 100,000 volumes, mostly Japanese and Chinese books. The work of the British Committee for collecting English books was completed by April 1934, and the books thus given amounted nearly to 56,000 volumes. As a climax of the British gifts the library received a very select collection of books illustrative of the history of English printing and book production, including the Kelmscott Chaucer.

On the other hand, when the building to store the books thus accumulated was still unavailable, a wireless message, dated the last day of 1924, came from Mr. John D. Rockefeller, Jr., of New York, generously offering a fund of four million yen for the reconstruction of the library. He entrusted the fund to a committee of Three, consisting of the President of the University, the Director of the Library and the late Dr. Dan, for the execution of the building construction, library equipments, and purchase of books. Besides two committees were organized for the Building plan and the Restocking of Books, consisting of professors of the several faculties, and they cooperated in reconstructing the library. The plan for the library was decided upon in 1925 and the work of building completed by the end of November of 1928, and the dedication took place on December 1st of the same year. With the remainder of the Rockefeller Fund, works of modification and amendment were effected, including the installation, over the portico of the façade, of the bronze medalions which symbolize eight features of human life: Power, Order, Integrity, Truth, Vitality, Charity, Solidarity, and Mystery.

The Reconstruction Album of the Library was published in 1930 and sent to principal donors all over the world as a token of gratitude for their sympathy and assistance for the reconstruction of the library.

It is now almost nine years since the new building was opened, and the work of arranging the so-called Rehabilitation books was completed by the end of 1935.

During the fiscal year of 1936 there were added 36,201 volumes of books both by purchase and donation:— Oriental books, 13,071 volumes. Occidental books, 23,130 volumes.

By the end of March 1937 the sum total of books so far registered at the library reaches 1,051,485 volumes.

Thus the University Library, with its magnificent building and modern equipments together with its enriched contents, is enabled to give considerable comfort and convenience to her scholars with full capacity and is rendering manifold services as a centre of intellectual activities of the university. Besides the library is affording due facilities to scholars in research works and other visitors from foreign countries.

Doctor's Degrees

The following is a summary of doctor's degrees awarded during past 4 years.

Name	Awarded in 1933-34	Awarded in 1934-35	Awarded in 1935-36	Awarded in 1936-37
Dr. of Law	6	11	3	4
„ „ Literature	13	11	17	11
„ „ Science	29	33	32	49
„ „ Technology	28	35	36	47
„ „ Agriculture	25	18	22	24
„ „ Forestry	3	1	—	—
„ „ Medicine	783	808	877	978
„ „ Pharmacolo	3	4	45	7
„ „ Veterinary	—	—	—	—
„ „ Economics	6	6	3	2
„ „ Commerce	3	2	4	3
„ „ Political Science	—	—	—	—
Total	899	927	998	1,125

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Colleges, and Higher Trade and Industrial Colleges "College" is the usual translation of the Japanese "Semmon Gakko" or Speciality School. The required length of the course of a college is three years or more. For admission to an art or music school, the completion of the third year of the middle school or the girls' high school or the possession of equal or higher scholastic attainments is required, while for admission to all other colleges the completion of the course of the said second grade schools or similar or higher scholastic attainments is required.

In March, 1937, there were 118 colleges, 8 of them being founded and maintained by the Government, 9 by public bodies and the rest by private bodies. They may be classified as follows according to their nature:

Pharmacy	8
„ for women	5
Medical Science	5
„ „ for women	3
Dentistry	5
„ for women	2
Medical and pharmacy, for women	1
Languages	3
Literature	6
„ for women	5
Religion	11
Christian Theology	3
Painting and other fine arts	2
„ for women	1
Music	2
Commerce	1
Law, Economy, Commerce, Industry	13
Agriculture	1
Colonization	1
Mathematics and Chemistry	1
Meteorology	1
Athletics	2
Fencing and Judo	1
Literature, economy, law, domestic science and others (including for women)	48
Total	118

The following table shows the movement of the college students, classified according to their course of study, in 1936-1937:

Course of Study	Students		Graduates		Applicants		Entrants		Left School	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Medical Science	4,123	1,921	856	369	8,542	469	907	406	83	52
Pharmacy	3,703	2,706	919	642	5,292	1,019	1,031	828	198	176
Dentistry	3,574	382	794	83	2,522	176	948	173	185	19
Law	12,510	51	6,634	22	7,685	26	5,254	20	1,883	8
Economy	1,666	—	384	—	1,017	—	838	—	594	—
Commerce	12,431	6	3,058	2	8,667	4	4,703	4	1,904	2
Literature	4,037	2,402	1,082	754	3,708	1,116	1,565	817	522	243
Mathematics and Chemistry	606	25	41	12	1,374	—	755	—	756	1
Domestic Science	—	3,194	—	931	—	1,969	—	1,451	—	405
Sewing	—	1,280	—	424	—	706	—	501	—	136
Handiwork	—	570	—	167	—	424	—	288	—	90
Religion	2,083	22	581	7	914	11	775	11	209	1
Fine arts	576	40	132	15	161	26	153	24	15	4
Music	68	195	20	52	29	115	26	101	11	20
Athletics	511	67	118	22	362	25	139	22	22	2
Agriculture	695	—	212	—	752	—	232	—	41	—
Colonization	214	—	57	—	135	—	87	—	17	—
Nursing	—	52	—	22	—	48	—	24	—	8
Meteorology	47	—	15	—	269	—	13	—	—	—
Industry	828	—	235	—	1,243	—	305	—	42	—
Normal	2,982	426	758	115	2,487	305	1,630	143	932	41
Shinto	348	—	113	—	171	—	109	—	9	—
Total, 1937	51,002	13,339	13,009	3,639	45,330	6,439	19,470	4,813	7,423	1,208
Total, 1936	50,008	13,525	12,716	3,779	44,795	6,479	19,543	4,779	6,238	1,341
Preparatory and Special Courses	4,598	2,840	1,648	1,889	5,539	3,667	3,583	2,721	2,034	703

The number of Higher Trade and Industrial Colleges and that of their professors and students was as follows in the 1936-37 school year.

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Kind	Colleges	Professors	Students	Graduates	Applicants	Entrants	Left School
Technical	19	888	7,762	2,409	22,834	2,795	264
Agricultural	14	570	4,582	1,523	11,329	1,753	164
Commercial	24	779	12,804	4,145	22,637	4,808	599
Navigation	2	126	1,231	266	2,027	225	32
Fisheries	1	40	212	52	424	76	4
Total	60	2,403	26,591	8,395	59,251	9,657	1,063

Other Education

Besides the schools stated above, there are Kindergartens, schools for the blind, schools for the deaf and dumb, and miscellaneous schools.

Kindergartens Kindergartens are found chiefly in larger towns. With general social progress, however, the necessity of their improvement and diffusion being greatly felt in spite of the recent financial depression, an Imperial Ordinance for Kindergartens has lately been issued to encourage their further development. Kindergartens receive children from 3 years of age to school age or full six years of age.

The following table gives the number of kindergartens and that of children attending in the years 1933-37:

Year	Kindergartens	Children
1937	1,946	152,627
1936	1,892	143,676
1935	1,862	143,469
1934	1,736	133,735
1933	1,708	129,001

Education for the Blind and the Dumb It has been the educational policy of the Japanese Government since the beginning of the Meiji Era that there shall be no illitrates in the country. Therefore, even persons with physical defects are admitted to elementary, middle or girls' high schools, provided that they are fit to attend a greater part of the lessons. But boys and girls who are blind or deaf and dumb are encouraged to enter schools specially founded for them. A special ordinance relating to the schools for the blind and schools for the deaf and dumb has lately been issued for the purpose of perfecting their elementary and secondary education. The following table gives the number of them and that of their pupils in the years 1933-1937.

Year	Schools	Pupils	Blind	Deaf & Dumb
1937	140	10,566	5,040	5,526
1936	140	10,284	4,950	5,334
1935	140	9,907	4,830	5,077
1934	138	9,500	4,709	4,791
1933	127	8,939	4,613	4,326

Miscellaneous Schools Under the heading of "Miscellaneous Schools," the Japanese Government includes for convenience' sake all schools which do not fully come into any definite category of schools under the provisions in the laws and ordinances.

The following table gives the number of miscellaneous schools and that of their pupils in the years 1933-1937.

Year	Schools	Pupils
1937	1,935	259,621
1936	1,912	240,800
1935	1,921	230,394
1934	1,950	209,674
1933	1,917	203,123

Of the total given above, 143 were maintained by public bodies and 1,787 by private persons or bodies. As to their category those which might be classified as elementary schools numbered 202, middle schools 111, girls' high schools 74, business schools 648, colleges 31, the blind and the dumb schools 9, and the professional 860. Among miscellaneous schools, there are not a few which to be highly esteemed as educational institutions in their ideas and new methods of education. Many of the Christian schools are included among them.

New Educational Movements The educational system of Japan is so complete, as is specially the case with primary school education, that there has been hardly any room for such free educational movements as in Europe and America. The progress in other lines of national life, however, naturally stimulated the awakening of scholars and practical educators towards the end of the Meiji Era. The development of major cities presented a large field for the experiment of new educational work. Influenced by Western thoughts and guided by scholars who gave expositions on European and American educational thoughts so as to adapt the characteristic environments in Japan, many new schools have been established in Tokyo and Osaka. Their scope of influence as well as their number is limited, and the new movement, which is more or less radical, is going

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through difficult times owing to the reactionary tendency in these years: but the existence of such schools as Mrs. Masako Yosano's Bunka-gakuin, Mrs. Motoko Hani's Jiyu-gakuen, and Mr. Kuniyoshi Obara's Seijo-gakuen proves the demand for and appreciation of new education among the more advanced quarters of urban population. The new educational movement among elementary school teachers must not be overlooked. Their curriculum cannot deviate very much from that fixed by the government, but their efforts for handling materials so as to adapt the local environment of the pupils and to take in the projective method are bringing about good results. The representative schools are Tajima Elementary School in Kawasaki, Urashima Elementary School in Yokohama, etc. Elementary schools of a similar kind may be found in many places throughout the country.

Training of Teachers

The Japanese Government, alive to the necessity of having a large supply of capable teachers, has spared no efforts in the completion of organs for their training. To give an outline of the present system, Hokkaido and the prefectures are called upon to establish and maintain at least one normal school each, and an institution for the training of Young People's School teachers when circumstances make it necessary, a responsibility which is also imposed on the cities. The Government itself undertakes the training of teachers of normal schools, middle schools, girls' high schools and technical schools by establishing and maintaining higher normal schools, higher normal schools for women, special institutes for the training of teachers, etc., and the students of these schools are given scholarships, covering part of their expenses, either by the Government or by the local public bodies. Moreover such of the students of universities, colleges and the like as intend to become teachers, receive aid out of public funds or may be exempted from the payment of fees. Persons who have proved themselves deserving extended aid are chosen for studying abroad in order that they may be better qualified to teach higher arts and sciences.

The following table gives the number of schools for training teachers and that of their students in the years 1933-1937:

Year	Schools[1]	Students
1937	157	34,663
1936	156	34,019
1935	156	34,583
1934	155	36,849
1933	157	41,060

Organs for Training Elementary School Teachers The principal organs for training elementary school teachers are the normal schools, while the training course B grade of the Tokyo Academy of Music trains music teachers for elementary schools.

A normal school consists of the regular and the post-graduate courses, the former is divided into the first and second sections. The course of study of the first section extends over five years and it takes in the graduates of higher elementary schools of a two years' course or persons of over 14 years of age who have similar attainments. The course of study of the second section runs for two years and it takes in graduates of middle schools, girls' high schools and persons of similar scholastic attainments.

The following table gives the number of normal schools and that of their students and graduates in the years 1933-1937:

Year	Schools	Students	Graduates
1937	101	30,256	10,340
1936	102	29,825	10,431
1935	102	30,420	10,735
1934	103	32,817	11,669
1933	103	36,867	12,611

Organs for Training Teachers for Secondary Education As organs for training the teachers of secondary education, there are the higher normal schools, higher nomal schools for women, special institutes for training teachers, the training course in drawing of the Tokyo Academy of Fine Arts and the training course, grade A of the Tokyo Academy of Music. The systems differ more or less with the schools or the main subjects taught, but their entrance requirements are, generally speaking, the completion of middle school, girls' high school and normal school, or the possession of the same or higher scholastic attainments, and their courses extend over four, three

1 Note: There are 4 colleges and their students included in this as well as in the number of the table on colleges.

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or two years, with additional post-graduate and special investigation courses. The number of graduates from these schools is from 850 to 1,000 annually.

In addition to the foregoing, teachers' certificates are issued without examination to graduates of high grade schools both in Japan and in other countries in order to meet the deficiency in the supply of secondary school teachers. The main conditions are that the schools in question must be equal to or higher than the higher normal schools of Japan in entrance requirements and in curricula. Including those who passed examination there were 11,014 persons 8,025 men and 2,989 women who received such certificates in 1936-1937.

Organs for Training Business School Teachers For the purpose of training teachers of practical subjects in technical schools, institutes are attached to the Government universities and colleges. They are of a three year course, the scholastic standard corresponding to that of the colleges.

The following table gives the number of such institutes and that of their students and graduates in the years 1933-1937:

Year	Agricultural		Technical		Commercial		Total		
	Schools	Students	Schools	Students	Schools	Students	Schools	Students	Graduates
1937	1	84	2	224	1	56	4	364	119
1936	1	120	2	142	1	98	4	360	114
1935	1	116	2	144	1	96	4	356	111
1934	1	111	2	150	1	101	4	362	120
1933	1	116	2	150	1	105	4	271	113

As further means of providing business school teachers, certificates are issued without examination to graduates of certain specified schools. Including those who passed examination the number of persons who received such certificates in 1936-1937 was 444.

Organs for Training Teachers of Young People's Schools For this purpose there are institutes which Hokkaido, the prefectures and cities alone are authorized to establish. They are of one or two year courses above the secondary education. The following table shows the number of these institutes and that of their students in 1933-1937:

Year	Institutes	Students	Graduates
1937	47	1,315	539
1936	45	1,117	619
1935	45	1,106	588
1934	43	1,014	529
1933	42	1,039	618

Training of High-grade Professors No particular schools are instituted for the training of high-grade teachers. Scholarships, however, are given to students of the post-graduate course of higher normal schools for training such professors. Further, persons of adequate career and experience are sent to foreign countries for a further prosecution of studies, their expenses being met by the Government. The following are figures concerning such persons at the end of March, each year:

Year	Students Abroad	Year	Students Abroad
1937	168	1934	136
1936	126	1933	184
1935	104	1932	191

As a further means of supplying higher grade professors, a professor's licence is granted to persons holding doctor's degrees and those who have graduated from universities and colleges. In 1936-1937 the number of persons who received Higher School Professor's licences was 1,097, of which 9 were women.

Training of Special School Teachers and Nurses of Kindergartens Teachers for the blind and the deaf and dumb are trained in the training courses in the Tokyo School for the Blind and the Tokyo School for the Deaf and Dumb. The nurses of kindergartens are trained in the training courses provided in women's normal school, special courses in the higher normal schools for women and in the special institutions for the purpose established by private bodies. In 1936-1937 the number of kindergarten nurses' certificates given was 1,164.

Teacher's Certificate Given by Examination Persons who have similar scholastic attainments with the graduates of the schools mentioned above, may ask for an examination to get a teacher's licence. They have to undergo a strict examination by the special examination committees of the Educational Department. The number of per-

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sons who passed such examination during 1936-1937 was 7,313. These may be classified as follows :

Teachers of	Applicants	Passed examinations
Elementary School and Kindergarten	41,492	6,613
Normal School, Middle School and Girls' School	6,528	577
Higher Department of Higher School	71	10
Business School	887	113

Physical Education and School Hygiene

With a view to promoting the rational development of the young and to encourage and further the spread of gymnastics, games and athletic sports, both eastern and western, there was established in 1924 a national Institute for Research in Physical Training, where research work is now in active progress.

For school hygiene, special attention is paid to buildings and equipments, and efforts are being made to improve and strengthen the physical constitution of pupils and students by employing school physicians, dentists and nurses, by taking measures for the prevention of infectious diseases in schools, by making plans for open-air schools, vacation colonies, school feeding, school clinics and the like.

There were 33,003 school physicians, 8,429 dentists, and 3,208 nurses for 33,003 schools in 1937.

For the administrative organs responsible for the work referred to, Hokkaido and prefectures have school hygienic experts and directors of physical training, while the Department of Education has the Section of Phsyical Training, Supervisors of School Hygiene and the Institute for Research in Physical Training. In addition, there are provided in the Educational Department a School Hygiene Investigation Committee and a Physical Training Investigation Council, which investigate and make researches in important questions submitted to them by the Minister of Education.

Social Education

For the diffusion and development of social education there has been created a Bureau of Social Education in the Department of Education, and a certain number of supervisors of social education are appointed in the Department, and directors of the same in the local governments.

Adult Education For the benefit of those adults who have had little or no chance to receive regular education, the Department has requested some of the schools under its direct control or under that of the local governments to start a series of lectures. Most of the adults who are gathered to these lectures are labourers or farmers, and fuller reference to this is made in the chapter on labour.

Libraries The spread of libraries in Japan has been rather slow because of many reasons, but the place of the library in social education has been understood more and more clearly with the advancement of national and international life in recent years. The Government, therefore, established a national library at Uéno, Tokyo, and at the same time has given encouragement to local public bodies for establishing their own libraries by granting subsidies to them. It also tries to help them by holding short period courses for training capable librarians. The results of these efforts have been a notable progress in libraries, as may be observed in the following table :

Year	Public Libraries	Books	Readers	Daily Average of Readers of a Library
1937	4,730	12,648,000	24,124,000	20
1936	4,759	12,319,000	24,191,000	20
1935	4,794	11,376,000	24,666,000	20
1934	4,634	10,762,000	24,949,000	21
1933	4,686	10,563,000	24,766,000	20

In November, 1931, the Tokyo Science Museum was established by the Government. It is located in Uéno Park, Tokyo and exhibits 1,889 technical and machine models and 196,779 specimens of natural science. In 1936-37, 271,296 people visited it in 356 days.

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Young Men's and Young Women's Associations With the object of giving mental and moral culture to those young men and women who are no longer cared for in the schools, the organization of young men's and young women's associations has been encouraged so that there is at present hardly any city, town, or village where they are not established. These associations work, on the whole, according to the principle of self-government, quite different from the foregoing Young People's Schools, and along the lines which they choose in view of the circumstances peculiar to themselves.

The following table shows the number of young men's and young women's associations and that of their members in the years 1932–1936 :

Year	Y.M.A.	Members	Y.W.A.	Members
1936	15,719	2,450,427	13,909	1,528,071
1935	15,469	2,456,505	13,537	1,507,778
1934	15,440	2,488,113	13,468	1,512,682
1933	15,300	2,497,166	13,378	1,522,041
1932	15,365	2,518,173	13,394	1,534,125

Boy Scouts and Girl Guides The boy scout movement, which is also an important item in the social education of the young, has made much progress since the organization of the Japan Federation of Boy Scouts in 1922. The President of the Federation was the late Count Shimpei Goto, and its head office was located in the Department of Education building. The boy scouts which are affiliated with the Federation are scattered all over the Empire except 4 prefectures in Japan proper and the South Sea Mandated Islands. In 1925, the Marine Branch was established and it owns a training-ship.

The number of boy scout organizations and that of the members were approximately 1,100 and 90,000 respectively in March, 1935. The Federation is led by Count Yoshinori Futara at present.

The girl guide movement was first introduced into Japan in 1920. The earliest organizations appeared in Tokyo and Morioka, and the movement gradually spread over different parts of the country, although it has not yet achieved such progress as the boy scout movement, having only 27 guides with about 300 girls in 1931.

Educational Expenditure

Education in Japan, as previously mentioned, is principally controlled by the State, though it is partly delegated to local public bodies and partly carried on by private individuals or organizations by permission of the Government. The expenditure incurred is met from these three different financial sources.

Part of the educational expenses of local public bodies, however, is met by the State Treasury in order that the teachers may be sufficiently paid and the burdens on the ratepayers may not be too heavy. Formerly the sum of ¥10,000,000 was yearly defrayed for this purpose, but it has been recently increased to ¥85,000,000 or more, and destitute municipalities receive special consideration in the apportionment of the grant.

Local governments are required to pay additional salaries at certain rates for long service to the teachers of schools for which they are directly responsible. To meet part of these expenses, the Government allocates a sum of money fixed annually in the National Budget and divides it among Hokkaido and prefectures in proportion to the number of teachers. In cases where a city, town or a village undertakes to pay for residences of elementary school teachers, the higher local body is required to share part of the expense.

In recent years educational undertakings have been greatly extended and the treatment of teachers considerably improved in accordance with the post-war programme of the country, and this has caused the educational expenditure to swell in a remarkable degree. The following table shows the total governmental and public educational expenditure in yen during the years 1932-1937:

Year	State Treasury	Prefectures	Cities	Towns and Villages	School Associations	Total
1937	142,573,799	111,717,579	137,128,239	230,811,039	122,442	622,353,098
1936	151,099,914	109,120,439	119,144,631	224,908,617	102,928	604,376,529
1935	154,732,262	104,617,681	103,435,462	214,853,579	91,476	577,730,460
1934	152,105,765	100,103,429	102,318,577	202,816,370	87,274	557,434,115
1933	148,083,243	97,885,783	87,580,024	199,345,796	89,838	532,984,684
1932	137,239,255	106,856,178	77,676,969	197,723,655	87,829	519,583,886

The above table does not include the amounts expended on local educational administration.

In order to show the total expenditure, both governmental and local, the year 1934–1935 is taken and full details of the items of expenditure are shown :

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GOVERNMENTAL EDUCATIONAL EXPENDITURE

1936-1937 (In yen)

Administration	2,440,966	Blind, Deaf and Dumb education	159,614
Elementary and Secondary education	90,370,778	Universities and libraries	31,583,115
Business education	628,498	Others	2,597,144
Social education	3,364,449	Total	131,144,564

PUBLIC EDUCATIONAL EXPENDITURE BORNE BY LOCAL PUBLIC BODIES

1936-1937 (In yen)

Kind of Education	Hokkaido & Prefectures	Cities	School Associations of Municipalities	Towns & Villages	Total
Elementary Schools	—	114,342,942	70,725	197,179,822	311,593,489
Normal Schools	9,305,901	—	—	—	9,305,901
Middle Schools	23,371,212	276,517	42,990	125,382	23,816,101
Girls' High Schools	15,207,069	2,715,216	—	2,156,517	20,078,802
Higher Schools	474,811	—	—	—	474,811
Universities	1,525,091	493,427	—	—	2,018,518
Colleges	342,480	114,198	—	—	456,678
Business Schools	19,361,936	8,455,935	—	2,473,881	30,291,752
Teachers' Training Schools	412,913	—	—	—	412,913
Blind Schools	818,205	60,167	—	—	878,372
Deaf and Dumb Schools	388,849	103,773	—	—	492,622
Miscellaneous Schools	281,817	456,871	—	26,501	765,189
Young Mens' Training Schools	69,986	4,538,304	4,767	23,051,017	27,664,074
Kindergartens	—	1,273,018	—	592,853	1,865,871
Libraries	674,530	730,604	—	280,139	1,685,273
Miscellaneous	39,482,779	3,567,267	3,960	4,924,927	47,978,933
Total	111,717,579	137,128,239	122,442	230,811,039	479,779,299

The total amount of educational expenditure in Japan proper borne by private bodies was ¥71,496,348 for 1936-1937:

EDUCATIONAL EXPENDITURE BORNE BY PRIVATE BODIES IN 1936-1937

School	Expenditure (In yen)	Revenue (In yen)
Elementary Schools	1,350,002	784,830
Middle Schools	5,057,164	5,104,304
Girls' High Schools	9,533,260	8,514,703
Higher Schools	754,771	763,921
Universities	10,356,032	10,304,243
Colleges	11,342,522	12,588,295
Business Schools		
College grade		
Secondary grade	9,622,859	9,373,357
Elementary grade		
Total		
Schools for the Blind	226,628	211,318
Schools for the Deaf and Dumb	73,775	44,182
Miscellaneous Schools	14,630,376	13,467,530
Kindergartens	2,319,021	2,008,342
Young Men's Training Schools	1,507,184	260,804
Y.M.A. and Y.W.A.	4,043,409	4,369,018
Libraries	679,345	450,850
Total	71,496,348	68,245,697

Other Schools

There are schools in Japan proper which do not come under the control of the Educational Department, and they have been excluded from the foregoing sections. But to complete the chapter on education we cannot pass without some mention of them. Fuller explanations may also be found in other chapters.

Peers' Schools They belong to the Department of the Imperial Household, and the purpose of their establishment is the education of the nobility, but admission to them is by no means restricted to children of titled families. They are called the Gakushu-in and Joshi (women) Gakushu-in. The former is for boys and is composed of three departments, namely, elementary, middle school, and college. The latter is composed of two departments, namely, high school and college.

Two Special Schools The Department of Foreign Affairs has two schools;

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one is the To-a Dobun Sho-in (Tung Wen College) in Shanghai and the other the Russo-Japanese Association School at Harbin.

The Jingu-Kogakkan This was established by the Home Department and is a Shinto seminary.

The Fisheries Institute This is under the Department of Agriculture and Forestry.

In the territories, schools are under the control of the Territorial Governments, as a matter of course, and full descriptions of them may be found in the chapters on territories. However, a list of the various universities and colleges is here appended.

CHOSEN
- Kéijo (Seoul) Imperial University
- Kéijo Imperial University Preparatory School
- Kéijo Law College
- Kéijo Medical College
- Kéijo Technical College
- Suigen Agricultural and Forestry College
- Kéijo Commercial College
- Eight private colleges

TAIWAN
- Taihoku Imperial University
- Taihoku College
- Four other colleges

KWANTUNG
- Ryojun (Port Arthur) Technical University
- Preparatory College for the same
- Four private colleges

Foreign Teachers and Students

The number of foreign teachers and students at the end of March, 1937, was as follows:

Schools	Teachers			Pupils & Students		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
Elementary	—	7	7	324	188	512
Normal	—	—	—	4	—	4
Higher Normal	6	—	6	128	—	128
Woman's Higher Normal	—	—	—	—	25	25
Middle Schools	35	3	38	45	—	45
Girls' High Schools	2	65	67	—	6	6
Higher Schools	69	1	70	114	—	114
Universities	98	2	100	1,523	76	1,599
Colleges	135	70	205	1,456	259	1,715
Business Colleges	68	—	68	276	4	280
Business Schools	29	13	42	14	—	14
Young People's Schools	—	2	2	—	—	—
Blind Schools	—	1	1	—	—	—
Miscellaneous	109	200	309	2,360	1,224	3,584
Total	551	364	915	6,244	1,782	8,026

The comparison for the five years, 1933-1937, is as follows:

Year	Teachers	Students
1937	915	8,026
1936	906	6,942
1935	912	4,681
1934	883	2,765
1933	1,059	2,232

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CHAPTER XXIX

RELIGION

General Survey

From prehistoric ages Japan has had an indigenous cult which is now known as Shinto. Buddhism and Confucianism were introduced through Korea and China later, and Christianity more recently still. Islam, however, never gained a footing on her soil, though its literature has been introduced to some slight extent.

Shintoism has had little to do with the thought and life of the people, apart from its relations with the functions of the guardian deities, national and local, and bears some resemblance to the primitive cults of Greece and Italy. It is now divided into two, namely, national Shintoism, which is represented by the shrines, and sectarian Shintoism, which developed towards the end of the Tokugawa Shogunate.

Confucianism is rather a code of moral precepts than a religion, except in that it teaches some vague ideas regarding a heavenly God. In the realm of moral culture it has exerted great influence on the minds of the Japanese people and on their principles of daily life; that influence being very noticeable in the Imperial Rescript on Education of the Emperor Meiji. Further mention of Confucianism will be omitted here because it can hardly be regarded as a religious cult.

Buddhism has had still greater influence on all phases of Japanese life. Its fatalism has had a retarding effect on the material progress of the Japanese as with other Oriental nations, but has induced a habit of dauntless composure in their behaviour, and its broad philanthropy has given rise to a spirit of mutual help among the people, subduing egoism or individualism. Its philosophical literature fed the national thought, while its fine art has left many masterpieces enriching the cultural life of the Japanese. Buddhism is still the most powerful among the religions in Japan.

Christianity has made valuable contribution toward the civilization of Japan with its world-wide nature and positive teachings on human life. The number of believers is comparatively small, but its influence on the people's thought and morals is said to be even greater than that of Buddhism. It has raised Japan's moral standards, waging war against licensed prostitution, the low position of women, drinking and smoking, and polygamy as practised in a certain section of society. It has still to amalgamate itself with the life of the people in order to exert greater influence upon them, but its future is hopeful.

Shinto Shrines

While the sectarian Shinto denominations are under the Education Department as other religious bodies, most Shinto shrines are supervised by the Shrine Bureau of the Home Department, which consists of one chief official and 64 minor officials. The budget of the Bureau for the fiscal year 1939-40 is as follows:

Running expenses	(In yen)
Isé Great Shrine	230,000
Other national shrines	1,021,720
Ordinary expenses	1,000,000
Ceremonies and rituals	7,465
Soldiers' shrines	14,255
Total	1,251,720
Incidental expenses	
Office of Isé Great Shrine	69,004
Investigations	13,963
Reconstructions	1,110,000
Education of priests	36,500
Total	1,229,467
Sum total	2,481,187

The Isé Great Shrine is the most honoured of all as the first national shrine. The Goddess enshrined in it is Amaterasu-Omikami, which may be translated as Heaven-Shining-Great-Goddess. According to the Japanese mythology, Amaterasu-Omikami sent down her grandson to the Nippon Islands to rule the people by the 'Kingly Way,' giving him the Three Sacred Treasures, which have been handed down even to the present Emperor as the sacred symbols of the Imperial Throne (see Appendix, The Constitution of Japan; The Imperial Household Law Article X; and Chapter III). In the Great Shrine and appendant shrines more than 10 gods, who represent the Imperial ancestors or personify natural powers, are installed beside the

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principal Goddess.

The name of the shrine comes from its location in Isé province or more accurately on the Isuzu river, city of Ujiyamada, Mié prefecture. The whole sacred area of the Great Shrine includes 13,135 acres.

About 74 priests are attending it under a chief priest. There are established a seminary for the education of priests, a police station, two museums, and a library in connection with the shrine.

The budget for the fiscal year 1939-40 is ¥299,004.

According to the report of the Shrine Bureau, the Home Department, the number of other shrines at the end of 1936 was as follows:

Governmental and national shrines	203
Prefectural and village shrines	49,542
Private shrines	60,836
Soldiers' shrines	104

The number of private shrines in Japan proper has been steadily decreasing since 1889, lessening from 136,783 in that year to 60,836 in 1936. There were many too superstitious and barbarous ones among them and the decrease indicates the healthy progress of the religious ideas of the people and the radical policy of the government.

The total area of the sacred campus of these shrines in 1933 (not including soldiers' shrines) covered 76,948,646 tsubo, 65,721,332 of it being government property.

The total number of priests in Japan proper at the end of the year 1936 was 15,955.

For the education of priests there are one seminary of college grade at Isé as mentioned above, a department in Kokugakuin (Japanese literature) College of junior college grade, a middle school grade seminary affixed to the one at Isé, and 26 smaller places for giving a course of study, the total number of students being not more than 2,100. It may be said, therefore, that the education of Shinto priests is on a much lower scale than that of Buddhist priests or Christian pastors.

Sectarian Shintoism

Shinto Sect This sect is called by the general name given to the national cult before its later branches had developed. The principal ideas of the sect are to follow the "Great Way of the Gods," and to propagate the national cult indigenous to the people of this country. Its believers and devotees consider it their most important duty to cultivate reverence for the gods, cherish the spirit of patriotism, elucidate Heavenly Reason and Humanity, pay homage to the Emperor, and observe all the Imperial ordinances.

Kurozumi Sect This was founded by Munetada Kurozumi (1780–1850), who was born at a small village of Okayama prefecture. His main idea was to inhale, while contemplating the Goddess Amaterasu-Omikami, the energy of the sun, and thereby to fill up the heart with satisfaction and complaisance. He teaches to avoid the following seven evils, which are against the will of the gods: (1) to be faithless to the country of the gods in which one was born; (2) to get angry and to worry over things; (3) to be arrogant and spiteful; (4) to entertain evil desires from seeing others do evil; (5) to neglect one's household affairs while in good health; (6) not to have sincerity even when one is entering upon the path of sincerity; and (7) not to accept things gratefully for which one ought to be grateful every day.

Other sects of Shinto are as follows—the teachings of all being much the same, except that some lay particular stress on the worship of one or another of the early gods:—

Shinto-shusei	Found by Kunimitsu Nitta (1829–1902) born in Chiba Prefecture.
Taisha	Preached by Sompuku Sengé (1845–1918)
Fuso	Founded by Takekuni Fujiwara (1541–1646) and preached by Han Shishino.
Taisei	Founded by Shosai Hirayama (1815–1890)
Jikko	Founded by Hanamori Shibata (1809–1890)
Shinshu	Founded by Masamochi Yoshimura (1839–1916) Okayama prefecture.
Ontaké	The chief centre of this sect is Mount Ontaké, where the spirits of certain gods are enshrined.
Misogi	The sect of Water Purification. Founded by Masakané Inouyé (1790–1849) of Mié prefecture.
Shinri	Founded by Tsunehika Sano (1834–1906)
Konko	Founded by a farmer, Bunjiro Kawaté (1814–1883)
Tenri	Founded by a woman, Miki Nakayama (1798–1887) of Nara pre-

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Tenri

fecture. Of all these sects the Tenri-kyo has perhaps the greatest number of believers; it lays emphasis on personal conduct and mental discipline, in addition to patriotism and obedience to the Emperor and Imperial ordinances. It particularizes the "eight forms of dust which must be swept away"; they are grudging, evil desires, impure attachments, hatred, enmity, anger, covetousness and arrogance.

Buddhism

It was in the thirteenth year of the Emperor Kimmei (552 A.D.) that Buddhism, first founded in India, came over to Japan after passing through China and Korea. Prince Shotoku, Regent from 593 to 628 A.D. and a devout Buddhist, was largely responsible for its rapid spread throughout the country. Six schools of Buddhism, that is, Sanron, Hosso, Jojitsu, Kusha, Ritsu, and Kegon, were introduced one after another. In the reign of the Emperor Kwammu (782–805 A.D.), Tendai and Shingon flourished. New schools such as Jodo, Zen, Shin, Nichiren and others then gradually developed. Through these long periods of its history Buddhism became further divided, owing to differences in the exposition of the doctrines and in the methods of propagation, into many sub-sects. Eleven of the principal sects still in existence are Hosso, Kegon, Ritsu, Tendai, Shingon, Yuzunembutsu, Jodo, Shin, Ji, Zen, and Nichiren; and these eleven are sub-divided into fifty-eight branches. The principal teachings of the eleven Buddhist sects are as follows:

Hosso Sect This sect was introduced into Japan by Dosho (628–700), a Buddhist priest who went to China in 653 and studied its teachings under Hsuantsang. The main teachings of Hosso are that all sentient beings find Salvation in accordance with the difference in character and endowments, of which five yanas are to be distinguished, that the doctrinal system of this sect and its scriptural texts are in full correspondence with the truth, that as all things are merely manifestations of pure consciousness, there are no real ego-souls and no real objects, and that the great fruit of Bodhi and Nirvana is attainable in and through the reality of the Middle Path, which is a peculiar combination of realism and idealism.

Kegon Sect Roben (688–776) of Todaiji Temple, Nara, the first propagator of this sect in Japan, learned its doctrines from the Chinese Buddhist priest Dokei who visited Japan during the Tempyo Era (729–749). The teachings of this sect are based upon the Kegon Sutra, which says that the ultimate reason of Suchness is absolute and infinite; the Ultimate and the Manifested are mutually related and intimately intertwined; each Manifestation too is so thoroughly and interminglingly related to another Manifestation that between the two there is no wall of individual separation. The teachings of the sect are, therefore, called the Perfect Doctrine. Those who, in accordance with the doctrine, understand the mystery of the mute evolution of the spiritual cosmos, and who practise goodness and are guarded in their conduct, are sure to attain Buddhahood and to realize the Ultimate Reason. The head-temple of this Sect is Todaiji in the city of Nara.

The term "Shinnyo", or tathatva, which we have translated "Suchness" in the foregoing, is a very comprehensive word, signifying "truth", "reality," or "the first principle of emptiness". The first character, "Shin" means "that which is true without any admixture of error". The second "Nyo", is the same as is usually translated "like". The two taken together have come to mean "the Absolute Itself". There are three main interpretations of it. The doctrine of the Kegon Sect, as one of these interpretations, identifies the absolute and the relative, the noumenal and the phenomenal, asserting that each separate phenemenon, being endowed with the qualities of the Absolute, has unlimited power to produce other phenomena. The doctrine derived from the Kegon Sutra teaches that even a single particle of dust has the manifold, infinite and absolute virtues of all things in the universe, and that so, if a man observes a certain practice, he is at the same time doing all other religious practices.

Ritsu Sect The Ritsu or the Sect of Moral Discipline ("Vinaya" in Sanskrit) was first propagated in Japan by Ganjin (686–763), a Chinese Buddhist priest, who came to Japan during the Tempyo Era (729–749). It obtains its name from the Vinaya-pitaka, according to which its followers strictly regulate their daily conduct. It teaches to observe, as ordered by Buddha, all the precepts ("sila" in Sanskrit) such as the Five Precepts, the Eight Precepts, the Six

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Novitiate Precepts, the Ten Precepts, or the Two Hundred and Fifty Precepts. Toshodaiji in Nara prefecture is the head-temple of this Sect.

Tendai Sect The founder of this sect was Chisha Daishi (537–597) of the Sui Dynasty.

The Japanese priest Saicho (Denkyo Daishi, 766–822) went over to China in the year 782 during the Yenryaku Era, and studied the principles of Tendai there. On his return to Japan, he became the chief exponent of the sect in this country. The teachings of the Tendai Sect are comprised in two divisions, metaphysics and meditation. It critically systematizes in its metaphysical part all the teachings of Sakyamuni, drawing a clear line between what is mere expedient and what really represents the spirit of the founder of Buddhism. As the result Tendai has come to consider Saddharma-pundarika Sutra (the Lotus of the Good Law) the doctrine of Sakyamuni, in which the reason of his appearance on earth is truthfully explained. The meditation part consists in applying our minds to all that is taught in the Sutra and realizing it in our daily practical life. Ten grades are distinguished in the practice of meditation, while its main object is to put a stop to disturbing thoughts and to get enlightened on the principles of the four classes of Buddhist doctrines. The ultimate end of all this is the realization of the mysteries of the Pundarika. When we perceive that the Hidden and the Manifest are of one and the same essence and realize that state of mind which is known to the Buddhas only, we have the central teaching of Tendai, that is we have attained the final enlightenment in which the spiritual and the material are thoroughly unified.

There are three sub-sects or branches in this sect, each of them having its own head-temple. They are: (1) the Tendai Branch, whose head-temple, Yenryakuji, is in Shiga prefecture; (2) the Jimon Branch, which has its head-temple in Onjoji in Shiga prefecture; and (3) the Shinsei Branch, the head-temple of which is Saikyoji in Shiga prefecture.

Shingon Sect The first exponent of this sect in Japan was Kukai (Kobo Daishi, 773–835), who went over to China soon after Saicho, the Japanese founder of Tendai. According to this sect, there are three fundamental conceptions, which are, Substance, Appearance, and Function. The Six Universals—earth, water, fire, air, the void, and consciousness—are Substances. The four systems of Mandala, that is, Great Mandala, Samaya Mandala, Dharma Mandala, and Karma Mandala, are Appearances. The three Secrets—body, words, and mind—are Functions. The Six Universals are the elemental substances of which all things are constituted. They take Apparances, which, though innumerable, can be classified under four headings. The first is the Great Mandala representing all living beings such as Buddhas, Bodhisattvas, Gods, evil spirits or human beings. The second is the Samaya Mandala which consists in Mudras and symbolic instruments of Buddhas, Bodhisattvas, devas, and spirits. The third is the Dharma Mandala containing all the names or titles of the Buddhas and other beings. The fourth and last one is the Karma Mandala in which are represented all the Functions as well as the outward bodily attitudes assumed by Buddhas and other beings. As the six Universals are infinite and mutually intermingle and are most intimately related, so the four Mandalas are also mutually related and intermingled. That is to say, the Buddhas' four Mandalas are also our own just as they are in the Buddhas, and conversely, our own Mandalas are those of the Buddhas. When the four Mandalas or Appearances are symbolized in our bodies and our fingers are "knotted" after the regular formulas, and the mouth recites the various Mantras and Dharanis, and the mind contemplates the sameness of the mind, Buddha, and all sentient beings, then the Functions of the three Secrets are completed. Let this completion be attained, and we are Buddhas while we are in this material existence.

"Mandala" has a large number of different meanings. It is often applied to concrete objects such as an altar, a platform, a circular plate, a picture, and possibly an image; but it came to have the abstract meaning of "growth", "perfection", or "a complete collection of all virtues."

This sect is sub-divided into eight branches, which are: Koya, Omuro, Daikakuji, Daigo, Toji, Yamashina, Ono, and Senyuji.

Three hundred years after the death of Kukai, the Japanese founder of the Shingon Sect, a priest called Kakuban known as Kokyo Daishi (1094–1143), established a new school of Shingon. Under this there are two branches now, one of which is Chizan and other Buzan. The head-temple of the former is Chishaku-in, Kyoto, while that of the latter is Chokokuji (Hasedera), in Nara prefecture.

Yuzu-nembutsu Sect This was found-

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ed in 1117 by Ryonin, known as Showo Daishi (1071–1132). Its principal teachings are that as all things are essentially of one nature and intimately related, the virtues of one person must be also those of all others, and conversely; that the merits of the Buddha's name invoked by all earnest hearts will mutually grow, establishing a spiritual communion with one another in a most thorough manner; that therefore the invoking of the Buddha's name and contemplating him, even during this short period of one's earthly life, must bear the great fruit, if it is most sincerely done, of making us all attain to Buddhahood through the perfection of infinite merits.

The head-temple of this sect is Dainembutsuji of Osaka prefecture.

Jodo Sect The founder of this sect was Genku, known as Yenko Daishi or Honen, (1133–1212), and it was established in 1174. The basis of the doctrines of the Jodo Sect is laid upon the original prayers of Amitabha Buddha. Being convinced of the general sinfulness of human nature, which makes us incapable of enduring all the painful process of self-discipline and self-perfection, Jodo teaches us to throw all our reliance upon the strength of the original prayers of Amitabha Buddha. When we thus, absolutely believing in him, invoke his name with all the sincerity of the heart, we shall be born in future in his Pure Land. The head-temple, Chion-in, is in Kyoto.

One of Genku's disciples, called Shoku (1176–1247), established a new separate school at Nishiyama, which is known as the Seizan Branch of Jodo. This branch is again subdivided into three: (1) Zenrinji, its head-temple bearing the same title, is in Kyoto prefecture; (2) Komyoji; and (3) Fukakusa, Seigwanji, Kyoto, is its head-temple.

Shin Sect Shinran (1173–1262), who is known as Kenshin Daishi, founded the Shin Sect. He was a disciple of Genku, and the main doctrines do not vary so very much from those of his master except in this: that we, the ignorant, have no real existence, and however strenuously we may exert ourselves, we have no "causal germ" in us which will develop into Buddhahood. The priests of the sect can marry and eat flesh. The original prayers of Amitabha in which the invocation of the Buddha's name is highly recommended, testify that the causal germ of Buddhahood, by virtue of the efficiency of the prayers, will be planted in us, which means that all that is necessary for us to be reborn in the Pure Land of Amitabha is now sufficient and fulfilled.

There are at present ten branches of the Shin Sect: Hongwanji, Otani, Bukkoji, Takata, Kibé, Kosho, Idzumoji, Yamamoto, Seishoji, and Sammonto.

Ji Sect This was first promulgated by Ippen (1239–1289). The principal ideas of the sect are: Life is a frail and impermanent thing, and as every moment of it flits away, every act of ours must be regarded as the last one on earth. When, perceiving the truth of this fact, we do not neglect in every thought of ours to invoke the name of the Amitabha Buddha, we shall surely reach the final blissful state of Buddhahood.

The head-temple, Shojokoji, is in Kanagawa prefecture.

Zen Sect Under this name three Sects are comprised: Rinzai, Soto, and Obaku.

The Rinzai Sect of Zen was first taught by Yeisai (1140–1215) who came back from China in 1192. Soto finds its first Japanese exponent in Dogen (known as Joyo Daishi, 1199–1253) who studied Zen in China during the Sung Dynasty and returned to Japan in 1234. Obaku was introduced to Japan by a naturalized Chinese priest Yin-gen (1592–1673) in 1653.

The Zen Sect teaches the doctrine which is known only to the Buddhas and the transmission of which takes place only from one mind to another. It transcends logic and objective understanding. We do not have to purify ourselves from sins, nor is it necessary to seek after supreme knowledge. The ultimate truth is not in more learning, thinking, or in discipline. It is above doctrines and meritorious deeds, and also above any special attainment. Zen teaches us to abide right in the truth and reality of life, every act of which will then reveal thousands of Samadhis. Whether lying or sleeping, whether drawing water or hewing wood, every movement grows full of significance. That is why Zen sums up its teachings in the following four phrases: "No reliance on word or letter; a special transmission outside of the scriptural doctrines; a direct pointing at the soul of man; and attainment to Buddhahood by seeing into one's own mind."

There are fourteen branches in the Rinzai Sect: Kenninji, Kenchoji, Tofukuji, Engakuji, Nanzenji, Daitokuji, Myoshinji, Tenryuji, Yeigenji, Shokokuji, Hokoji, Buttsuji, Kokutaiji, and Kogakuji. The Soto Sect has two head-temples, Yeiheiji, and Sojiji. Obaku is undivided, and its head-temple is Mampukuji, Uji, Kyoto prefecture.

Nichiren Sect This was founded by

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Nichiren (1222-1281) on the merits of the Saddharma-pundarika Sutra. The life of the Sect is in the seven syllables of "Na-mu-myo-ho-ren-gé-kyo," which is called "Daimoku," or a kind of theme. As this is the title of the Sutra revealing the absolute oneness of all opposites, even evil-hearted ones will attain to Buddhahood if they recite it in sincerity, and along with it all the ten universes will be equally benefited.

This sect is sub-divided into nine branches: (1) Nichiren-shu (the head-temple, Kuonji, is in Yamanashi prefecture); (2) Hommon-shu, (Hommon-ji at Ikegami, Tokyo, and six other temples in Shizuoka prefecture are its head-temples); (3) Hokké-shu, (its head-temple, Honjoji, is in Niigata prefecture); (4) Kempon-hokké-shu, (Kochoji and four others in Shizuoka prefecture are its head-temples); (6) Hommyo-hokké-shu, (its head-temple is Honryuji, Kyoto); (7) Nichiren-seishu, (its head-temple is Daisekiji in Shizuoka prefecture); (8) Nichiren-shu-fujufusé-ha, (its head-temple is Myokakuji in Okayama prefecture); and (9) Nichiren-shu-fujufusé-komon-ha, (the head-temple, Honkakuji, is also in Okayama prefecture).

Christianity

Before the Restoration Christianity was first introduced into Japan by Francis Xavier, a Jesuit Father, who came to Kagoshima in 1549. This was the time when Nobunaga Oda was at the height of his power, and he gave great encouragement to the spread of the Christian religion. Hideyoshi Toyotomi, his successor, too, was kindly disposed towards it. Combined with the devout and untiring work of the missionaries, this attitude on the part of the authorities made it possible for Christianity to gain followers with wonderful rapidity. Their number is reported to have run into hundreds of thousands.

Hideyoshi, however, changed his policy later on. Christianity was interdicted, its followers were persecuted, and the missionaries had to leave the country. When the Tokugawa Shogunate was established, still stricter measures were adopted, especially after the Shimabara Rebellion in 1637. Christianity had now no hope of prospering under the rigorous Government policy of exclusion. The only port open to foreigners was Deshima, Nagasaki, where the Dutch traders were allowed to carry on their business.

The American envoy, Commodore Perry, came to Uraga in 1853, demanding a friendly commercial treaty with his country. The Shogunate Government granted this request in 1854 not only to America, but to Russia, England, France and Holland, and in the year following the three ports of Kanagawa, Nagasaki, and Hakadaté were opened to foreign trade. A party of American missionaries were the first to avail themselves of the opportunity thus offered to them. Among them were the Rev. J. Liggins, of the Protestant Episcopal Church of the United States of America, and the Rev. M. C. Williams, who came to Nagasaki in 1859. These were soon followed by Dr. G. F. Verbeck, of the Presbyterian Church (1859), and J. Goble, of the American Baptist Missionary Society (1860), and others. In 1864, the Rev. J. H. Ballagh, of the Dutch Reformed Church, came from America, and in the following year came Dr. Thompson, of the American Presbyterian Church.

In 1869, the Rev. D. C. Greene made Kobé the basis of his mission work representing the American Board of Commissioners for Foreign Missions. The first woman missionary, Miss Kidder, of the Dutch Reformed Church, arrived here in the same year. In 1873, the American Methodist Episcopal Church and the Canadian Methodist Church sent their missionaries, and in 1876 the Evangelical Association of North America started its propaganda work.

The Restoration When the Tokugawa feudal system collapsed and the Imperial House was restored to power, the edicts prohibiting "Kirishitan" were withdrawn, in the sixth year of Meiji(1873), and missionaries were officially permitted to establish schools, publish religious tracts, and preach their doctrines in all the sea-ports open for foreign trade. In 1872, the Rev. Brown and Rev. Ballagh of Yokohama established, aided by their young followers, a Christian church to be known as the Yokohama Yaso Kyokai, which was the beginning of the Union Church. In the following year a sister church was organized at Tsukiji, Tokyo. This was the first Christian church in the metropolis. In 1876 Nagasaki saw another church established. Later all these churches were federated under the name of the United Church of Christ in Japan. This was the origin of the Nihon Kirisuto Kyokai. The Rev. D. C. Greene who started his mission work in Kobé established a church known as the Settsu First Christian Church. This was the first Congregational Church ever organized in Japan, and developed into the present Kobé Kumiai Kirisuto Kyo-

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kai. In the same year the Umemoto-Cho Church came into existence in Osaka, which later came to be called the Osaka Kumiai Kirisuto Kyokai. Some time before this, thirty-five students of the Kumamoto Foreign School, who were converted to Christianity under the influence of their American teacher, Captain Janes, came up to Kyoto, and entered the Doshisha College just established by J. H. Neeshima, who had lately returned from America. After their graduation from the college they grew active as propagators of Christianity, and built up the foundations of the Nihon Kumiai Kirisuto Kyokai. In 1872, the Rev. Loomis and Rev. Ballagh conducted a Bible class for young men in the above-mentioned Church at Yokohama every Sunday afternoon. In 1873, a Congregational Missionary, Dr. Berry, set up in Kobé a Sunday-school, probably the first one conducted in the Japanese language. As to the vernacular translation of the Bible, in which Dr. Brown had been engaged for some time, the work progressed rapidly early in the Meiji Era, and the New Testament was completed in December, 1879, and the Old Testament in 1886. The chief translators were Brown, Verbeck, Greene, and Maclay, while among the native assistants were Takakichi Matsuyama, Masatsuna Okuno, Masahisa Uyemura, Kajinosuké Ibuka, Goro Takahashi, and others.

Y. M. C. A. In 1880, the Young Men's Christian Association was first organized in Tokyo, and among the leaders must be mentioned Hiromichi Kozaki, Kajinosuké Ibuka, Masahisa Uyemura, and Yoshiyasu Hiraiwa.

In 1870, Miss Kidder opened a school for girls in Yokohama. This was the first institution of the kind in Japan, and from it developed the present Ferris School for Girls. Four years later another girls' school, Kobé Jo Gakuin, was erected in Kobé by the Congregationalists.

According to the statistics of 1882, there were in that year 145 foreign missionaries, 93 organized churches, 13 of which were self-supporting, 4,367 adult members, 39 mixed schools, 15 girls' schools, 9 middle schools, 7 theological colleges, 109 Sunday-schools, 49 ordained preachers, 100 assistant preachers, 37 Bible women, and 5 hospitals.

In 1883, the Church of Christ sent missionaries to Japan, and in 1885 the Presbyterian Church of the United States of America did the same. The American Society of Friends, and the Evangelical Protestant Missionary Society of Germany and Switzerland also despatched their agents. In 1886, missionaries came from the Methodist Episcopal Church, South, and in Osaka a hall was set up for the Young Men's Christian Association. In 1887 the missionaries and representatives of the Episcopal Church of England and America had a conference, the result of which was the organization of the Holy Catholic Church of Japan. In the same year, the American Unitarian Association sent its representative, the Rev. A. M. Knapp, and following him came the Rev. Clay McCauley.

Freedom of Faith On February 11, 1889, the Constitution was promulgated, and freedom of faith was definitely guaranteed by Article XXVIII. In that year, L. D. Wishard, International College Secretary of the Young Men's Christian Association, came, and planned out a summer school for Bible study for the first time in this country. Since then every summer sees its work carried on. The United Church of Christ in Japan changed its name into the Church of Christ in Japan, compiled a fundamental law, settled on its creeds, and at last became an independent organization. Soon after, they put up a Board of Missions and made progress towards financial independence.

In 1890, the Universalist General Convention of America sent its missionaries. In 1895 officers of the Salvation Army came, and Gumpei Yamamuro joined it, and they at once started on their propaganda work. In the same year, the United Brethren in Christ started a mission.

Until 1901 the foreign missionaries had not been allowed to hold land in Japan, which greatly inconvenienced their activities. In that year the Home Minister gave permission to the Baptist Missionary Society in Japan to organize a corporation which could hold and manage lands and buildings for missionary purposes.

In 1905 the Japanese Congregationalists planned to be financially independent of the foreign mission by the end of this year; in this they were later successful.

In 1907 representatives of the Mthodist Church of Canada, the Methodist Episcopal Church, South, and the Methodist Episcopal Church convened in Tokyo with a view to effect a confederation of the three denominations in Japan. The First General Conference of the Methodist Church of Japan thus took place, and Yoichi Honda was chosen to be its first Bishop and was duly consecrated. In the same year F. L. Brown, of the International Sunday School As-

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sociation, arrived and the outcome of this visit was the organization of the Sunday School Association of Japan, marking an epoch in the history of the Sunday School of the Christian Church. The conference of the World's Student Christian Federation was also held this year in Tokyo, in which 160 foreign visitors took part representing twenty-five nations. This was the first world's convention of any kind in Japan.

Roman and Greek Churches. The Catholic Church has been active ever since the opening of the seaports for foreign trade. Missionaries from the Societé des Missions Etrangères in Paris are working all over the country, which is now divided by them into seven districts: Tokyo, Osaka, Hakodaté, Nagasaki, Shikoku, Niigata, and Sapporo, with a Bishop resident in Tokyo. In Shikoku there is a Spanish Dominican mission, while in Hokkaido the Franciscans have found their principal fields of activity, where are two Trappist monasteries. The Jesuit missionaries reached here again in 1908, but instead of following up their predecessors' work, they have now a college established in Tokyo and concentrate their efforts on education. Besides the Jesuits, those that are chiefly engaged in educational work are the Missionnaires de Marie, Société des Soeurs de Saint Paul, Société de Sacré Coeur and others. In the prefecture of Nagasaki, Catholics, who have been at work for the last three hundred years, though secretly, are still in the ascendency.

The activities of the Greek Church centered in the person of the Russian priest Father Nicolai, who came to Japan first as priest attached to the Russian consulate in Hokkaido in 1859. He reached Japan after crossing Siberia, and after settling in Hakodaté he baptized Takuma Sawabé and two other Japanese. In 1872 he came to Tokyo where he began missionary work. In 1884 he started to build a fine large church in Tokyo, which was completed in 1891. The church was regarded at that time as the greatest and finest building of the sort throughout Japan. The internal disturbances in Russia which followed the great world war made it very difficult to maintain this beautiful edifice, until in 1919 the followers succeeded in organizing an independent church known by the name of the "Orthodox Church of Christ in Japan."

Islam

Among the world religions Islam has given the smallest influence over the Japanese people. The Koran was translated into Japanese early in the Meiji Era (1868–1912), but the faith could not obtain many adherents, simply because it did not come to Japan with any political or economic elements accompanied. Islam is not yet officially recognized by the Japanese Government and the number of the Islamites in Japan is unknown, although it is believed that there are several hundreds of them in the land.

In August, 1937, the Islam Cultural Association was organized in Tokyo. Its president is Ryusaku Endo, and it issues a magazine "Islam" for the promotion of Islam culture in Japan. A mosque was built in Tokyo, early in 1938, by the hand of the Japanese Islamites. The friendly attitude of the Islamites in China and Islam countries toward Japan since the occurrence of the Sino-Japanese Conflict in 1937 has aroused a general sympathy and interests of the Japanese people on the religion and its believers.

State Regulation of Religions

Supervising Office A wholesale change of the governmental system took place at the time of the Restoration, and in the third year of Meiji (1870) the Mimbusho was established to take care of various affairs of the state, such as general home affairs, communications, etc. In the fourth year, this office was abolished, and the office of religious affairs was transferred to the Finance Department. With the establishment of the Kyobusho, or Department of Religions, in 1872, the shrines and temples were placed under the care of the new office. Then the Government appointed Shinto and Buddhist priests as official religious instructors who were to preach and educate the people according to the moral principles as follows: (1) to cherish reverence for the gods and the spirit of patriotism; (2) to elucidate Heavenly Reason and the principle of humanity; and (3) to honour and pay homage to the Emperor and to observe the Imperial ordinances. Afterwards the Kyobusho was abolished too, and all the business conducted by this office up to that time was transferred to the Department of Home Affairs which was established in 1873. The official appointment of religious instructors (Kyodo-shoku) was discontinued in 1884, and the business of appointing preachers was entrusted to the head-priests (Kwancho) of the various religious sects, together with the right of selecting the resident priest (Jushoku) for the temples under their jurisdiction.

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Each sect was, moreover, given the power of managing its own affairs under the supervision of the Government. Religion was thus separated from politics. With the promulgation of the Constitution on the 11th of February in the 22nd year of Meiji (1889), the principle of religious freedom was firmly established. In April, 1900, the former Bureau of Shrines and Temples was divided into two sections, i.e., the Bureau of Shinto Shrines and the Bureau of Religions. All administrative policy concerning the Shinto Shrines is now in charge of the former and is entirely independent of the policy governing religions. The Bureau of Religions was transferred to the Education Department in 1913, and is under its jurisdiction at present.

Administration of Religions At present, there are three kinds of religions in Japan. These religions are dealt with by the Government each in a different way, because Japan is still without specific laws defining the political status of these religions in connection with the State, though the principle of the administrative policy can recognize no such difference, as the Constitution gurantees freedom of faith. The Government, however, finds it natural not to mete out a uniform method of supervision over all these religions; for Buddhism, which has been in very close relation to the State and society for over one thousand years, and Shinto, which is the national cult of Japan, and Christianity, which was introduced to this country only half a century ago (putting aside the fact that it was once in this country a few centuries ago) can hardly be treated in a uniform method with satisfactory results.

From a practical point of view, the religious denominations or sects which are officially recognized and come under the proper jurisdiction of the Bureau of Religions at present are Shinto and Buddhism. A religious order is a congregation of preachers and adherents following a definite system of creeds having temples or preaching halls from which their religious movements issue. Shinto and Buddhist sects have not yet special regulations concerning cases of secession or incorporation, inasmuch as they are not allowed to make such regulations without the approval of the Education Minister. But affairs concerning the inner policy of the various sects are generally left to their own self-government, though the religious sects concerned are required by the State to compile fundamental rules defining their administrative policies approvable by the Education Minister.

Alteration of Rules The approval of the Education Minister is also required when they abolish or alter these rules. Each sect, Shinto or Buddhist, is required by the Government to select a head-priest, or Kwancho to govern and represent that sect. The appointment of a head-priest also requires official approval. In the compilation of a constitution for each sect they have to define the following particulars: (1) the fundamental law, (2) the status of the preacher and his official title, and (3) the grades of preachers and their appointment and dismissal. These particulars are to be regulated by each Shinto head-priest. Meantime, each Buddhist head-priest is to regulate the following particulars: (1) the fundamental law, (2) rules concerning the management of temples, (3) the status of the priest and preacher and their official titles, (4) the appointment and dismissal of the resident priest, or Jushoku, of a temple, and grades of preachers, and their appointment and dismissal, and (5) the preservation of old historical documents, treasures, and properties belonging to the temples.

Besides thus defining the particulars as stated above, the constitution of each sect has to regulate, through practical necessity, various affairs concerning its self-government. It must define, for instanace, the functions and powers of the head-priest and the method of election; the organization and power of the council; functions of various officers; financial affairs; organization of a temple or a preaching hall; qualifications of a resident priest; affairs relating to the personnel, such as conferring honours or giving punishments; missionary work; education; and other functional activities.

While all the Shinto and Buddhist sects are thus placed under the direct supervision of the Government as far as such fundamental affairs as are mentioned above are concerned, they are left to the care of the local governments concerning the practical functionings of their propaganda work. When the Shintoists or Buddhists want to build their temples or preaching halls, for instance, they must approach the local governments for permission. As Buddhist temples are, on account of their historical significance, regarded as legal persons, the use of the temple grounds, changes in their acreage, cutting down of the trees, and disposition of immovable property, temple treasures, historical documents, or fundamental funds, etc. all require the ap-

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proval of the local governor concerned.

Special Treatment of Christianity The Government gives no official recognition as regards the Christian denominations, because they, as such, stand in no legal relationship to the Government. In the case of Christianity, therefore, the official supervision does not go further than looking after its missionary activities, selection of preachers, establishment of churches or preaching halls, etc. The Ordinance No. 41 of the Education Office issued in 1899 requires that those who wish to engage in missionary work notify the local governor of the name of their religion and methods of preaching, with their personal history. When they want to build churches or other establishments for religious purposes, they have to approach the local authorities for permission, stating details of these establishments, methods of management and maintenance, qualifications of the preacher, and the process of selecting such preacher. In other words, the Government has special provisions for the Shinto and Buddhist denominations because of their peculiar historical status, while it is contented with being a mere overseer as regards Christianity. As far as their religious functions are concerned, however, the Government makes no distinction whatever between Shinto and Buddhism and Christianity. All religious sects are left to themselves unmolested as long as they do not disturb the peace of the country or practise immorality in connection with the propagation of their doctrines and the carrying out of their respective religious rituals.

New Religious Law

The bill for Control of Religious Organizations (Shūkyō Dantai Hōan) which was presented and approved by the 74th session of the Imperial Diet was framed on the basis of the summary draft of a measure adopted and submitted to the Cabinet by the Commission for the Investigation of Religious Systems after deliberations lasting from November 14 to December 10, 1938. This bill is comparatively simple in form and consists of 37 articles.

The enactment of a comprehensive law applying to religions has long been an issue in Japan. Bills were submitted to the Diet three times after 1899, but were shelved each time for varying reasons.

The importance of religion becomes heightened in time of national emergency. In Japan today it has been realized that some fixed regulations should be established for the protection and promotion of religious organizations. Essentially, religion is spiritual or ultramundane and is therefore extralegal. But inasmuch as religious teachers in Japan are Japanese subjects and religious organizations enjoy existence under protection of the law, specific legislation pertaining to them is inevitable and necessary for promoting, however indirectly, their healthy activities.

Existing ordinances relating to religions are diversified and lack uniformity. They consist of various ordinances, instructions and orders of different governmental departments, numbering more than 300, issued from the beginning of the Meiji Era. Their effect has been to impair the administrative and other activities of the religious organizations themselves. The present trend of national affairs suggests not only the need of legal unification of these separate regulations but also that of issuance of a new and complete law in order to prepare the way for the development of religious orders of sound character, which actually make contributions toward national life by protecting and extending assistance to the people. There is also the need of supervising the possible conduct of unhealthful doctrines detrimental to public welfare and peace.

Essential Points 1. The new law is to be applied to both religious organizations and religious societies. A religious organization (Shūkyō Dantai) is understood to be an association of believers organized for the purpose of advocating a religious faith and of conducting rituals; its establishment is recognized by the Minister concerned or by the Prefectural Governor according to specific regulations provided in the law. A religious society (Shūkyō Kessha) is understood to be an organization of believers organized similarly for the purpose of advocating a faith and of conducting rituals, but which is not considered by the State as coming under the category of a religious organization. As a matter of fact, the religious society is a new name for bodies hitherto known as "groups of believers in a faith analogous to a religion" (Ruiji-Shūkyō Dantai).

2. The proposed law groups all religious bodies into five classifications: Shinto sects (Kyōha), Buddhist denominations (Shūha), Christian and other religious organizations (Kyodan), temples, and churches. Actually, the first

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three of these include the latter two.

In regard to Shinto sects and Buddhist denominations, there has existed a basic law, however incomplete it may have been, known as Ordinance No. 19 of the Dajōkwan (predecessor of the present Cabinet) issued in 1884. Christian churches and other religious organizations have been left untouched, placed outside the purview of the Ordinance. The proposed law, therefore, includes them as religious organizations similar to Shinto sects or Buddhist denominations.

In principle, Shinto, Buddhism and Christianity are to be treated equally in accordance with the terms of the law. They have, however, different historical and social backgrounds. Accordingly, the law gives separate names to these religious bodies (the above-listed Shinto sects, Buddhist denominations and religious organizations belonging to Christianity and other faiths) to place a certain demarcation between them. However, in contrast to the old regulations which spoke of the religion "other than Shintoism and Buddhism," the new law names Christianity as a religious organization.

3. Establishment of the religious organizations prescribed in the law must obtain official recognition of the competent Minister in the case of the first three groups mentioned in Paragraph 2, or that of the Prefectural Governor in the case of individual temples or churches. Official recognition shall be given only to those organizations that have good traditions and stand on sound foundations, spiritual and material, and make laudable contributions to the nation and to society. The State undertakes to give protection and award special privileges to the religious organizations thus recognized.

According to the proposed law, for example, (1) the privilege of exemption from the income tax, which was hitherto enjoyed only by Buddhist temples, shall be extended to all other religious organizations; (2) the land tax shall not be levied, in principle, on the precincts of temples and churches; (3) the local surtaxes shall not be levied on the income of religious organizations as well as similar taxes on the precincts or buildings of temples and churches which are already exempted; (4) the privilege of being exempt from registration fees shall be extended to the registration of the precincts and buildings of temples and churches; and (5) attachments on the buildings or their lots which are used for public worship by the organizations and on the treasures of temples and churches are, in principle, prohibited.

4. As to protection, the special provisions included in the new law for the creation of a juridical person by the religious organizations provides for a new method of protection.

At present Buddhist temples only are allowed to create such legal persons, although the provisions pertaining to legal persons in the civil code have rarely been applied to them. No regulation exists for the creation of a juridical person by either Shinto sects or Buddhist denominations or Christian organizations.

The new law prescribes that Buddhist temples shall be juridical persons, and that Shinto sects, Buddhist denominations, Christian and other religious organizations and churches may be juridical persons. The law also contains many other provisions relative to this matter. With legal entity thus established, the organizations may be able to solve many of their financial problems and function in a less involved manner.

5. When they meet with bankruptcy, the religious legal bodies are to be dissolved just as secular corporations are, according to the law. But the dissolution of religious organizations merely on account of financial insolvency or acquirement of heavy debts, without taking into account their spiritual aims, origin, history, traditions and existing status, may appear unreasonable.

Accordingly, the proposed law, which may order dissolution of a religious organization, makes a series of special provisions to ameliorate this situation. In case the organization becomes bankrupt, (1) the State may leave it as a recognized religious organization for the time being; (2) the competent Minister may cancel his recognition as such when he comes to the conclusion that the organization cannot be saved by any means; and (3) with the cancellation of recognition, dissolution may take effect.

These provisions may be described as legal grace granted to religious organizations in recognition of their spiritual nature. Application of legal measures against a spiritual body only for secular reasons is contrary to the spirit of the new legislation.

6. The new law states that "the representatives (Sōdai) of the laymen shall assist the head monk or the super-

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intendent of a temple or church in matters of administration." Formerly, the relations between spiritual leaders and the representatives of the believers were very harmonious and the latter were proud of being "great supporters" or "secular protectors" of the spiritual institutions and willingly lent their services to them. But the recent trend in and out of Buddhist temples demonstrates that this custom is on the wane. The insertion of this provision in the new law is aimed at the sound management of secular affairs indispensable to the existence of temples or churches. Harmony between a temple and its parishioners, in particular, is indispensable for the effective management of temple affairs and at the same time may give a spiritual basis to the dealings of members of communities among themselves.

7. The important protective measures and privileges given to religious organizations by the law, as outlined in foregoing paragraphs, are to be extended only to religious organizations and not to religious societies, as defined in Paragraph 1.

Application for establishment of a religious society must be made by a proper representative to the Prefectural Governor within two weeks of the founding. Neglect in this regard or the presentation of a false report is punishable by fine.

In regard to the formation of new religions or quasi-religious cults, this has hitherto been placed under the jurisdiction of the police. But in view of the present state of ideological affairs, the new law assumes partial jurisdiction and applies to such religions those regulations concerning application for recognition and other conditions specially prescribed for the supervision of the religious societies, with the purpose of halting the unworthy ones in the bud or fostering the worthy ones to healthy growth. According to the provisions of the proposed law, a way is opened to the religious societies to advance to the status of religious organizations.

The inclusion of these societies in the Law for Control of Religious Organizations may be criticized as incongruous. But it is a matter of no little importance in encouraging the general growth of religions that the law gives them a place side by side the major religious organizations defined in Paragraph 2 and affords them the opportunity of raising their status.

8. The new law includes many regulations for supervision over religious organizations and societies, but reference here shall be limited only to those which have relation to Article 28 of the Constitution of the Japanese Empire.

Article 28 states: "Japanese subjects shall, within limits not prejudicial to peace and order, and not antagonistic to their duties as subjects, enjoy freedom of religious belief." Thus, although the Government has been empowered to resort to any means of restraining against the deeds of religious believers prejudicial to peace and order and antagonistic to their duties as subjects, no special regulations have been enforced to this effect.

The new law provides measures of restraint against religious preaching, rituals or conducts contrary to the prohibition clauses of Article 28 of the Constitution, giving the competent Minister power to cancel the official recognition of the establishment of religious organizations.

9. According to the provisions of the new law, religious groups may appeal to or sue the courts for redress against unreasonable decisions on the part of supervising authorities. This is a new feature in religious regulations in Japan. Where (1) the recognition of the establishment of the religious body is cancelled; where (2) preaching, rituals or other religious functions are restricted or prohibited as prejudicial to peace and order and antagonistic to the duties of the members as subjects of the Empire; and where (3) their conducts are ordered to cease or are prohibited as detrimental to public welfare, the aggrieved group or individual in the group may appeal for redress. Religious organizations who feel that their rights have been injured by the alleged unlawful cancellation of recognition or establishment may appeal to the Court of Administrative Litigation.

10. After legal organization of the religious organizations is completed and their finances are stabilized according to the law, the greatest problem connected with their activities is the human problem of obtaining the fittest persons for preaching and execution of rituals so that their faiths may be spread among the people and their organizations gain spiritual influence in society. The ability of these ecclesiastical leaders (the new law designates them as "teachers") bears direct consequence on the success of the religious organizations.

The new law, however, includes no

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provision for fixing the qualifications of the religious teachers and leaves the matter to the private regulations of the different bodies themselves, not from any neglect of the importance of the problem but to avoid possible friction with the traditional usages of different bodies which have their own individual standards, differing from those of other groups in doctrines, creeds, history and traditions. Any unification of such qualifications throughout different religious bodies may be considered an interference with their free religious activities and might, in the end, "kill the bull to strengthen its horns," as a Chinese proverb relates.

Many other important matters exist which the new law leaves untouched solely because the State wishes to respect the self-government of each religious organization and to refrain from bringing different religious bodies under a single sweeping standardization.

Religious Statistics

The following are the statistics of preaching halls, preachers and adherents of various religious sects and denominations:

SECTARIAN SHINTO IN JAPAN PROPER

(End of 1936)

Denomination	Preaching Halls	Preachers			Adherents (in 1930)
		Men	Women	Total	
Shinto	623	3,952	810	4,762	1,206,778
Kurozumi	451	3,606	502	4,108	551,236
Shusei	222	1,864	331	2,195	411,801
Taisha	208	2,970	97	3,067	3,343,477
Fuso	600	4,035	1,376	5,411	486,906
Jikko	257	1,966	668	2,634	403,519
Taisei	206	2,131	536	2,667	728,373
Shinshu	321	1,860	753	2,613	2,039,381
Ontaké	836	5,379	2,289	8,028	738,647
Shinri	336	1,629	336	1,965	1,412,332
Misogi	35	1,306	187	1,493	337,283
Konko	1,253	2,270	1,044	3,314	747,869
Tenri	10,909	47,245	35,575	82,620	4,118,238
Total	16,257	80,573	44,304	124,877	16,525,840

Note: The "kancho" or the executive head of each denomination is not included in the number of preachers.

BUDDHISM

(End of 1936)

Denomination	Temples	Priests			Adherents (in 1930)
		Men	Women	Total	
Tendai	4,438	2,851	84	2,935	2,134,369
Shingon	12,000	8,079	70	8,149	8,526,867
Jodo	8,234	6,363	375	6,738	3,997,875
Rinzai	5,978	4,230	320	4,550	2,367,977
Soto	14,351	11,879	331	12,210	6,859,324
Obaku	501	369	15	384	111,841
Shin	19,823	15,966	3	15,969	13,259,390
Nichiren	5,028	4,312	46	4,358	3,315,359
Ji	494	354	0	354	383,171
Yuzunenbutsu	354	234	10	244	133,493
Hosso	42	19	1	20	14,772
Kegon	33	19	0	19	22,869
Total including others	71,326	54,675	1,255	55,930	41,127,307

Note: There were 35,308 minor temples and 7,753 preaching places in addition to the number given above.

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CHRISTIANITY

PROTESTANT CHURCHES
(End of 1937)

	Churches and chapels	Preachers	Believers
Presbyterian	482	602	54,197
Congregationalist	325	197	32,860
Episcopal	302	457	28,859
Baptist	82	99	7,433
Methodist	517	557	37,976
Holiness	360	245	13,180
Other 20 denominations	1,003	718	41,323
Total	3,071	2,875	215,828

	Number	Teachers	Pupils
S. S.	2,807	11,724	171,352
			Students
Seminaries	13	176	467
Colleges	27	1,366	10,569
Middle and Girls High Schools	52	1,749	32,943
Elementary schools	4	49	674
Kindergartens	646	—	—

GREEK CHURCH
(June, 1938)

Churches	184
Believers	40,953
Priests and monks	61
S. S. pupils	715

SALVATION ARMY
(End of 1938)

Officers and cadets	461
Senior local officers	1,296
Junior soldiers	5,489
S. S. pupils	8,535
Corps	310
Soldiers perticipated in campains	40,248
Home Leagues	2,592
Social work institutions	27

Y. M. C. A.
(End of 1936)

Associations	179
Members	11,336
Officials	38
Buildings	22

ROMAN CATHOLIC CHURCH
(End of 1937)

Parishes and chapels	392	Orphanages	27
Priests and monks	639	Old people's homes	7
Sisters	1,152	Hospitals and Sanatoria	15
Believers	111,857	Leper asylums	2
University	1	Students	631
Middle Schools	7	Pupils	3,816
Girls' High Schools	24	,,	8,413
Other schools	31	,,	5,316
Sunday Schools	104	,,	6,198

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CHAPTER XXX

SOCIAL PROBLEMS AND SOCIAL WORKS

Social Problems

These may in the main be summarized under 6 headings:

(1) Poverty and Its Relief. In Japan the gap between rich and poor may not be quite so great as in some Western countries, but nevertheless it exists, and tends in some ways to become greater with the industrialization of the country. Poor-relief is one of the greatest problems of the authorities, for it must include the city slums, the beggars, and the increasing number of peasant paupers. In March, 1936, the number of the poor listed as coming under the poor relief protection law was 2,207,764 or 3.1 per cent of the total population in Japan proper.

(2) Condition of Labourers. This, with the attendant matters of pay and hours, especially in relation to international labour conferences and agreements, calls for careful Government handling: the protection of child and woman labour particularly so. Labour conditions in 1936 and 1937 improved in a considerable degree because of the expansion of the heavy industries.

(3) Position of Women. The protection of women and the elevation of their social and legal status is in some ways especially an Oriental problem. Socially their position has been much raised of late years, so that it now approximates nearly to that of men; but the old discriminative laws enacted in the Meiji Era still handicap women in many respects. In regard to the age-old question of licensed prostitution the Government is planning the entire abolition of the system within a year or so, and statistics show a slight decrease in the last few years, largely owing to the increase in the number of other places of entertainments.

(4) Public Health. In a country which carries such a dense population this is a matter of vital importance. Medical science in Japan is second to none in the world with regard to its recent progress and present position, her doctors and surgeons having made contributions of inestimable value to mankind, and in some cases paid for them with their lives. But difficulties attend its application. The cost of treatment and of drugs and chemicals is high, and suggestions have been made for the nationalization of all medical business in order to help the poor. In January, 1938, a new Ministry of Health and Social Affairs was established for the purpose of improving the health conditions of the people.

(5) Thought Guidance. The guidance of the people's thought through the eddying turmoil of modern ideas and theories, from Marxism to Fascism with all intermediate shades, and the handling of practical matters connected therewith, are of the very gravest concern to this country, and are engaging the deepest attention of the authorities. The final settlement of these matters must be largely dependent on that of the preceding problems, though some consider that more radical and direct action is necessary for its attainment than merely so-called social work. But inasmuch as most of these movements, radical or reactionary, include schemes for the sudden overthrow of the existing social system, neither the Government nor the people at large can regard them with unconcern.

(6) Extraordinary Social Problems (A) Change of Occupation. As a result of the enforcement of the plan for mobilization of materials in connection with the China Affair, considerable numbers of merchants and manufacturers have been forced to suspend or close their businesses, or to curtail business operations. Such industrialists and tradespeople have to be helped to tide over the emergency by entering war-supplies industries and such other trades as are calculated to remove anxiety and unrest.

(B) Care of Wounded Soldiers. Another grave problem arising out of the armed conflict with China is the care of wounded soldiers. The authorities and the people are doing their best for the protection and care of soldiers disabled by injuries or by illness. Mentions are given on these extraordinary problems at the end of this chapter, together with the store law newly instituted for the health and hygiene of employees in shops.

The fourth problem, relating to Public Health, is specially treated in Chapter

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XXXII, while further reference is made to the others in the chapter on Labour.

Social Work

Before Meiji Era Prince Shotoku, Regent, established, in 593, Hidenin (a house for the poor), Sheyakuin (a medicine house for the poor) and Ryobyoin (a house for the sick). In 730 the Empress Komyo founded Hidenin and Sheyakuin at Nara. She herself washed the bodies of the poor and nursed the lepers.

Among the many benevolent works which he did at places where he stayed during an evangelistic journey through the country, Gyoki, a Buddhist monk who lived at the time of the Emperor Shomu (724–749), established 9 public lodging houses and a public bath-house at Arima hotspring near Kobé

Hokin-in, a Buddhist nun and sister of Wake-no Kiyomaro, a famous loyalist, made an appeal for, saved, and took under her care 375 rebels who were sentenced to death in 764. When a little later, at the end of the 8th century, famine struck Kyoto and children were abandoned on the streets she gathered 83 under her motherly care. This was the beginning of orphanges in Japan. Her example was followed by the Empress Masako, consort of the Emperor Junna (823–833), who took care of many orphans and abandoned children in Kyoto, and established in 876 a leper asylum in the precincts of Daikakuji temple, Kyoto.

In 1180 Jugen, a monk, built 15 public bath-houses for the poor. Kosho, another Buddhist monk, worked for prisoners, taught beggars and outcasts to refrain from drinking, and instructed prostitutes in the doctrines of Buddhism.

The monk Ninsho of Seidaiji temple, Nara, followed the example of Prince Shotoku and repaired houses for poor patients and lepers. For lepers he built an asylum which is still standing at Kitayama, Nara, and is under Government protection as a specimen of social work of early times. Later he became the superior of Gokurakuji temple at Kamakura and established, in 1287, an asylum for the poor. In the following 20 years the asylum accommodated over 57,250 patients, of whom over 46,800 were cured. At the foot of Kamakura hill he also built a house for sick horses.

Public baths for the poor were prevalent in the Kamakura Age (1192–1337). It was during this period that nunneries were first opened for the protection of women who were maltreated by their husbands, somewhat in the manner of the six cities for refuge mentioned in the Old Testament, Numbers, chap. 35. Two of these have remained to the present day: one, Tokeiji at Kamakura which was rebuilt in 1285 by Sadatoki Hojo for his mother; the other, Mantokuji in the country of Nitta, Gumma prefecture, which in the year 1591 was to accommodate a daughter of the Tokugawa. These nunneries were highly admired since some of the nuns came from the high warrior class and could stand against local authorities in protecting the weaker sex who took refuge in the nunneries. They became known as Enkiridera or divorce temples.

In 1670 Tsunanori Mayeda (1643–1742), the lord of Kaga, present Kanazawa prefecture, established public lodging houses for beggars and poor patients on a hillside south of his castle in Kanazawa. There were 45 houses, each measuring 12 by 120 feet. When opened 1,753 beggars and outcasts were taken in. Poor travellers were given expenses at leaving and unemployed artisans were cared for till they found suitable posts, while others were taught small trades. One of the latter was skilled in sword making and swords signed by the swordsmith "Hinin Kiyomitsu" or beggar Kiyomitsu are highly admired as masterpieces.

The blind were, from early times protected by the Imperial House and in the Nara Age the Kugas took charge of them by Imperial order. Music was taught them to enable them to earn a living. There thus arose many first class blind players of the "biwa" or the "koto." In the Yedo Age the blind received relief money or were trained in acupuncture and massage. In 1722 the Tokugawa Shogunate built an asylum at Koishikawa, Yedo (Tokyo) for patients of the poorest class. The capacity at first was 40 beds, but later it was increased to 150.

Kanonko, a Buddhist corporation, was established in 1830 by Sukenari Naha of Akita. Later 72 donors came to his help and the aged, invalids, the sick, the deformed and the mentally deficient were cared for. In 1930 the corporation had a fund amounting to ¥51,887 and 2,760 koku of rice.

The above are a few examples selected from among numerous recorded instances of social work in old Japan. It must also be noted that relief work either by the government or individuals necessarily followed natural calamities in all ages on a considerable scale.

Meiji Era The Nagoya earthquake in 1891, the North-Eastern tidal wave damages and the famine in 1896, had quickened the development of orphanage work,

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and at the time of the Sino-Japanese and Russo-Japanese wars relief work for soldiers, child protection, and free medical treatment were also being taken up but mostly by philanthropic individuals so they hardly differed from the old-fashioned benevolent and rescue work. The World War served as a great stimulus for the development of modern social work, for the economic, social and moral changes suddenly brought about at that time and after the great conflict raised various kinds of social problems and at the same time accelerated progress in all kinds of social work, such as relief of the poor, free medical treatment, provision of houses, employment exchanges, child protection, settlement work and the like. The great earthquake of 1923 was an epoch-making event from the standpoint of the development of such work.

From the beginning of the twentieth century the Japanese Government has passed many laws on social work, the most important of them being :—the Military Relief Act of 1917, the Tuberculosis Prevention Act of 1919, the Employment Exchange Act and the Housing Association Act of 1921, the Health Insurance Act of 1922, and the Insanitary Houses Improvement Act and the public Pawnshops Act of 1927.

Social Bureau In regard to the administrative organization of social work, before the World War there were only a few officials engaged in reform and relief work, and these were tucked away in one corner of the Department of Home Affairs. But in August, 1917, a relief section was established in its Local Government Bureau. In 1919, this section was called the Section of Social Affairs and in 1920, it became the new Bureau of Social Affairs and a central organization for social work; in 1922, the present independent Social Bureau came into existence and the administration of all social work throughout the country was brought under its control. In January, 1938, the Bureau was merged into the Department of Health and Social Affairs. The conditions of social work in Japan for the year ending March, 1935 were as follows : the number of social work institutions and organizations, both public and private, was 11,908, with an annual expenditure of ¥98,289,000, including ¥14,967,000 of the Governmental social works and subsidies and ¥83,322,000 of the social works carried out by local governments; and the total amount of their property was estimated at ¥270,933,000. The number of persons engaged in the social works was 62,505.

The present tendency of Japanese social work is paving the way for the transformation of social work into a definite governmental social policy. While the old benevolent work has developed into the present social work, the fundamental idea and methods have undergone a great change. The present social work is carried on not necessarily with the idea of benevolence but rather on the principles of social solidarity and mutual help. From the standpoint of public welfare and mutual responsibility, modern social work has as its aim the solution of social problems and positive social reconstruction to accomplish the social welfare policy in co-operation with legislation on labour and social insurance.

Imperial Participation The Imperial House has been playing a leading part in the promotion of Social work in Japan. Not to speak of the Imperial gifts in olden times, the Imperial donation of ¥1,500,000 in 1907 was the commencement of modern social work in Japan on a considerable scale because it called forth contributions from the people amounting to ¥24,350,000, and a society was organized for medical treatment for the poor. The annual Imperial donation for representative social work all over Japan was begun in 1921. The Imperial donation amounted to ¥179,300 for 787 institutions in 1934, ¥200,000 for 798 institutions in 1935 and ¥195,000 for 789 institutions in 1936.

Administration and Expenses

Social Work Administration The matter of paramount interest at the beginning of 1937, was the improvement of the administrative system of labour exchanges, the institution of the Mother and Child Protection Law, and the revision of the Military Relief Law, the Relief Law, and the Ainu Protection Law, which were passed during the 70th session of the Diet.

In order to investigate all phases of social work the Social Work Investigation Commission increased the number of its members in July, 1936, and the above social laws were drawn up according to the advice of the Commission.

Legalization of Homen Iin (Block Committee) System The Homen Iin or Block Committee system consists in the appointing, by prefectural governors or other responsible bodies, of honorary committees of those private persons who are interested in social work and are able to get in easy touch with the people who need relief, so that proper relief is given the poor and the maximum results obtained. The system originated

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with the establishment of an advisory committee to the Saiseikai association in Okayama prefecture in 1917. Since then, partly because of the recent trend in social affairs and partly by the recognition of the good results brought about by the activities of the Committees, the system has spread to not only all prefectures in Japan proper, but also to Taiwan and Chosen. The promulgation of the revised Relief Law in 1931 required greater activity of the committees.

At the beginning of 1936 the number of the Block Committees reached 40,700 in Japan proper and some 1,300 in the Colonies. The managing bodies of this system are the prefectural authorities, though there are a certain number of city, town or other private organizations. At the end of 1934 the system was established in 8,236 cities, towns and villages, while there were 3,297 without it.

The number of cases handled by the Block Committees increases every year, the figure for 1935 being 6,000,000. The number of poor families registered on the cards of the Block Committees all over Japan proper reached 490,000 with over 1,990,000 people at the end of 1934, their proportion to the total population of the country being about 5% in urban and 2.5% in rural districts.

Inasmuch as the Block Committees exercise a function which bears upon the fruits of the social policy and enterprises of the country, the necessity of legalizing the system has been pointed out not only by the committees themselves but also by others. Reasons for legalizing the system are: first, by giving it legal status the Government may utilize the system for carrying out smoothly various kinds of administrative work and may increase efficiency in the administration of social work; in the second place, the function of the committee is not only to give material aid to the needy but also to improve their moral character. Their guiding principles, therefore, should be clearly set out in law; and in the third place, the work of the committees has in the past been carried out independently in the various districts so that the management and results have differed widely and national unification and proper control have become necessary. The Imperial Ordinance for Block Committees (Imperial Ordinance No. 3,980 of 1936) was promulgated on November 14, 1936 and was enforced as from January 15, 1937. The principal points to be noticed in the Ordinance are that guiding principles and the duties of the committees are clearly stated; that except in Tokyo and Yokohama the work is to be under prefectural management; that the selection of the committees has been made very strict; that the Block Work Commission has been established and that heads of cities, towns and villages are to be present at the meetings of the commission to make the relations between the committees and city, town and village authorities closer.

CONDITIONS OF THE WORK OF THE BLOCK COMMITTEE

(March, 1935)

Number of committees.

Prefectural	City	Town and village	Private bodies	Total
45	6	26	3	80

Number of blocks.

Total number of cities, towns and villages in the country	Those having the system	Those not having the system
11,382	8,085	3,297

Number of committeemen.

In towns and villages	In cities	Total
29,502	9,752	39,254

Number of families and their members in cities, towns and villages where the system is established and the number of poor families and their members which are registered.

Kinds		Total number of families	Registered Serious cases	Ordinary cases	Total
Families	Cities	4,571,777	114,916	155,582	270,498
	Towns and villages	6,665,963	55,696	169,369	225,065
House members	Cities	21,975,800	459,470	640,906	1,100,376
	Towns and villages	35,396,049	183,331	706,367	889,698

Revision of the Ainu Protection Law As regards the protection of the aborigines or Ainu of Hokkaido the Ainu Protection Law was enacted in 1889.

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But since the Ainu have advanced in many ways, and conditions in Hokkaido have changed with the progress of development work in the island, it became necessary to revise the law to conform with the changes in the life of the Ainu and their environments. The revised Ainu Protection Law which was passed in the 70th session of the Diet recognizes the use of land to some extent, as a means of extending relief.

For Koreans The number of Koreans in Japan proper which was 118,000 at the end of 1924, increased to more than 608,000 at the end of 1935. Their language, manners, and mode of living differ so widely from those of the Japanese that they were liable to cause much trouble, and it was decided to educate, lead and encourage them to raise their standard of living. For that purpose a sum of money was budgeted and proper facilities given.

Expenses The expense for social work are derived from three sources, State, local and private. These expenses have increased on account of the rapid development of the work, especially since the rice riots in 1918 and the Great Earthquake of 1923. The estimated expenses of social work borne by the National Treasury for 1937–38 reach ¥18,172,156. As the result of merging the Social Bureau into the Department of Welfare in 1938 the budget is included in the budget of the new Department which is given in Chapter VIII, Public Finance.

Child Protection

Child protection in Japan is divided into the following nine main classes :— (1) Care for women in pregnancy or confinement, (2) care for infants, (3) for weakly children, (4) for children of the very poor, (5) for the education of children, (6) for child-workers, (7) for maltreated children, (8) for children to be reformed, (9) for abnormal children and (10) for mother and child.

Women in Pregnancy or Confinement The infant mortality rate of Japan was lower until 1900 than in Western countries, but since then it has gradually risen, till it reached the deplorable figure of 189 deaths for every 1,000 births in 1918. Though there has been a decrease since then, in 1936 the rate was still as high as 11.6 per cent. As for the still-birth rate, though there was some tendency towards decrease, it was 5.0 for every 100 births in 1936, the total number of still-births reaching 111,056, that is, 1.58 for every 1,000 of the population. The greatest emphasis in child protection is laid on the protection and aid of expectant mothers, or the protection of children before and at the time of birth. For this kind of work there are at present such organizations as maternity hospitals, visiting midwives and confinement advisory institutes, besides legislation for maternity protection. In March, 1936 there were 52 maternity hospitals throughout the country, while visiting midwives' organizations numbered 493. Legislation for maternity protection is included in the Factory Law, the Mining Law and the Health Insurance Law. The first two laws provide that owners of industrial and mining plants shall not require expectant mothers to work if they apply for leave of absence; after child-birth the mother shall not be required to resume work for 6 weeks, though if she requests work after 4 weeks and a doctor certifies her as fit, she may be allowed to resume it.

According to the Health Insurance Law, persons insured are to receive 20 yen for the expenses of confinement and also a daily amount corresponding to 60 per cent of each day's wage throughout the non-productive period for 28 days before and 42 days after childbirth.

Infant Protection The institutions now existing are divided into the following four kinds :—(a) hospitals for the unweaned pauper infants, (b) day-nurseries, (c) institutions for providing milk or other nutritious food for sickly and undersized children, and (d) infant health consultation institutes.

(a) Infant hospitals. There were 29 infant hospitals in the country in March, 1936. Of these 5 were established by public authorities and the rest were managed by private bodies or individuals.

(b) Day-nurseries. The demand for this work has become greater year by year, owing to the recent development of industry and the influx of population into cities. The oldest institute for this work was the one established by Mr. Shobi Akazawa in the city of Niigata, June, 1890. In March, 1936 there were 887 in the country, of which 135 were public establishments.

(c) Institutions for providing nutritious food. The work for providing milk was first undertaken by the Hygiene Bureau of the Home Office with the help of the city of Tokyo as an emergency measure immediately after the Earthquake of 1923, for infants whose parents were quartered in parks or other places of the city. There were 6 such organizations.

(d) Infant health clinics. The first independent organization for this kind of work was the Osaka Children's Clinic

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established in 1919. In March, 1936 there were 152 such advisory institutes.

Child-Protection As for the legislation for the protection of poor children, it is provided for in the part concerning children in the Regulations for Relief of the Poor promulgated on April 2, 1929. According to the national survey made by the Bureau of Social Affairs in 1926, the number of widows and their children and children of widowers or whose parents were destitute of daily necessities was 133,588.

(a) Orphan Asylums. As was the case in Western countries, the orphanage may be said to have been one of the earliest institutions that led the Japanese toward social relief work in general. The work has made remarkable progress and is supported by the public with better understanding and large contributions. In March, 1936, there were 131 orphan asylums in the country of which only 5 were founded by public bodies. The total expenses of these asylums in 1935-36 were ¥1,087,208 for 1,710 children, chiefly met by incomes from the funds, incomes from business, subscriptions and public or private donations.

(b) Protection of weakly children. Physically weak children are cared for in recreation houses located near the sea or in the woods. The first example of this kind of work was that of the Tokyo Child-Nursing Institute which took a certain number of weakly children to the seashore of Boshu in 1900. Later, in June, 1926, the Child Protection Society, a corporation established in the compounds of the Bureau of Social Affairs, took up the work and has since provided a model example. As for the medical treatment of weakly children, the Children's Charity Hospital and the Children's Department of the Osaka Branch Hospital of the Japan Red Cross Society have been producing good results.

(c) Protection of Children of School Age. The elementary school attendance in Japan surpasses most of the nations of the world in its high rate. But there are a certain number of children who are kept from school partly through the operation of Article 33 of the Regulations for Elementary Schools, which recognizes as right in certain cases the non-attendance of children of school age, and partly because of poverty of the family. In March, 1937, the number of such children was 47,468. Encouragement of school attendance of these children, in some way or other, is made by the Government and various private bodies. Every year the Education Department gives Common Education Encouragement Grants to prefectures for the purpose of encouraging children to attend school. Owing to this help, the rate of school attendance of children in general has increased in a notable degree, and the percentage of daily attendance was 99.59 in the school year 1936-37.

The number of schools for giving poor children compulsory education and the number of those which have evening classes for the same purpose was 40 with 6,165 pupils in 1935-36. Besides these schools there were 15 nurse-maids' schools with 351 pupils, at the end of March, 1936.

The heavy depression in farm and fishing villages deprived many elementary school children of their lunch and the Government bore the expenses for their lunch for three years, from April, 1932 to March, 1935. The disbursement of the National Treasury for the purpose was ¥668,101 for 1932-33 ¥1,069,536 for 1933-34 and ¥1,481,873 for 1934-35. The number of children benefited was 425,628 in 13,865 schools during the year 1932-33, and 512,632 in 13,614 schools during the following year.

(d) Protection of Child Workers. The International Labour Conference paid great attention to this problem of protection of child workers, and its first conference, in 1919, adopted an agreement relating to the minimum age of child workers employed in industries and to child night work; at the second Conference, in 1920, an agreement relating to the minimum age of child workers at sea, was reached; and at the third Conference, in 1921, an agreement relating to child workers in agriculture was arrived at. In Japan, there had been some laws in force already, but the International Labour Conference, and recent labour conditions necessitated the revision of these laws and regulations. The legislative measures now in force for protection of child workers are the Revised Factory Law of 1923, the Minimum Age of Industrial Workers Law of 1923, the Regulations for Relief of Miners of 1926, and the Minimum Age of Seamen and Certificate of Health Law of 1923. In the Revised Factory Law Article III provides that children under 16 years of age and women shall not be employed more than 11 hours a day (exception being 15 hours for certain kinds of occupations.) Article IV prohibits their night work, and Article VII states that they shall not be employed in dangerous work. In the Minimum Age of Industrial Workers Law Article II provides that children less than 14

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years of age shall not be employed in industrial work, but those children over 12 years of age who have finished the ordinary elementary school course shall be exempted from this rule. In the Regulations for Relief of Minors Article VI provides that children under 16 years of age and women shall not be employed more than 11 hours a day, and Articles XII and XIII that children under 16 years of age shall not be employed in dangerous work. In the Minimum Age of Seamen and Certificate of Health Law Article II provides that children less than 14 years of age shall not be employed, and Article III that in case of children under 18 years of age being employed a doctor's certificate of health must be obtained. Just before the enforcement of these laws, that is, at the end of 1925, there were 474 children over 10 and under 12 years of age and 6,709 children who were over 12 and under 14 years old who had not yet finished their compulsory education but were employed in industries. However, the Minimum Age of Industrial Workers Law enforced on July 1, 1926, has since prohibited their employment.

(e) Reformatory Work. In March, 1900, the Reformatory Law was enacted and the establishment of prefectural reformatories was encouraged by the Government. According to this law, however, their establishment was voluntary. In 1908, the law was revised and Prefectural authorities were compelled to found reformatories. Within two years of the enactment of the Law 30 reformatories were founded, both public and private. In August, 1917, an ordinance in regard to the founding of a national reformatory, which had been pending for many years, was promulgated, and in March, 1919, a State Reformatory, named the Musashino-Gakuin, was founded in a suburban village of Tokyo. The bills for juvenile courts and houses of correction, passed by the Diet in April, 1921, as the Juvenile Law and the House of Correction Law were revised and promulgated in May, 1933, as the Juvenile Protection Law, effective from October 1, 1934.

In March, 1936, there were 58 reformatories, with 2,841 children. The expenses amounted to ¥805,077 for 1935-36. In addition to these reformatories, there are 31 Correction Societies which are taking care of boys and girls who are not under the direct care of the reformatories.

(f) Protection of Abnormal Children. Blind and deaf-mute children are taken care of in 78 schools for the blind and 62 schools for the deaf-mute. The number of organizations for protecting feeble-minded and other mentally defective children was 9 in all, of which only one, that is, the Imamiya-Gakuen established by the City of Osaka, is a public one, and the aggregate number of inmates was 306, in March, 1936. It is estimated that there are over 5,000 such children left entirely to the ineffective care of their parents.

(g) Prevention of Maltreatment. The Law for the Prevention of Child Maltreatment, which was promulgated with Law No. 40 in April, 1933, lays down the power of prefectural governors to give adequate warning against maltreatment of children by the people who have power over them, makes provisions for putting such children under the care of suitable persons when necessary; and prohibits having such children engage in such performances as acrobatics and circuses or in infamous houses. It was put in force on October 1, 1933 and in the half year from October 1, 1933 to March 31, 1934, the number of children protected by the Law was 593; of the total 179 were those subjected to maltreatment by parents or relatives, while 414 were forced to overwork in petty shows or as street singers, geisha girls, etc.

The number of establishments for the purpose was 6 with 111 children protected in March, 1936.

Mother and Child Protection With the institution of this new law the State has taken the responsibility of assisting unsupported mothers, who are unable to educate their children on account of poverty. According to investigations made by the Social Bureau in May, 1935, there were 95,000 such mothers and children in Japan proper. Hitherto the protection of helpless mothers and children has been carried out by many public and private benevolent bodies, and under the general Relief Law. The conditions of the relief of mothers and children under the general Relief Law were as illustrated by the following table, not including other homes or dormitories for the same purpose which numbered 42 in all.

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RELIEF OF MOTHERS AND CHILDREN

(Amount in yen)

Fiscal Year	Children under 13 years of age		Nursing Mothers		Total	
	Number	Relief Money	Number	Relief Money	Number	Relief Money
1932-33	63,140	1,301,395	1,352	35,571	64,492	1,337,096
1933-34	84,566	1,984,723	1,758	58,098	86,324	2,042,821
1934-35	91,946	2,052,264	999	19,445	92,945	2,071,709
1935-36	97,375	2,222,915	1,089	23,726	98,464	2,246,641

In order to make the relief of these mothers and children more complete the new Mother and Child Protection Law was passed at the 70th session of the Diet. Article 1 of the Mother and Child Protection Law states that those mothers or grandmothers who have children under 13 years of age and have to earn a living by their own effort and cannot live or bring up children because of poverty are protected in accordance with the provisions of the law.

Economic Protection

Supply and Improvement of Houses (a) Building and Management of Houses by Public Bodies. In the year 1918, to meet the pressing need for economic and sanitary housing a note was issued to encourage public bodies to build and supply houses, the building cost of which might be loaned from the Funds of the Deposits Bureau of the Finance Department. This loan together with a loan from the Reserve of the Post Office Life Insurance greatly facilitated the building work. Several other means were adopted to facilitate the work, namely, the sale of building materials produced from the Government forests at low cost, reduction in or exemption from freight charge for transportation of building materials, application of the Land Expropriation Law, if necessary, in case of buying land for the building of houses of public bodies, and freedom from the Registration and Construction Taxes.

The Government issued the Housing Association Law in April, 1921, and it was put into force the same year. Associations are to be legal persons possessing several privileges in respect of taxation, acquisition of land, etc., working funds being loaned to the associations from the Funds of the Deposits Bureau of the Finance Department through the prefectural offices. The Dojun-kai, a building corporation, established immediately after the great earthquake of 1923 with a fund of ¥10,000,000, a part of the contributions for the reconstruction of Tokyo and Yokohama, has supplied many dwellings and apartments for the people in these two cities, independent of the government measure.

The sum of low interest-rate money advanced by the Government since 1921 amounts to more than ¥135,000,000. Demands for dwelling-houses gradually decreased after 1929, and the sum advanced for the purpose has decreased accordingly. The number of dwelling-houses built under the law up to 1935 reached 83,000 (of which 6,000 were built through the Wooden Stores Construction Fund.) At the end of 1936 the number of the Building Societies was 2,813 with a membership of more than 31,620, and total sum defrayed for buildings reached ¥69,300,000.

In addition to the supply of dwelling-houses in general the Government subsidized the reconstruction of a great many houses damaged by the Great Earthquake and Fire in 1923, the earthquakes in Hyogo prefecture in 1925 and in 1927, in Izu peninsula in 1930, by the tidal waves in the north-eastern districts in 1933 and by the typhoon in the Kansai districts in 1934.

(b) Enforcement of the Insanitary Dwelling Site Improvement Law. Supply of dwellings is one aspect of this question and their improvement is another. The first step taken by the Government in the latter was to improve and remake the sites in cities where poorly built houses were crowded together. A nation-wide investigation made in June, 1925, showed that there were 217 such quarters with over 72,600 families and over 309,9000 inhabitants. The land level was generally low, the quarters naturally damp, and an intricate network of unpleasant narrow roads, together with a congestion of small but not at all compact houses lacking in proper light and ventilation, made the place an unplanned hodge-podge. For the start of their programme, the Government, taking up a plan to remake such quarters existing in the six largest cities (Tokyo, Osaka, Nagoya, Kyoto, Kobé and Yokohama) and in the rural districts contiguous to them, enacted in March, 1927, the Insanitary

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Dwelling Site Improvement Law which was enforeced in the same year. Subsidies granted to local governments from the national treasury for this purpose amounted to ¥3,200,000 in 1927–1935. The work is to be continued till 1943 with a subsidy amounting to ¥1,707,685.

Public Lodgings Single working men, unemployed persons and the like, as a rule, sleep in imperfectly-equipped doss-houses or cheap lodgings, or live with others. In 1925, there were 8,873 doss-houses with 92,861 monthly sojourners who had families, 200,518 single persons and 208,775 one-night lodgers, amounting to 502,154 persons in all. This situation was not at all desirable viewed from any angle, and the preparation of cheap yet healthy public lodging-houses seemed an urgent need for the welfare of labourers and the like. The number of such lodgings in March, 1936, was 155, with 3,686,593 one-night lodgers in 1935-36. Of the total number of lodgings 67 were free, the rest charging 10, 15 or 20 sen a night.

Public Markets The public markets are retail markets managed by public bodies or public welfare organizations having as their aim a cheap supply of food-stuffs and other daily necessaries. According to the investigation made in November, 1921, by the Bureau of Social Affairs, the average cost of food-stuffs of the poor families in the city of Tokyo was 54.7% of their total living expenses. In August, 1918 a rice riot, which was started by the poor housewives at a small village of Toyama prefecture, spread over the country like a prairie fire. The situation awakened Imperial solicitude, and ¥3,000,000 was granted for relief from the Privy Purse. The Government also provided ¥10,000,000, and the amount of contributions by wealthy men and benevolent persons reached ¥25,000,000. This money was used in giving rice to the poor in the country and in opening establishments where rice was sold at lower prices. In December of the same year, the Government issued a note encouraging the establishment of public markets, and made loans available at a low rate of interest for the necessary expenses in establishing such markets. In March, 1936, there were 278 such markets opened in all prefectures but 6, and sales for the fiscal year 1935-36 amounted to ¥54,354,432.

Lunch Rooms The object of the people's lunch rooms, whether attached to a public lodging-house or independent, is to provide labourers, small-salaried men and the like with simple, wholesome and sanitary meals at cheap rates. In March, 1936, there were 70 of these people's lunch rooms, most of them managed by public bodies and located in cities and towns, with 10,246,608 meals taken in 1935-36. Each meal cost from 12 to 20 sen.

Public Baths Japanese people greatly enjoy their baths, but only a small proportion of them can afford private baths. The majority have to utilize public baths. Moreover, it is not very infrequently the case that people take fewer baths than they require as the bath-charges are not low enough. Herein lies the need of sanitary, well-equipped, cheap or free public baths. The number of public baths in March, 1936, was 170, patronized by 19,421,047 bathers in a year.

Public Pawnshops The pawnshop and the money-lender are utilized by people of small means as a simple and popular means of monetary circulation. The Public Pawnshop Law, promulgated in 1927, regulated managing bodies subsidies of 50 per cent of equipment expenses from the national treasury, loans, computation of interest and term of pledge. The present financial depression throughout the urban and rural districts has caused unprecedented tightness of money among the salaried men, labourers and farmers of smaller means, and the need for public pawnshops has become more acute. The estimated amount of subsidies for the public pawnshops for 1937–38 is ¥90,000.

The number of public pawnshops which was only 71 at the time of the enactment of the Public Pawnshop Law, has increased every year since and reached 1,091, at the end of April, 1936. Since the economic crisis of 1932, money has become tight in the rural districts, so that the Government has been making special efforts to establish pawnshops in those districts.

However, when the above mentioned number of public pawnshops is compared with that of private pawnshops which numbered 12,700 at the end of 1934, the former is still lagging far behind. In view of this the Government is determined to make further efforts for their establishment.

In examining the number of people who are benefiting from the use of pawnshops, classified according to the kinds of occupation, we find labourers are greatest, followed by small retailers, small-scale manufacturers, farmers, salaried men and fishermen in the order named. It will be specially noted that the member of fishermen and farmers has increased conspicuously since 1932.

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PAWNERS AT THE PUBLIC PAWNSHOPS

	Pawnshops	Pawners						
		Labourers	Salaried men	Small industrialists	Small merchants	Farmers	Fishermen	Others	Total
1931-32	314	393,762	112,888	129,556	229,502	77,590	44,976	176,101	1,164,375
1932-33	510	465,012	139,498	151,957	293,249	96,091	48,486	237,707	1,432,000
1933-34	765	567,355	154,810	200,600	394,526	142,487	86,964	311,070	1,857,812
1934-35	999	709,782	182,742	258,423	500,101	207,571	118,473	404,270	2,381,362
1935-36	1,079	876,966	209,984	294,519	608,453	254,466	146,809	487,403	2,878,600

STANDING LOANS OF THE PUBLIC PAWNSHOPS

	Pawnshops	Number of Loans	Amount of Loans (In yen)	Average Amount per Loan (In yen)	Standing Amount of Loans at the End of the Fiscal year (In yen)
1930-31	261	1,228,672	6,479,853	5.27	3,809,972
1931-32	314	1,433,020	7,242,398	5.05	3,675,878
1932-33	510	1,731,476	8,475,092	4.89	4,031,242
1933-34	765	2,254,220	11,796,763	5.23	5,248,027
1934-35	999	2,900,872	15,690,231	5.41	8,213,794
1935-36	1,079	3,497,487	19,189,167	5.49	8,800,083

Protection of Unemployed

Employment Exchanges There have been from olden times private employment exchanges called "Keian" or "Kuchitreya" conducted by individuals. But there were no free exchanges until 1901, when in Hongo Ward of the city of Tokyo there was established a free lodging-house for low class labourers and the unemployed, and along with this charitable work the first private free employment exchange was founded for the lodgers in 1906. The earliest public employment exchanges were established in Tokyo in 1911. At the close of the Great War the Home Office felt the urgent necessity of extending and developing the employment exchanges in order to meet the needs of the time. In 1920, the Office put into circulation a low interest loan for the establishment of employment exchanges to cope with the demands caused by an extreme business depression. And in June of the same year, the Home Office, in order to systematize the work of employment exchanges, took charge of all the affairs relating to them, and in order to extend, unite and develop them, allowed the Kyocho-kai to start a central managing office of all the employment exchanges in the country.

(a) Employment Exchange Law. Complying with the general demand, the Employment Exchange Law was issued in 1921. According to this Act, employment exchanges are, in principle, public organizations. They are voluntarily established and conducted by the heads of cities or towns, but in some instances the Home Minister gives orders for their establishment in places where he thinks the conditions demand them. The National Government subsidizes them to the extent of one-half of the expenses for buildings and equipment at the beginning, and one-sixth or less of other expenses. One Central and several Local Employment Exchange Bureaux have been founded for the employment exchanges in the country, and the work is under the supervision of the Home Minister and the Directors of these Bureaux. A standing committee is established to direct the management of the exchanges. There may also be established private free employment exchanges with the permission of the administrative authorities, and the aid afforded by all these employment exchanges must be free of charge.

After the enforcement of this Law, in November, 1922, the convention relating to unemployment, adopted by the First International Labour Conference at Washington, was ratified and published for the encouragement of this kind of work. In addition to the provision above mentioned, the Regulations for Enforcement of the Employment Exchange Law were revised, in 1924, in order to systematize the conections among employment exchanges, and there were also newly-introduced regulations for the establishment of seasonal-employment exchanges, and of employment exchange committees in cities and towns for the promotion of this work. It is true that there are still a great many employment exchanges run for profit, but owing to the increase and improv-

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ment of public employment exchanges they are gradually decreasing. And to conform with a resolution adopted at the Washington Conference of 1919, the National Government enforced from the 1st of January, 1927, Regulations for the Control of Employment Exchanges for Profit.

In 1936 an improvement was made in the administrative organization concerning employment exchange and a subsidy was granted, as a piece of relief work, for the establishment of facilities for training the unemployed.

In view of the results obtained so far since the enactment of the laws in connection with employment exchanges the Revised Employment Exchange Law was presented to and passed at the 69th Session of the Diet in 1936, and put in force as from September of the same year.

Important points of the revision are as follows: (1) According to the old system co-ordination, control and supervision of the work was in the hands of the central and local employment exchange bureaux, seven in all, but this has now been transferred to the Home Minister and prefectural governors. Under the old system the director of the Employment Exchange Bureau had the supervising power on employment exchange business alone, but did not possess the authority in general over cities, towns and villages which are the principal managing bodies of labour exchanges, so his activity was very limited. On the other hand emergency work for the relief of the unemployed, industrial training or handicraft directing work, supervision of employment agencies run for profit, supervision of recruiting labourers, and emigration which are directly connected with employment exchange work, were under the supervision of the prefectural governors, it was therefore thought advisable to transfer the supervision of employment exchanges to the prefectural governors, and thereby develop the work of employment exchanges in co-ordination with the affiliated works just mentioned.

(2) In the past, the principal managing bodies have been, as a rule, cities, towns and villages. But the new Act has made it possible for prefectures to act in that capacity, thus doing away with any financial difficulty and making the selection of suitable locations for the employment exchange offices easier and better for further promotion of the work in all parts of the country.

(3) The revised Act makes those who intend to employ labourers en masse notify prefectural governors as to the items necessary for employment. This has been an entirely new addition, and is intended to enable prefectural governors to have ready knowledge as to the demands on labour. This provision applies to an employer who intends to employ more than 30 labourers at one time and makes him advise prefectural governors as to the sex, kinds of industry and the number of labourers required.

It is proposed, however, that since the employment exchanges are nation-wide they should come under the direct control of the State, and in the 69th session of the Diet the House of Peers passed the Revised Employment Exchange Law with an additional clause of request for the State control of the work. The question remains for future study.

Conditions of the Work The number of employment exchanges which was 135 in 1923 when the Employment Exchange Bureau was established had increased to 693 at the end of 1936, of which exchanges specially for day-labourers numbered 62, for female labourers 8, for boys and girls 2, for the intelligentsia 1, and for Koreans 4.

The employment exchanges which succeeded in finding jobs for more than 310,000 people, excluding day-labourers, in 1923 were able to increase the number to 966,141 in 1937.

Day-labourers got 1,090,000 working days in 1923, through employment exchanges, this was increased to 16,770,000 working days in 1933. In 1934 and 1935 the number decreased but they were still considerable. The business conditions of employment exchanges are as shown in the following table:

EMPLOYMENT EXCHANGE

	1923	1926	1929	1933	1935	1936	1937
General							
Situations vacant	817,427	729,720	720,521	1,451,998	1,917,983	2,297,211	2,804,162
Situations sought	720,438	780,615	882,491	1,528,291	1,679,568	1,778,145	2,092,348
Situations filled	312,550	222,563	263,669	663,315	741,642	812,327	966,141
Day-labourers							
Men wanted	1,158,134	2,522,177	3,015,195	16,897,143	12,988,711	12,561,136	10,595,992

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	1923	1926	1929	1933	1935	1936	1937
Jobs wanted	1,318,648	2,793,384	3,473,237	20,124,272	14,463,730	13,666,837	11,102,930
Day's work secured	1,091,047	2,477,746	3,010,280	16,779,159	12,867,295	12,270,660	10,196,061

Note: The table does not include private profitable employment exchanges the number of which was 2,010. The number of men wanted was 1,014,303, jobs wanted 645,844 and works secured through them 514,709 in 1937.

For ex-soldiers the exchanges got 7,600 positions in 1935, an increase of 3,000 as compared with the number in 1934. In the introduction of juvenile workers, about 48,000 boys and girls who graduated from primary schools in March of 1936 were successfully placed by May of the same year, showing an increase of about 5,000 over the preceding year, and of young people under 18 years of age 158,000 were placed in 1936.

As to the conditions of employment agencies which are run for profit, the number of which reached 10,000 in 1923 when the Employment Exchange Bureau was established, was reduced to 3,300 with the enforcement in 1927 of the regulations on the supervision of the employment agency business, and at the end of 1937, the number has been further reduced to 2,010. The number of persons who avail themselves of these agencies is about 1,000,000 per year and the number of those who succeed in securing positions is about 500,000, but this number also is declining. According to the figures obtained during the last three years, the number of persons who called on these private agencies was 740,000 in 1935, 713,411 in 1936, and 645,844 in 1937.

Labourers from the Country Farmers in rural districts emigrate to cities in the intervals of farming, mostly in winter time when the farms are snow-bound. According to the investigations conducted by the Central Employment Exchange Bureau, there are about 1,000,000 such emigrants every year throughout the country, of which about 150,000 or so get jobs through the good offices of employment exchanges. The way of finding work for these emigrants and their protection has been a question for many years, and the State has taken measures to supervise the private employment agencies, while the public employment exchanges do all in their power to find them employment and give them protection. Moreover, the establishment of associations for the protection of these emigrants are encouraged, and travelling expenses are advanced for penniless ones. For the young boys and girls of the 6 north-eastern prefectures who are sent to cities and factories to help their families special officials are appointed in villages to guide their employment and protect them from falling into bad hands.

Study of Adaptability of Labour for Employment At present only 8 categories of adaptability for employment are standardized in Japan while at least 90 analyses are needed to meet the requirements of the times. Experts on the examination of adaptability are appointed in the Social Bureau, Ministry of Home Affairs, to accomplish such analyses and train employment exchange officials in their task.

Conditions of Unemployment The Social Bureau has been kept informed of unemployment conditions through reports issued by the prefectural departments on the first of every month since 1929. According to these reports, the number of unemployed in January 1930 was 346,000, after that it increased month by month without a break up to September, 1932, when it reached 506,000. Since the end of 1932, owing to relief work and the turn for the better in the munition and export goods industries, the number has gradually decreased. It was 463,000 in December, 1932, 365,000 in September, 1934, 346,000 in September, 1935, 330,000 in September, 1936, and 271,874 in January, 1938.

Comparing the number of people dismissed with those taken on in factories and mines employing more than 50 persons the number of newly employed labourers has exceeded the number of dismissals since the latter half of 1932. The number of labourers was 1,610,000 in factories, 262,000 in mines, and 161,000 in Government mills at the end of July, 1936, which, as compared with the figures of the same month of the preceding year, showed an increase of 125,000, 31,000 and 3,000 respectively.

Emergency Enterprises for the Unemployed. Among the measures taken for the relief of unemployment, the civil engineering work begun in 1925 was the most important. Among others, the establishment of Business Training Institutes for the unemployed began in 1936.

The civil engineering work was first undertaken by public bodies affiliated with the 6 largest cities in the country, the bodies and scope of the work have since gradually widened. The Government has, also, since 1932, directly been

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undertaking civil engineering work, reclamation work, the adjustment of farm-lands, munition industries, etc., and has been encouraging large cities where unemployed labourers swarm, to increase enterprises for their relief by granting subsidies or advancing money at low rates of interest. Since 1929 the relief of the low-salaried class has been carried out in the 6 largest cities, and prefectures in which they are located, by giving them work on statistics, investigations, or adjustment of written matters or documents, one-half of the expenses being borne by the State. In the next table a summary of the relief work conducted in the last 4 years is given:

Unemployment Relief Enterprises in 1933–1936

(Subsidized ones only)

Fiscal Year	Kinds of Enterprises	Expenses in Yen	Wages in Yen	Aggregate number of work-days
1933-34	Enterprises for ordinary labourers	34,882,642	12,053,138	9,157,047
	For low salaried class	1,803,635	1,662,208	1,369,509
	Total	36,686,277	13,715,346	10,526,556
1934-35	Enterprises for ordinary labourers	22,890,537	6,750,623	5,157,600
	For low salaried class	1,537,267	1,417,195	1,150,352
	Total	24,427,804	8,167,818	6,307,952
1935-36	Enterprises for ordinary labourers	15,378,527	4,710,145	3,472,024
	For low salaried class	1,499,193	1,385,942	1,130,929
	Total	16,877,720	6,096,087	4,602,953

As to the encouragement of the business training of the unemployed which was started in 1936 the Government bears one-half of the expenses required for the institutes.

BUSINESS TRAINING INSTITUTES FOR THE UNEMPLOYED

Manager	Mode of Management	Number of Institutes	Capacity	Estimated expenses	Subsidy req'ed	Instructors	Length of Term
Tokyo city	Direct management	1	60	11,560	5,780	3	18 weeks
Kyoto city	,,	1	30	4,571	2,285	2	6 months
Osaka prefecture	,,	2	60	6,000	3,000	4	6 months
	Entrusted to others	2	60	2,000	—	—	—
Osaka city	Direct management	1	60	4,879	2,439	2	6 months
Kobe city	,,	2	60	5,282	2,641	4	6 months
Kanagawa prefecture	,,	1	30	3,600	1,800	2	6 months
Yokohama city	,,	1	30	8,437	4,218	2	5 and a half months
Nagoya city	,,	1	40	3,000	1,600	2	5 months
Fukuoka prefecture	,,	1	40	2,687	1,343	2	5 months
Total	Direct management	11	420	50,216	25,106	23	
	Entrusted to others	2	60	2,000			
	Total	13	480	52,216	25,106	23	

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Poor Relief

General Poor Relief The Regulations for Relief of the Poor were promulgated as early as 1874. The revised Relief Law was promulgated on April 2, 1924 and was put in force on January 1, 1932. The regulations maintain the old spirit of mutual help among relatives and neighbours and, at the same time, emphasize social solidarism and public responsibility of relieving impoverished people. Those who are relieved by the law are old poor people above 65, helpless juveniles under 13, pregnant poor women, helpless invalids and cripples, those who are handicapped by sickness, wounds or mental disorders, and poor mothers who are nursing infants under one year of age.

The period of relief should generally be for as long as it is required, but sometimes, especially when the case is taken up by a Block Committee, it is fixed, for example, at three or four weeks. The method of relief is of two kinds, indoor and outdoor, and as for the former, such large cities as Tokyo or Yokohama have their own homes or other relief institutions, otherwise the smaller municipalities entrust the relief of the poor to those orphanages, asylums or charity hospitals which are managed by private persons or organizations.

The results of the operation of this Act since 1932 are given in the following table:

RESULTS OF RELIEF WORK

(Units 1,000 people and ¥1,000)

Kinds of relief	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936
Living cost:					
(1) Number of the relieved	39.7	176.8	185.9	166.7	190.0
(2) Expenses defrayed	3,169.6	4,548.1	5,055.9	4,577.3	5,414.2
Medical treatment:					
(1) Number of persons	15.1	33.1	34.7	49.6	32.9
(2) Expenses defrayed	420.2	608.4	738.6	1,288.3	757.2
Maternity cases:					
(1) Number of women	2.3	3.2	2.4	2.3	1.5
(2) Expenses defrayed	13.4	14.8	11.1	12.9	7.0
Help for working:					
(1) Number of Persons	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.9	0.4
(2) Expenses defrayed	4.7	5.0	4.7	15.8	4.6
Total					
(1) Persons	157.6	213.5	223.5	219.7	225.0
(2) Expenses defrayed	3,607.9	5,176.2	5,810.3	5,894.5	6,183.1

The economic difficulties which many towns and villages have been experiencing in recent years have weakened their financial strength and increased the number of persons who need relief. Accordingly the burden which was imposed on towns and villages in the ratio of 2-1-1 on city, town and village, became too heavy for them, and was an obstacle to the efficient operation of the law. The ratio has therefore been changed to 7-3-2, by the revised Relief Law.

Special Poor Relief Special poor relief, as against general poor relief, includes (1) Proper attention for those found sick, dying or dead by the roadside, (2) Relief of sufferers from natural calamities, and (3) Relief of impoverished soldiers and their bereaved families.

Regulations now in force, issued in 1899, aim at relieving those people who are found sick on the road, the disposal of dead bodies, and care of the children who are with them. The heads of the cities or towns where they are found must apply to the prefectures concerned for authority to take charge of them in case there are no relations on whom they can depend. The expenses for their relief, if not met by those who are relieved themselves or their supporters, must be defrayed by the prefectures concerned, and they may be handed over to public or private institutions for further help. There is no limit of time fixed for their relief. In 1935-36, there were 7,985 persons found sick with the money expended for their care amounting to ¥654,642, and 4,522 deaths cared for with an expenditure of ¥58,765.

Calamity Relief Japan suffers particularly from natural calamities ow-

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ing to its climate and volcanic activities. Losses from fires and floods alone amount to nearly ¥70,000,000 every year. To relieve the sufferers from these calamities, the Natural Calamities Relief Fund Law and Sea Disaster Relief Fund Law were passed in 1899.

Previous to this date the Central Government in co-operation with the prefectural authorities had been working under the Biko Chochiku Law of 1880, according to which ¥1,200,000 had been paid out of the National Treasury each year, and further appropriations made from public saving funds. Consequently, the total of the funds both of the Central Government and Prefectures had been enormous.

At the end of April, 1935, the total amount of the funds was ¥91,496,777, a decrease when compared with the preceding year. The reason was the unusual disbursements for relief in 1934–35 amounting to ¥3,671,388. Besides the special donation from the Imperial House which amounted to over ¥53,000 for sufferers in prefectures, the public contributed ¥7,640,075 through the Social Bureau in that year.

In March, 1937, the total of the Natural Calamities Relief Fund amounted to ¥89,504,972, and, if Okinawa prefecture and Hokkaido were excepted, the average fund for each prefecture reached ¥1,980,000. Though particular items for which the fund is expended differ and change according to the nature of calamities, the largest amount of the fund is expended on food, shelters, and for business funds. The money expended for the relief amounted to ¥3,716,071 in 1934, ¥753,211 in 1935 and ¥25,926 in 1936.

With the sad experience at the time of the Great Earthquake of 1923 fresh in the public memory, Osaka and Kyoto introduced the Great Calamities' Relief Regulations soon after that terrible event, according to which the Prefectural Offices, the Municipal Offices, the Army Division, and the Gendarmerie Corps are to co-operate in cases of great emergency.

The annual number of marine disasters off the coasts of Japan is over 1,000, and the average number of persons killed, injured or missing in these disasters reaches 600 or 700 a year. For the relief of these persons, the Sea Disaster Relief Law was issued in 1899, by the terms of which the heads of municipalities are invested with certain powers to give relief at the expense of the captain or owner of the ship concerned, but in case the money is not refunded by the captain or owner, or the relief proves insufficient, the expense incurred is paid by the National Government.

The Revision of the Military Relief Act The Military Relief Act has been in force since January of 1918, a part of it being revised in March, 1931. It aims to give relief at State expense to those non-commissioned officers and men who are injured or suffer illness in war or during their term of service, and are, on that account, dismissed from the services, or to their families or the bereaved; to the families of soldiers and sailors who are called up for service; and to the bereaved of those soldiers and sailors who die of injuries or during their service if they find it difficult to get a living.

The relief, given under this Act, has greatly increased in recent years owing to the economic depression, the effects of the Manchurian Campaign and because of a better understanding of the purpose of the Law. In 1934–35 the number of people who received relief reached 105,772 persons or 31,996 families, the amount expended being more than ¥2,800,000. In 1935–36 the original estimate for relief was ¥2,074,000, but ¥867,000 was added later.

The purpose of the revision of the Act was to extend its sphere, and to ameliorate the conditions or qualifications, under which relief is given, so that the young men who serve in the army or navy may discharge their duties without worry about their families.

The China Affair in 1937 and 1938 is going to demand a more active operation of the Military Relief Act for the increased number of people who need the application of the Act.

MILITARY RELIEF 1930–1937

	Number of Persons Relieved	Amount (In yen)
1930–31	51,856	1,586,695
1931–32	71,643	1,731,614
1932–33	99,023	2,427,496
1933–34	98,905	2,702,935
1934–35	105,772	2,809,248
1935–36	111,533	2,897,665
1936–37	117,943	2,968,839

Private Military Relief The organizations for private military relief work numbered 31 at the end of March 1929, the Japan Red Cross Society and the Imperial Military Aid Society being the most prominent. The organizations are mainly engaged in the giving of relief, generally temporary, to those who are outside the application of the Military Relief Law.

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Health Protection

From very long ago, the Imperial Household has paid attention to the care of the sick. Hospitals for the Poor were established in 593, by Prince Shotoku. The present Saisei-Kai, a foundational juridical person, established by the wish of the Emperor Meiji to give medical treatment to the poor, continues the work of these ancient hospitals.

Free Medical Treatment There are many organizations which give free medical treatment, hospitals, medical consultation offices, visiting treatment societies, visiting nursing societies, etc. The Government decided to extend the work to farm-villages and fishing communities with ¥6,000,000, a part of which was donated by the Imperial House. There were 169 public hospitals and 410 smaller branch hospitals or medical clinics, according to the statistics of 1935-36. The number of private medical relief facilities in the same year was 494. The cases treated numbered 1,825,626.

Cost-Price Treatment The Emperor Meiji pointed out, in his edict, that Japan, in general with the rest of the world, was suffering great hardships and that it was most regrettable to see faithful but poor subjects suffering from illness unable to get medical treatment, and that there was acute need to give suitable relief to them; and, as elsewhere mentioned, he donated a large sum of money for this purpose.

The thing most dreaded by the labouring classes is sickness or injury. Once smitten by sickness or rendered idle by injury a workman is thrown out of work, no matter how much he may desire it, and has no means of getting medical treatment; his days of unemployment may be prolonged, and finally he may be stripped of all his possessions and his family may starve.

The Cost-Price Medical Treatment Association, a corporate juridical person, was organized on the 5th September, 1911 by the effort of Mr. Suzuki and Dr. Kato.

The Association has its headquarters in Tokyo and four branch offices in Tokyo, Yokohama, and Osaka and there are now 41 cost-price medical treatment offices established by public bodies in different parts of Japan, and 112 hospitals in which the working-class patients are treated at cost-price.

The Do-ai (mutual love) Hospitals in Tokyo and Yokohama, the Imperial Charity Association, the Red Cross Hospital, the Jikei (benevolence) Association Hospital have recently begun cheap medical treatment. The Do-ai Hospitals in Tokyo and Yokohama were established with the money given by the American people at the time of the Great Earthquake, 1923, as a memorial of their kind assistance in that period of trial. Mr. Suzuki, who has played a brilliant part in the promotion of this kind of social work, is now insisting upon the national management of all medical business for the thorough protection of the life of the people in view of the unreasonably high cost of medical treatment by common practitioners and consequent loss of life and impoverishment.

Sanatoria, Asylums and Special Hospitals There is to be found a regulation concerning mental disease in the Taiho Laws issued in 701. But the number of sufferers increased in direct proportion to the advancement of civilization. Statistics record the fact that at the end of 1912 there were 32,964 insane persons, by the end of 1922 the figure had risen to 50,891, and in March, 1937 it stood at 86,047, an increase of 2,682 as compared with the preceding year, the ratio being 12.25 in every 10,000 of the population, an increase of 0.21 as compared with the preceding year.

(a) Laws and regulations concerning insane persons. The Law for the Custody of Insane Persons was enacted in 1900, with the object of protecting the public from harm at their hands. It provides for the appointment of a responsible person to take an insane person under his custody, and if necessary, by the approval of the prefectural governor, to confine the said insane person. The expenses, according to this law, shall be borne by the estate of the insane persons or by responsible persons, as the case may be, and in case any insane person protected by the order of the head of a municipality is unable to reimburse the money advanced by the municipality, the prefecture shall bear the expenses.

The Insane Asylums Law, which may be taken as a sub-division of the previous one, gives power to the competent Minister to order and bring prefectures, if necessary, under obligation to establish insane asylums or hospitals (Art. 1), and makes provisions concerning the State subsidy.

(b) Present condition of insane asylums and hospitals. At the end of March, 1936 there were 6 public hospitals for the insane and 46 private asylums. There were 9,792 inpatients in these hospitals and asylums.

(c) Tuberculosis. It is almost impossible to get the exact number of cases

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of tuberculosis in this country, but the ratio of patients per 1,000 of the examined in accordance with the provisions of the Law for the Prevention of Tuberculosis was 0.26, a decrease of 0.05 as compared with the previous year. In 1936, 107,157 died from pulmonary tuberculosis, that is 87.1 in every 1,000 deaths, the highest ratio for five years. The Government issued regulations in 1914 for the establishment of tuberculosis sanatoria in cities of more than 30,000 population, and regulated the State subsidy thereto. The present Tuberculosis Prevention Law was enacted in 1919. In 1935-36 there were 36 sanatoria with 9,215 patients. In 1939, H. I. M. the Empress donated a large sum of money for the relief of the patients.

(d) Leprosy. For the prevention of leprosy, the Leprosy Prevention Law was issued in 1908. By this law, aid for indigent lepers out of public funds, the order of the competent Minister for the establishment of leper-asylums by united prefectures, or the use of private ones in lieu of public ones and other such matters are provided for. The whole country, in conformity with this law, was divided into five Divisions. Besides 9 public leper-asylums, there are 8 private ones. The Koyama Fukusei In, established by the Roman Catholic Church in Shizuoka prefecture, the Ihai En in Tokyo prefecture, the famous Kumamoto Kaishun Byoin founded by an English lady, Miss Riddell, and the Tairo In in Kumamoto prefecture have done valuable work for many years, being managed by Christian missionaries. In 1930, H. I. M. the Empress Dowager donated a large sum of money for the work. In 1935-36, there were 18 leper-asylums, 4 of which established by the Government and 5 by public bodies, with 6,659 patients. (See Chapter XXXII on these subjects.)

STATISTICAL TABLE OF SOCIAL WORK IN JAPAN

(Compiled by the Ministry of Welfare)

(Fiscal Year 1935-36)

Name	Organization or Institution	Property and Funds	Expenditure
Organs	2,504	¥79,926,548	¥8,684,633
Unifying organizations	58	5,225,098	1,714,908
Investigation organs	34	850	1,204
Educational organs	3	—	—
Supplementary organs	20	70,226,688	4,033,374
Block committees	80	—	1,396,830
Backing organs of the block committees	2,309	4,473,912	1,538,317
Child protection	1,729	14,689,664	4,213,225
Protection of pregnant women			
(Midwives)	493	27,926	146,240
(Hospitals)	52	1,775,720	867,203
Protection of suckling infants	29	334,796	75,113
Day-nurseries	887	3,379,915	1,017,925
Orphanages	131	12,779,529	1,087,208
Child consultation	152	163,753	133,711
Protection of cripples	2	28,320	7,765
Protection of weak children	9	2,067,658	314,847
Protection of sick children	18	33,670	37,146
Protection of maltreated children	6	33,275	76,869
Education of poor children	40	589,199	119,722
Schools for nursemaids	15	35,942	7,681
Education of working children	10	85,853	11,399
Reformatory education	58	—	805,077
Reformatory protection	32	105,128	52,746
Temporary protection of children	1	113,493	—
Protection of abnormal children	9	892,314	179,135
Stammer correction	4	62,637	22,948
Economic protection	2,376	—	—
Housing work	642	—	—
Common inns	155	—	—
Public markets	278	—	—

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Name	Organization or Institution	Property and Funds	Expenditure
Cheap dining rooms	70	—	—
Public baths	170	—	—
Public pawnshops	1,061	—	—
Relief and prevention of unemployment	661	1,877,053	3,072,857
Giving work	72	1,807,053	1,257,834
Employment exchanges	586	—	1,799,577
Vocational guidance	2	70,000	15,446
Poor relief	595	36,818,132	3,639,621
Relief at home	172	4,129,212	360,169
Relief in institutions	140	11,453,769	1,440,315
Protection of cripples and invalids	33	2,367,855	292,841
Protection of the bercaved families of soldiers	250	18,867,296	1,546,296
Medical treatment	747	41,777,140	13,514,409
Charity hospitals	169	31,884,785	8,957,145
Consultation rooms	410	4,240,743	1,760,967
Cared at private hospitals	62	55,062	114,382
Insane hospitals	52	1,117,967	484,620
Tuberculosis sanatoria	36	3,213,708	1,367,661
Leper homes	18	1,264,875	829,634
Miscellaneous	592	106,589,633	24,573,819
Settlement work	169	6,283,515	1,207,761
Consultation bureaux	153	65,818	23,477
Protection of women	26	668,309	182,566
Mother and child protection	15	69,334	23,822
Father and child protection	2	—	1,769
Visiting sick people	12	52,076	39,646
Hygienic education	89	2,334,988	1,092,967
Funeral aid	5	94,235	35,705
Other work	121	97,021,358	21,966,106
Grand Total	9,423	289,379,141	58,448,074

STATISTICAL TABLE OF SOCIAL WORK IN JAPAN

(Continued)

Name	Results (Cases, etc.)		Workers
Organs	(Cases)	6,767,817	41,711
	(Students)	94	—
Unifying organizations		—	429
Investigation organs		—	36
Educational organs	(Students)	94	45
Supplementary organs		—	124
Block committees	(Cases)	6,767,817	41,077
Backing organs of the block committees		—	—
Child protection		444,232	5,764
	(Cases)	36,347	—
Protection of pregnant women		7,303	498
(Midwives)	(Cases)	25,512	—
(Hospitals)		56,300	469
Protection of suckling infants		120,818	142
Day-nurseries		66,303	2,356
Orphanages		1,710	834
Child consultation	(Cases)	161,508	306
Protection of cripples		53	8
Protection of weak children		1,522	96
	(Cases)	1,773,603	—
Protection of sick children		12,740	78
Protection of maltreated children		111	29
	(Cases)	3,831	—
Education of poor children		6,165	240

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Name	Results (Cases, etc.)		Workers
Schools for nursemaids		351	46
Education of working children		615	69
Reformatory education		2,841	509
Reformatory protection		—	—
Temporary protection of children		507	10
Protection of abnormal children		306	57
Stammer correction		5,079	17
Economic protection	(Houses)	33,500	—
	(Cases)	33,354,248	—
	(Sales)	¥54,354,432	—
	(Loans)	¥15,536,332	—
Housing work	(Houses)	33,500	—
Common inns	(Cases)	3,686,593	—
Public markets	(Sales)	¥54,354,432	—
Cheap dining rooms	(Cases)	10,246,608	—
Public baths	(„)	19,421,047	—
Public pawnshops	(Loans)	¥15,536,332	—
Relief and prevention of unemployment	(Hired)	672,460	2,678
	(Cases)	14,371,329	—
Giving work		12,769	303
Employment exchanges	(Hired)	672,460	2,363
	(Cases)	14,371,329	—
Vocational guidance		154	12
Poor relief		283,138	1,393
Relief at home	(Cases)	15,818	233
Relief in institutions		9,764	852
Protection of cripples and invalids		5,025	179
Protection of the bereaved families of soldiers		254,371	129
Medical treatment		2,695,730	14,886
Charity hospitals		1,826,626	8,637
Consultation rooms		814,811	4,316
Cared at private hospitals		29,627	393
Insane hospitals		9,792	809
Tuberculosis sanatoria		9,215	730
Leper homes		6,659	271
Miscellaneous	(Offices)	4,673	2,938
	(Cases)	71,785	—
Settlement work		—	—
Consultation bureaux		43,446	190
Protection of women	(Rooms)	3,434	102
		23,042	—
Mother and child protection		1,130	35
Father and child protection		109	6
Visiting sick people		—	38
Hygienic education		—	35
Funeral aid	(Cases)	5,281	15
Other work		—	2,517
Grand Total		3,440,696	69,370
	(Cases)	57,109,593	—
	(Houses)	33,500	—
	(Sales)	¥54,354,432	—
	(Loans)	¥15,536,332	—

New Social Measures

The Store Law

Legislation regulating the business hours of stores, particularly small stores, has long been under consideration in Japan. The Store Law now in effect was approved as presented at the 73rd session of the Imperial Diet (1938) and issued as Law No. 28 on March 26th. With the promulgation on August 31st of Imperial Ordinance No. 618 concerning the date of enforcement of

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the Store Law, it came into force on October 1st.

Purpose of the Law The primary purpose of the Store Law is to promote health and hygienic conditions in employees of stores.

Examination of the actual conditions prevailing in the operation of stores in Japan reveals that business hours are uselessly long and irregular, as such matters are left entirely in the hands of proprietors. The closing time in numerous cases is later than 11 o'clock or even 12 o'clock at night. The closing time of department stores is fixed under the Department Store Law, while that of restaurants and other eating places is restricted by police regulations. However, there has been no law restricting business hours or fixing the closing time for stores in general from the standpoint of protecting employees, although certain voluntary restrictions exist under agreements reached by commercial organizations. These voluntary agreements have not been operating satisfactorily in most business enterprises with the exception of barber shops. Elsewhere, long working hours are subjecting store employees to overexertion and are seriously affecting their health.

Results of the recent physical examination for conscription show that men employed in business have inferior physiques to those in other occupations. Among those rated as first-grade conscripts, for example, men engaged in fishing occupied the predominant position, followed by those engaged in mining, transportation, agriculture, manufacturing industries and commerce. Among those who were classed as third-grade conscripts, men employed in commerce outnumbered the others. These facts indicate conspicuously that men employed in stores have very poor physiques.

The secondary purpose of the Store Law is to give store employees an opportunity for self-culture, study and training. Under present working conditions, employees have little time for study and mental development; they are too often denied the opportunity of becoming trained businessmen. This state of affairs is not only unfortunate for the employees themselves, but it constitutes serious losses to the proprietors of stores as well. The nation suffers too, inasmuch as many promising youths are not given chances to grow in usefulness.

With the enforcement of the Store Law, employees will have a little spare time in the evenings and those interested will be able to utilize holidays to improve and train themselves. If thoughtful proprietors of shops and business leaders take the opportunity created by the enactment of the present law to direct more positive efforts toward the betterment of treatment of their employees and set up cultural institutions and measures designed to raise their physical standard, it will mean that the Store Law has laid a foundation for important improvements in social welfare.

Thirdly, it may be pointed out that to restrict adequately the present uselessly long and irregular business hours is to economize in operating expenses and to rationalize the management of stores. In the case of restaurants and other eating houses, there may be a considerable volume of business even after 10 o'clock at night, but in the case of ordinary stores or barber shops, business would be trifling after this hour. Basically, the total volume of purchases by consumers in a city has certain limits; it fluctuates little according to early or late closings. In general, late closing times cause a reduction in the ratio of business profits to operating expenses. In other words, by closing stores late at night, proprietors sacrifice themselves for the benefit of casual customers.

An official survey conducted in this connection some years ago in the busiest sections of representative cities throughout the country—sections that thrive particularly on evening business—showed that the number of customers after 10 o'clock was but 5.2 per cent of the total for the day; proceeds of sales after 10 o'clock amounted to only 3.5 per cent of the day's business.

There are many cases in which leading stores have been able to rationalize their management and to increase their sales by closing their establishments earlier at night. Regulation of closing times by law would rather be beneficial to stores, enabling them to economize in electric light charges, fuel and diverse other items, since there is no fear that the legal restrictions would cause unfair competition from other stores. Some proprietors advocated the promulgation of such regulations long ago, not simply for the protection of their employees, but because they expected to rationalize their business under these conditions.

Substance of the Law The Store Law consists of 18 Articles. It provides rules governing the closing time and holidays, special rules regarding large stores, rules protecting the health of employees

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and prevention of injuries, rules governing store management and penalty provisions.

1. The Scope of Application (Articles 1 and 17)

In view of the fact that restriction of business hours is required mainly in cities, this law is applied to cities. When the Minister of Welfare considers it necessary to prevent injustice to city stores and unfair competition by town and village stores against city stores, the law may be made applicable to towns and villages adjoining cities. The Government has no intention for the time being of applying the law to other rural communities.

The Store Law is applied to merchandise sales businesses, barber shops, hair dressers and beauty parlours. The merchandise sales business includes wholesale and retail stores, but restaurants and other eating places are excluded by virtue of an Imperial Ordinance. From the standpoint of protection of employees, the law should be applied to restaurants, but the Government has decided to exempt these for the present because it is extremely difficult to restrict their business hours in a manner similar to that of other businesses, in view of the peculiar conditions under which they are operated. Special legislation here is being contemplated.

Article 1 of the present law provides that the law is applicable to merchandise sales businesses, barber shops, hair dressers and beauty parlours run for profit. However, Article 17 provides that the law is applicable as well to all such enterprises operated by cities, towns, villages, cooperative industrial societies and cooperative consumers societies on a non-profit making basis. From the point of view of protection of employees, there is no reason for the latter to be exempted.

2. Regulation on Closing Time (Articles 2, 3 and 4)

Working hours must be restricted. However, due consideration must be given to the fact that stores are operated to attract customers, and it is extremely difficult for them to accomplish business purposes within strictly limited hours of operation under the circumstances prevailing in Japan. The present law, therefore, regulates only the closing time and but indirectly restricts the workig hours of employees, leaving this latter problem for future solution.

The law in principle fixes the closing hour at 10 o'clock at night. It prohibits sales of merchandise, hair cutting, hair dressing and beauty parlour services afer that time.

A few exceptions are recognized. For instance, the law permits sales and services for customers who enter stores before the closing hour and remain. The law also allows sales of merchandise after closing time to customers who wish to buy articles for emergency purposes.

For districts where business thrives especially during the evening and where it is extremely difficult for stores to close at 10 o'clock, prefectural governors (Metropolitan Police Headquarters in Tokyo) are authorized to extend the closing time to 11 o'clock within certain limited areas. In designating such special areas, decisions are to be made after consulting chambers of commerce and industry or other organizations within the involved districts, in accordance with prescribed rules. Again, during periods of unusual business activity—year-end, new year, mid-summer gift season, holidays, etc.—prefectural governors, when deemed necessary, may extend the closing time or suspend the application of the rules governing the closing time within limited areas and periods of time, all not to exceed 60 days throughout the year.

3. Holidays (Article 5)

The Store Law provides that proprietors of stores must give at least one holiday a month to their employees. It is not necessary to close the stores, although it is considered best to adopt such a system giving complete holidays once a month to employees. In certain lines regular monthly holidays are already established. Yet, under prevailing conditions, it is difficult to enforce a rigid holiday system through legal measures and the Government has avoided it accordingly.

4. Exemption of Stores in Special Districts (Article 6)

Stores attached to amusement enterprises, exhibitions, expositions, piers or other similar places where it is impossible to close shop at 10 o'clock may be exempted from the provisions of the law with the permission of prefectural governors. Temporary enterprises such as exhibitions and expositions are exempted from the application of the provisions on holidays, provided that the enterprises have been approved by the prefectural governors.

5. Working Hours and Holidays of Large Stores (Articles 7 and 8)

The business of large commercial establishments is conducted systematically. There is no reason why they should be treated differently from factories that come under the Factory Law which

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provides the limits of working hours and holidays for minor workers under the age of 16 and female operatives. The Store Law provides, therefore, that large commercial establishments where 50 or more persons are employed regularly are required, as under the Factory Law, to limit the working hours for female and minor employees under the age of 16 to less than 11 hours a day, including 20 minutes rest time to the hour. The law also requires that such employees be given two or more holidays a month.

Large commercial establishments may extend the maximum working hours, as in the case of stores in general, in busy times on the approval of prefectural governors. Such times are limited to 60 days within the year. Large establishments may further extend working hours beyond this 60-day period in cases of extraordinary necessity, on approval of the authorities. Similarly, the number of holidays may be cut to one a month in unusually busy seasons.

6. Promotion of Health and Prevention of Casualties (Article 9)

The Store Law authorizes prefectural governors to issue various orders regarding the prevention of injuries and the promotion of health at all times advisable. The law specifically requires the proprietors of stores with 50 or more employees to provide at least one bench for every three female employees whose work requires them to remain standing over long periods.

7. Street-stalls and Shops on Ships and Trains

The present law is not applied to stores on trains, steamships and other transportation services. Nor does it apply to street-stalls. However, it authorizes prefectural governors to fix the closing time for the latter, since it is possible to cause unfair competition between general stores and street-stalls if the latter are permitted to engage in unrestricted business while the former are required to close at 10 o'clock.

Legislation protecting workers is not new in Japan. Various laws such as the Factory Law, the Mining Enterprises Law, the Law Governing the Minimum Age of Workers and the Health Insurance Law have long been in force. However, there have been no legal measures protecting employees in commercial establishments. The Store Law is indeed the forerunner in its kind, and its importance is to be found in the fact that the Government has established a basis for the systematic protection of commercial employees.

The number of store employees who receive protection under this law is approximately 1,400,000. The Store Law is applicable to proprietors of stores and their employees only. It imposes no legal obligations on third parties. The law is certain to have far-reaching consequences to society in that it prohibits sales or services to customers after 10 o'clock at night.

Measures Assisting Changes in Occupation

A result of the enforcement of the plan for mobilization of materials has been that considerable numbers of merchants and manufacturers have been forced to suspend or close their businesses, or to curtail business operations. This plan was put into operation in connection with the China Affair and was aimed at securing speedy and adequate manufacture of war supplies and at balancing the country's international accounts through restriction of imports and expansion of exports. Under the plan, strict economy is enjoined on all internal consumption of goods. Should the plight of those affected be left unremedied, the plan might defeat its own purpose by impairing the stability of national life and the nation's economic strength.

Aware of this possible danger, the competent authorities have determined to take the necessary measures to enable such industrialists and tradespeople to tide over the emergency by entering war-supplies industries and such other trades as are calculated to remove anxiety and unrest from these people, their families and employees.

Problems affecting industry and trade will be taken by the Department of Commerce and Industry. Those pertaining to employees and workers will be handled by the Department of Welfare.

The ordinance of the Department of Commerce and Industry of September 21, 1938, provides for the creation in that Department of a temporary Bureau specially devoted to the study of the problem of changes of trade. Officers to take charge of this work are to be specially appointed and attached to all the prefectural offices. These officers, in close touch with the Central Government, will render concerted efforts to facilitate the changes of business. To finance this work, the Government has made an appropriation out of its reserves for the sum of ¥3,410,000.

Principles The basic idea of all measures for ensuring changes in occupations is to minimize the sacrifices that may be entailed in the operation of the

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plan for mobilization of materials and to enable persons to continue in existing businesses. Where, however, this is not feasible, all reasonable assistance will be given them to effect the necessary changes. Changes in occupations must be made in one of the following three drections: (a) war supplies industries; (b) export goods industries; (c) substitute goods industries where raw materials are obtainable within Japan.

As to the manner of procedure of the present work, while it is important to ascertain the technical ability of each individual and the condition of his equipment, the measures to be applied should be worked out rationally and systematically. In the actual work to be undertaken, full use should be made of the associations of small- and medium-sized industrialists and merchants already in existence. Where people are without such an organization, they should be induced to form one and receive guidance so as to be able to effect changes of occupations in a rational manner.

Remedial Measures The measures to be pursued by the Bureau in charge of the work, mentioned above, lie along the following lines:

(1) To ensure readjustment in the distribution of orders centring in prosperous industries. Some sort of arrangement may be made with Government offices from which these business orders emanate and with the management of large factories, whereby a portion of the orders can be directed or shared by industries so as to correct the lack of equilibrium that exists in the industrial organization. Officers specially in charge of this work will be attached to prefectural offices to see that the distribution of orders and the maintenance of the standard of manufactures as well as their delivery are regularly observed. Officers will also be attached to the local groups affiliated with the Central Industrial Association. For financing this phase of the work, a sum of ¥42,000 has been allocated by the Treasury for the current year.

(2) Increasing technical experts in the prefectural offices to direct changes of occupations. For the purpose of facilitating changes to new trades it is necessary to give the applicants considerable amount of training. Technical guidance in prefectural offices will be increased and training institutes in each prefecture will be conducted. Also, ways will be provided to enable people to take practical lessons in large factories. The Treasury has made an appropriation for a grant of ¥160,000 for this work.

(3) Further financial aid may be made for mechanical equipment required for effecting changes of trades. When many people seek to have equipment of their own, shortages in the necessary materials will result. A great majority of these people lack means wherewith to provide their own machinery. This state of affairs calls for the organization of associations of small industrialists, which will allow their members to make use of common equipment. These organizations will be partly subsidized by the Treasury. Government grants for the setting up of plants and equipments by the industrial associations for the year 1938-39 will amount to ¥3,300,000 in respect of change to war-supplies industries and to ¥1,000,000 in respect of change to the export and substitute articles industries.

(4) Government subsidies in the manufacture of sample goods for a time immediately after changes in occupations. The war-supplies industry requires speedy manufacture of fine machinery, but in case technical skill is wanting the manufactures are apt to fall short of the standard. This may prove to be a deterring factor in the successful change of trade. Likewise, change to the export and substitute goods industries is by no means easy because of the difficulty in acquiring new outlets due to lack of credit, technical skill and adequate advertising. To lighten the burden of preparing sample goods, at least for an early period, the Government will grant subsidies and has made an appropriation of ¥200,00 for the manufacture of samples of export and substitute articles as well as for the execution of orders taken from war-supplies manufactories.

(5) Prefectural offices will undertake the distribution, in small lots, of raw materials for export goods manufacture. In the manufacture of export goods, it so happens that, in spite of the possession of a large portion of materials, want of a small quantity of some other materials very often delays the completion of manufacture. Prefectural offices will see that small manufacturers in such a difficulty are promptly supplied with the needed materials; this task will be attended to by the technical experts attached to each prefectural office.

(6) Organization and alignment of commercial and industrial advisory organs. Where small- and medium-sized industrialists and merchants are unable to form associations due to lack of

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means or numbers, individual technical guidance must be given. There will, therefore, be established in each prefecture a Central Commercial and Industrial Advisory Office, where direction and advice concerning change of trade, management and financing will be given by well-qualified advisers. Advisory organs already in existence will be aligned and brought under the control of the central organ. In aid of this work, the sum of ¥110,000 has been appropriated by the Treasury for the current year.

(7) Financing of capital required in the new trades. In addition to the sundry subsidies to be granted in connection with changes of occupations by people of small means, the Department of Finance, through the Treasury Deposit Bureau, will grant credit for part of the necessary capital up to the aggregate sum of ¥20,000. The manner of administering these credits will be determined by the Departments of Finance and Commerce and Industry. Furthermore, the terms and conditions governing the loans actually extended to the small- and medium-sized industrialists and merchants will be made easier and broader so as to render them available also for the purposes under consideration in the present article. The system of indemnification by the Treasury for losses that may arise with Government guarantees in operation in the prefectures and the six largest cities will be extended to cover the present work.

Care of Wounded Soldiers

With the expansion of hostilities in China, there was established on November 1st, 1937 a Provisional Division for Military Relief within the Bureau of Social Affairs of the Home Office. The Section for Protection of Wounded Soldiers of that division worked as the central organ making investigations and formulating protective measures for sick and wounded soldiers. But when the Department of Welfare was established in January, 1938, the work of dealing with these affairs was transferred to it. The new Department promptly organized the Council on Protective Measures for Sick and Wounded Soldiers, with the Minister of Welfare, Marquis Koichi Kido, as president. The detailed report of this Council which was presented at its second plenary session on January 27th, formed the basis of the present Government policy for the protection of sick and wounded soldiers. The necessary appropriations for 1938 were approved at the 73rd session of the Imperial Diet, and the Board for the Protection of Wounded Soldiers was established.

The Board has now become the central organ for the work of caring for disabled veterans. Under the jurisdiction of the Department of Welfare also is the work of assisting and directing prefectural authorities and various organizations engaged in similar undertakings.

The Board for the Protection of Wounded Soldiers is under the jurisdiction of the Minister of Welfare, and has charge of affairs pertaining to the healing and rehabilitation of wounded soldiers (including persons considered as such who were wounded or taken ill while in service).

The organization of the Board includes a president, a vice-president, a secretariate of general affairs, and two departments for planning and for general activities. The Planning Department consists of three sections for direction, planning and management, while the General Activities Department is divided into three sections of business, guidance and medical treatment. The presidency of the Board is an honorary office to be held by one with "shin-nin" rank, receiving Imperial appointment. As the first President, General Baron Shigeru Honjo has been appointed. In view of the importance of the work of the Board, as many as five advisers, 15 councillors and a number of technical experts have been selected to serve for two years.

An original appropriation of about ¥140,000 was made in 1937 to provide for the spiritual comfort and vocational guidance as well as medical treatment of disabled soldiers. To provide spiritual instruction and guidance, Major-General Chuon Sakurai, author of the famous book Human Bullets, and nine others were engaged. They visited and delivered lectures at all army and navy hospitals of the country. For vocational instruction, ten experts were commissioned by the Board and sent to these hospitals to train the injured veterans in future occupations. As for medical treatment, hospitals and clinics, both public and private, and hotels at various hot-spring resorts were entrusted with the care of the veterans in white.

These were merely emergency measures to meet the immediate situation. With the establishment of the Board for the Protection of Wounded Soldiers, regular and permanent work of protection was inaugurated, four main divisions of which are described below.

Emphasis is placed on the importance

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of strengthening the spirit of loyalty in the wounded soldiers so that they will be ready as before to serve the State with honour and pride by exercising proper self-control. At the same time the general public is to be educated so that it will retain always its deep respect and gratitude toward the wounded veterans, who will happily be reinstated in society.

(a) Cultural Instruction for the Wounded

Despatching of lecturers to give spiritual guidance, lecture meetings, joint tours of inspection and study, meetings for moral and cultural advancement, production of motion-pictures, and distribution of suitable literature are among the measures placed in this category.

(b) Education of the General Public

The public is to be educated with a view to improving its attitude toward the disabled, through lecture meetings, encouragement of suitable literary production, and publication and distribution of various literatures. National educational campaigns are to be held every year to train the general populace in that regard in their everyday life.

(c) Other Measures

Public ceremonies in honour of wounded soldiers and the supervision and encouragement of various educational organizations concerned in work for soldiers are contemplated.

Medical Care Appropriate measures have been taken to provide the necessary medical care, in cases of relapse from recovery, tuberculosis and mental disorders after the patients have been discharged from hospitals, and to enable them to be treated in their home districts as far as possible in consideration of their family circumstances.

(a) Establishment of Sanatoriums for Wounded Soldiers

The present plan is to establish a sanatorium for mental diseases (with capacity of one hundred men), recuperatory sanatoriums in hot-spring resorts (ten such establishments at suitable spas, each with a capacity of caring for a hundred men at a time), and sanatoriums for tubercular cases (twenty-five establishments in suitable places in the country, each capable of holding five hundred patients).

(b) Treatments by Commission System

Until the above-mentioned establishments are erected, treatments for the wounded soldiers are entrusted as far as possible to public and private hospitals and hotels at hot-spring spas. Even after the completion of the government sanatoriums, this will be done in case these places are full and cannot care for more patients.

(c) Supply of Appliances and Medical Treatment

Such appliances as perambulators and beds are supplied as required, while medical treatment other than that mentioned in the preceding paragraphs is also given.

(d) Admission into the Institute for Wounded Soldiers

This Institute is located at Odawara in Kanagawa Prefecture.

Vocational Aid To enable the wounded soldiers to utilize their abilities to the fullest extent in accordance with environmental conditions and to face the future with hope, vocational guidance, adult education and assistance in finding suitable employments are given. In affording vocational aid, the policy is that the injured soldiers are, in principle, to be restored to their former occupations; but in the cases of those who cannot be so restored or who had no occupations before, new occupations are to be provided.

(a) Establishments for Vocational Direction

Besides giving vocational instruction at two or three "Institutes for Vocational Training" (accommodating two hundred men) to be established in different parts of the country, the existing establishment, the Keisei-sha, will be expanded to educate a hundred men at a time. Furthermore, in order to give minor vocational training, some fifty "Institutes for Vocational Training" will be founded and managed by different prefectures.

(b) Vocational Guidance

In order to give proper guidance to the wounded soldiers on matters pertaining to the nature of their injuries or illness with reference to occupations suitable to them, as well as to their individual desires and selection of their future occupations, various employment agencies are encouraged to be more active. Vocational advisers and officials in charge of affairs concerning vocational guidance are to be installed in prefectural offices.

(c) Expediting Employment

Efforts will be made to expedite the securing of employment for wounded veterans through redoubled activities on the part of employment agencies. Government offices are to be urged to lead the public in giving work to the injured soldiers and industrial circles are to be urged to cooperate. In the meantime, subsidies are being granted to those employers who make such altera-

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tions in working equipment as will meet the requirements of the sick or wounded ex-servicemen.

(d) Encouragement of Independent Proprietors

Proper guidance will be given the wounded soldiers who are independent proprietors of business, and to them business capital will be loaned through protective organizations subsidized by the Government.

(e) Distribution and Repair of Artificial Limbs and Supplementary Apparatuses

To those who have been crippled, artificial limbs or other apparatuses are provided, thereby increasing their efficiency and making it easier for them to obtain jobs.

Relative Works (a) Aid for the Education of Children of Wounded Soldiers

As one of the primary interests of wounded soldiers is in obtaining education for their children, subsidies will be granted to prefectural offices with which supplementary funds for education of these children in intermediate schools will be created.

(b) Subsidy to the Japan Wounded Soldiers Association

Subsidies are to be granted to the Japan Wounded Soldiers Association, an organization founded by wounded soldiers for their mutual benefit, with which the association will establish its branches in various prefectures. These branches will each have a consultation office for wounded soldiers, which will give advice on personal affairs.

(c) Establishment of a Foundation

As an organ to aid the work for the care of wounded soldiers, an appropriate foundation is to be established which will support the work of finding occupations for wounded soldiers as well as the work of creating State establishments.

All these undertakings have been planned with due regard to the fundamental principle of Japan's polity and with reference to her past experiences and those of other countries. It is believed, therefore, that the enterprise, by virtue of its well-formulated organization and thoroughness, will achieve fully the object of protecting and caring for wounded and sick soldiers.

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CHAPTER XXXI

LABOUR AND LABOUR MOVEMENTS

Labour

Vocational Classification

Statistics classifying the population in Japan proper according to the kinds of work actually engaged in and the number of employees in each occupation can be obtained from the Report of the National Census of 1930 as follows :

CLASSIFICATION OF PEOPLE IN JAPAN PROPER ACCORDING TO OCCUPATIONS

(The 1930 Census)

	Total	Male	Female	Total	Employee	Female
Total Population	64,450,005	32,390,155	32,059,850			
Unoccupied	34,830,365	13,359,918	21,470,447			
Occupied	29,619,640	19,030,237	10,589,403	20,037,851	10,676,109	9,397,742
Farming	14,140,107	7,743,065	6,397,042	9,133,417	3,173,283	5,960,334
Marine	546,624	501,078	45,546	314,378	271,258	43,120
Mining	251,220	210,174	41,046	241,430	200,496	40,934
Industry	5,699,581	4,269,151	1,430,430	4,037,681	2,808,985	1,228,696
Commerce	4,478,098	3,013,903	1,464,195	2,282,556	1,299,831	982,725
Transport	1,107,574	1,028,595	78,979	925,268	848,020	77,248
Public service	2,044,151	1,691,803	352,348	1,821,237	1,532,051	289,186
Domestic	781,319	84,203	697,116	781,319	84,203	697,116
Miscellaneous	570,966	488,265	82,701	536,365	457,982	78,383

According to investigations made by the Labour Section of the Social Bureau the classifications of labourers according to kinds of occupation at the end of 1935 was as follows :

Factory workers	2,791,902
Mine workers	274,804
Transport and communication	544,475
Day-labourers and others	2,295,408
Total	5,906,589
Male	4,146,960
Female	1,759,629

Labour Conditions

According to the investigation made by the police stations the total number of labourers in Japan proper was 6,422,333, consisting of 4,534,342 males and 1,887,991 females, at the end of 1937, a gain of more than 331,000 over the previous year. The following table shows the movements of the number of labourers in recent years. (The number of farmers is given in Chapter XIII.)

NUMBER OF LABOURERS IN JAPAN PROPER

(Compiled by the Home Ministry)

At the End of	1933	1934	1935	1936	1937	1938
Grand Total						
Total	5,126,719	5,764,277	5,906,589	6,090,116	6,422,333	6,765,399
Male	3,592,899	4,066,322	4,146,960	4,280,023	4,534,342	—
Female	1,533,820	1,697,955	1,759,629	1,810,093	1,887,991	—
Factory						
Total	2,234,029	2,539,384	2,791,902	3,067,417	3,406,969	—
Male	1,247,644	1,438,983	1,629,869	1,813,616	2,127,094	—
Female	986,385	1,100,401	1,162,033	1,253,801	1,279,875	—

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At the End of	1933	1934	1935	1936	1937	1938
Mine						
Total	227,988	247,186	274,804	320,481	366,171	—
Male	202,862	220,084	247,668	285,414	311,390	—
Female	25,126	27,102	27,136	35,067	54,781	—
Transportation and Communication						
Total	556,929	555,124	544,475	565,264	549,324	—
Male	496,293	488,544	472,101	493,297	476,949	—
Female	60,636	66,580	72,374	71,967	72,375	—
Day Labourers, etc.						
Total	2,107,773	2,422,583	2,295,408	2,136,954	2,099,869	—
Male	1,646,100	1,918,711	1,797,322	1,687,696	1,618,909	—
Female	461,673	503,872	498,086	449,258	480,960	—

Factories and Labourers The number of factories where more than 5 operatives are employed in Japan porper at the end of 1937 was 106,005, an increase of 15,403 or 17.0 per cent as compared with the previous year.

The number of labourers employed in the 106,005 factories above mentioned at the end of 1937 was 2,936,512 (1,727,032 men, 1,209,480 women), gaining 343,825 or 13.3 per cent over the previous year. Classification of the same according to kinds of industry follows:

NUMBER OF FACTORY LABOURERS BY INDUSTRIES IN 1937

Sex Distribution

Industry:	Number	Percentage to the Total	Male	Female
Textile	1,032,510	35.2	201,355(19.5%)	831,155(80.5%)
Metal	310,490	10.6	286,551(92.3%)	23,939 (7.7%)
Machinery, tools, etc.	601,684	20.5	547,276(91.0%)	54,408 (9.0%)
Ceramic	112,857	3.8	88,033(78.0%)	24,824(22.0%)
Chemical	322,796	11.0	211,948(65.7%)	110,846(34.3%)
Lumber and wood-working	107,869	3.7	96,564(89.5%)	11,305(10.5%)
Printing and binding	64,652	2.2	56,547(87.5%)	8,105(12.5%)
Foodstuff	185,508	6.3	140,364(75.7%)	45,144(24.3%)
Gas and electric	9,286	0.3	9,234(99.4%)	52 (0.6%)
Miscellaneous	188,860	6.4	89,160(47.2%)	99,700(52.8%)
Total	2,936,512	100	1,727,032(58.8%)	1,209,480(41.2%)

Age Distribution

Industry:	Under 16	16–49	Over 50
Textile	187,407(18.2%)	835,633(80.9%)	9,470 (0.9%)
Metal	9,749 (3.1%)	293,861(94.7%)	6,880 (2.2%)
Machinery, tools, etc.	37,068 (6.2%)	553,766(92.0%)	10,850 (1.8%)
Ceramic	4,681 (4.1%)	103,473(91.7%)	4,703 (4.2%)
Chemical	23,403 (7.3%)	293,431(90.9%)	5,962 (1.8%)
Lumber and wood-working	3,167 (2.9%)	100,145(92.9%)	4,557 (4.2%)
Printing and binding	3,248 (5.0%)	60,075(92.9%)	1,329 (2.1%)
Foodstuff	4,181 (2.2%)	176,169(95.0%)	5,158 (2.8%)
Gas and electric	38 (0.4%)	8,772(94.5%)	476 (5.1%)
Miscellaneous	13,272 (7.0%)	171,362(90.7%)	4,226 (2.3%)
Total	286,214 (9.8%)	2,596,687(88.4%)	53,611 (1.8%)

Labour Conditions in 1938

The Bank of Japan index number of labourers in mills under private management was 108.5 in December of 1936 (base:1926), and it rose to 129.2 in December, 1938. The rate of increase was 9.4 per cent in 1935, 6 per cent in 1936, 16 per cent in 1937, and 10.1 in 1938.

The change in the index number of labourers in recent years is as shown below. The boom in the munition

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industries has caused a great increase in the number of labourers employed. The increase is much smaller in the case of female labourers than in that of male labourers. This is explained by the fact that the industries which are showing activity are those which require male labour.

COMPARISON OF INDEX NUMBERS OF LABOURERS IN 1937 and 1938

(Compiled by the Bank of Japan)

(Base, 1926=100)

	Average		Male		Female			Average		Male		Female	
	1937	1938	1937	1938	1937	1938		1937	1938	1937	1938	1937	1938
Jan.	109.0	122.9	124.2	146.2	94.0	99.8	Aug.	118.6	130.2	135.8	161.0	101.8	99.3
Feb.	110.0	123.5	125.4	148.0	94.8	99.1	Sept.	120.8	131.1	139.2	163.4	102.7	98.7
March	111.8	125.0	127.5	150.9	96.5	99.2	Oct.	122.2	131.9	141.9	165.6	102.8	98.1
April	116.4	129.3	130.4	155.4	102.6	103.3	Nov.	123.3	132.8	144.1	167.3	102.7	98.1
May	117.1	129.8	131.5	156.8	103.1	102.9	Dec.	123.2	133.5	145.2	169.0	101.4	97.8
June	117.6	130.0	132.7	158.3	102.7	101.8	Year	117.3	129.2	134.3	158.5	100.6	99.9
July	117.8	129.9	133.5	159.5	102.3	100.2							

INDEX NUMBER OF FACTORY LABOURERS CLASSIFIED ACCORDING TO PRINCIPAL INDUSTRIES

(Compiled by the Bank of Japan)

(1926=100)

Industries	1934	1935	1936	1937	1938
Silk reeling	60.2	60.3	55.8	54.5	53.7
Cotton spinning	69.4	74.1	72.9	77.8	72.6
Textiles	75.9	79.5	79.9	82.8	78.9
Dyeing	104.7	115.8	122.9	125.5	117.1
Knitting	89.0	93.6	103.8	108.2	104.2
Machinery	168.8	197.6	222.0	280.8	422.4
Shipbuilding	101.9	117.5	143.0	187.7	232.6
Vehicles	104.6	119.4	125.2	134.8	164.9
Instruments	128.6	150.7	171.6	207.9	278.4
Metal wares	117.2	133.0	145.9	168.6	204.0
Ceramics	80.7	85.9	90.8	98.5	99.5
Paper mak'g	80.4	84.5	89.1	94.8	97.2
Pharmaceutical	124.2	134.5	147.3	163.7	186.6
Rubber goods	148.5	147.7	151.0	156.9	141.4
Artificial fertilizers	83.4	96.9	113.3	135.0	158.3
Foodstuffs	84.5	90.1	92.8	97.3	105,9
Printing and book-binding	95.4	97.6	100.8	102.0	101.0
Lumber and furniture	75.9	79.8	82.6	82.4	81.1

INDEX NUMBER OF WAGE RATES CLASSIFIED ACCORDING TO PRINCIPAL INDUSTRIES

(Base 1926=100)

Industries	1934	1935	1936	1937	1938
Silk reeling	60.4	61.6	61.7	64.2	67.9
Cotton spinning	468.2	67.1	67.3	71.2	75.1
Textiles	72.1	73.4	74.2	77.5	79.3
Dyeing	83.6	82.8	82.8	85.1	87.9
Knitting	73.2	74.3	73.2	75.1	81.2
Machinery	81.1	78.0	76.1	76.3	78.7
Shipbuilding	89.7	88.6	86.9	87.1	88.4
Vehicles	80.8	77.1	76.2	78.7	81.0
Instruments	81.5	78.9	77.1	76.7	79.2
Metal wares	86.6	83.3	82.2	82.7	85.6

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Industries	1934	1935	1936	1937	1938
Ceramics	84.4	83.5	83.8	85.6	89.4
Paper making	88.6	87.3	86.8	89.8	93.7
Pharmaceutical	89.7	86.9	87.0	88.4	90.5
Rubber goods	82.4	81.3	79.0	79.9	85.6
Artificial fertilizers	98.8	97.9	97.6	96.8	96.5
Foodstuffs	91.3	89.2	89.2	91.4	92.9
Printing and book-binding	81.1	78.8	77.6	77.9	80.7
Lumber and furniture	76.7	77.0	75.9	77.4	81.5
Average	82.9	81.3	80.7	82.4	85.4

Unemployment The first thorough investigation on unemployment in Japan was made at the national census of October 1, 1935; the number of jobless labourers and salaried-men at that time was 322,527. Annual estimates had been made by the Social Bureau since 1929, based on the reports sent in by local governments at the beginning of every month. The number had increased from 268,000 in September, 1929 to 505,000 in September, 1932. But the tendency turned at the end of 1932 as the result of the Government's emergency measures and an increased demand for labour in the heavy industries and an increase in the number of men called up for the services; the number of unemployed fell to 270,000 on December 1, 1937 and 227,000 on November 1, 1938. The rate of decrease of unemployment is greatest for factory and mine labourers as is shown below:

UNEMPLOYMENT BY KINDS OF LABOUR

(Compiled by the Welfare Ministry)

(Unit 1,000)

	Total			Salaried Men		
	Investigation made on	Unemployment	Rate	Investigation made on	Unemployment	Rate
Oct. 1925	2,355	105	4.48	615	19	3.15
Dec. 1930	6,890	362	5.25	1,624	63	3.91
Dec. 1931	7,047	470	6.68	1,664	77	4.65
Dec. 1932	7,263	463	6.38	1,692	83	4.94
Dec. 1933	7,410	378	5.11	1,720	69	4.01
Dec. 1934	7,517	360	4.80	1,738	67	3.88
Dec. 1935	7,778	351	4.52	1,787	68	3.82
Dec. 1936	7,919	323	4.08	1,829	66	3.58
Dec. 1937	8,012	270	3.37	1,859	59	3.16
Nov. 1938	7,910	227	2.86	1,880	49	2.62

	Labourers					
	Day-labourers			Others		
	Investigation made on	Unemployment	Rate	Investigation made on	Unemployment	Rate
Oct. 1925	206	39	19.36	1,533	46	3.02
Dec. 1930	1,615	146	9.07	3,650	151	4.16
Dec. 1931	1,665	188	11.34	3,717	204	5.50
Dec. 1932	1,781	193	10.88	3,788	185	4.91
Dec. 1933	1,789	183	10.24	3,899	126	3.25
Dec. 1934	1,785	176	9.89	3,992	116	2.92
Dec. 1935	1,816	169	9.34	4,174	113	2.72
Dec. 1936	1,839	155	8.43	4,251	103	2.41
Dec. 1937	1,864	130	6.96	4,289	82	1.90
Nov. 1938	1,837	106	5.78	4,193	71	1.69

In factories and mines in 1930 and 1931 dismissals were greater than engagements, but since then the movement has reversed.

Details follow:

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MOVEMENT OF EMPLOYMENT AT FACTORIES AND MINES WHERE MORE THAN 50 OPERATIVES ARE EMPLOYED

	At the Factories			At the Mines		
	Dismissed	Engaged	Total Number of Employed (October)	Dismissed	Engaged	Total Number of Employed (October)
1930	569,433	515,159	1,139,887	163,611	112,930	216,189
1931	656,114	555,055	1,100,730	103,015	69,954	180,427
1932	483,853	540,543	1,071,372	87,173	75,460	170,518
1933	524,937	634,254	1,195,129	114,670	147,059	205,841
1934	568,535	680,876	1,366,630	141,597	153,413	221,664
1935	663,806	793,790	1,492,939	150,178	174,606	237,695
1936	731,960	891,809	1,627,554	194,484	221,446	271,072

Labour Exchanges The conditions of labour exchanges are mentioned in Chapter XXX.

Extraordinary Condition of Unemployment

Certain branches of industry in Japan are now hard hit, while industries supplying war materials, since the outbreak of hostilities in China in July, 1937, have made rapid development. Industries manufacturing goods for export and articles classed as luxuries have suffered greatly, what with the cessation of trade with China, the lack of ships' space and what the practice of thrift and economy by the nation.

In view of the amount of commodities consumed and destroyed in modern warfare, an adequate supply of commodities is an essential condition of successful military operations. At the Cabinet meeting of June 23, 1938, the Government decided on a revised material mobilization plan, which purports to effect more vigorously the adjustment of supply of goods to this huge demand. On the 29th of the same month, laws were put into operation restricting the manufacture, processing and marketing of various important materials for internal consumption. As a result, an increasing number of factories and concerns manufacturing or distributing these commodities have since been compelled to suspend or close their business.

Unemployment Commission Organization of the Unemployment Commission was promulgated by Imperial Ordinance No. 507 of July 16, 1938. According to this Ordinance, the Commission is composed of the Central and Prefectural Unemployment Commissions, whose duty is to investigate the more important matters concerning measures to cope with the situation. The Central Commission is presided over by the Minister of Welfare and has a membership of not more than forty, while the prefectural bodies are under the direction of prefectural governors and have memberships of not more than thirty persons. In either case, additional members may be appointed. In fact, the Central Commission is composed of forty regular and 17 special members, and includes high officials of Government departments, including Vice-Ministers, the Vice-President of the Board of Planning, members of Parliament, 13 representatives of various industries, and 6 persons with technical knowledge and experience.

Stressing the urgency of the work of checking unemployment and administering relief, Minister of Welfare, made an inquiry at a meeting of the Central Unemployment Commission as to the measures to be taken for the cure and relief of the unemployment that might arise in connection with the China Affair, particularly in consequence of the mobilization of materials. The Commission conducted a careful investigation and submitted a report to the Welfare Minister.

This report consists of an introduction and the report itself which, again, is divided into three parts: (1) general measures, (2) prevention of unemployment, and (3) unemployment relief. While not neglecting the importance of inculcating upon the nation true appreciation and willing cooperation in the cure and prevention of unemployment, the report urges the Government to do its utmost to rid the country of unemployment or, where it is difficult for people to continue in their existing businesses, to guide and aid them in obtaining new employment.

General Measures (1) Spiritual Guidance. In line with the National Spiritual Mobilization movement, persons engaged in prosperous industries should be exhorted to use more self-restraint and denial to make positive efforts for

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the cure of unemployment. Persons whose business is depressed are encouraged to persevere and work out their own salvation.

(2) Relief and protection for the families whose members have fallen in action. Where these families or the soldiers returning from the front are in danger of losing their employment, particular care and production should be administrated to them as far as is feasible.

(3) Organization of Commissions. Central and Prefectural Commissions are to be created whose duty is to study measures to cope with the existing situation and to put them into operation.

Prevention of Unemployment (1) Continuation or Change of Employment. The continuation of business is of course the most effective way for combating unemployment, but, where this is impossible, a change of personnel should be made to the war-supplies industries, to export trades or to the manufacture of the goods to be used as substitutes for mobilized materials. Such changes may be effected by adjusting the allotment of orders for goods. Business orders emanating from Government departments, including the army and navy, may possibly be allotted so that the weakened businesses may share in them. Prosperous industries should be induced to allow the depressed industrialists to do the work of manufacturing simple machine parts or to allot to them orders for primary materials. Depressed businesses should be supplied with substitute materials and, where necessary, the distribution of these materials should be put under control. Research institutions and laboratories may be mobilized; inventions and research work in the manufacture and use of substitute articles should be encouraged.

(2) Improvement must be made in the technical skill and business management of small and medium-sized tradespeople. For this purpose, the Central Unemployment Commission recommends that they be grouped to form associations, which will be provided with facilities such as receiving orders and purchasing substitute materials. Here, the people will also be given instruction and training in technical arts and business management.

(3) To enable small and medium-sized tradespeople in time of depression to effect changes to the war-supplies industries and other prosperous trades, it will be necessary to supply them with machines and materials and to give them technical training, which can best be done when people are grouped in associations.

(4) Loans will be granted to the associations referred to above and to owners of businesses.

(5) Advisory organs giving counsels on commercial and industrial questions will be created.

(6) In industries where there is danger of unemployment, the discharge of employees should be averted as far as possible by the use of such means as shortening hours and increasing rest-days. Where discharges become unavoidable, they should be made gradually, having regard to individual circumstances of the workers.

Relief Measures (1) Assistance in Finding Employment. Employment bureaus should be in close touch with all fields of employment. The labour exchanges should require proprietors of factories to report to them in advance the number of workmen to be dismissed, the time and order of dismissal, and should then make efforts to get people employed in war-supplies and other industries where labour is much in demand. Where the employed have to travel to the place of employment, travelling and other expenses may be advanced, if deemed necessary.

(2) Prosperous industries are urged to give employment to more people. The war-supplies and other prosperous industries are urged to increase the number of employees by adopting the shift system and by making conditions of employment easier.

(3) The training facilities of employment bureaus should be enlarged, while public and private labour exchanges should be induced to provide facilities for training in crafts. Where feasible, persons may be sent to private factories to undergo training and instruction.

(4) Public and private bodies will be asked to cooperate in giving instruction and training in technical matters to persons who, on account of age or previous occupation, have difficulty in adapting themselves to new employment.

(5) Household industries must be encouraged among the unemployed and their families, especially in the line of war supplies. These industries may be supervised by the tradespeople's associations, which will regulate the transactions, distribute materials and train the workers.

(6) Persons falling in category (4), described above, should, when individual circumstances favour it, be advised to return to farms to till the land; they may be aided in doing so.

(7) When persons are capable of emi-

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grating, they should be encouraged to do so. Where necessary, training schools may be established for them.

(8) Both Government and public offices and enterprises should endeavour to absorb unemployed workers. The Central Unemployment Commission also recommends that work for the relief of the unemployed be provided in such fields as colonization and forestry, which are not affected by the mobilization of materials.

(9) Organizations for social work, the District Visitors group, and other welfare agencies may be enlisted to assist the unemployed who cannot otherwise find occupations, earn livelihoods and receive medical care.

(10) For all of the relief measures mentioned in this report of the Central Unemployment Commission, the Government may, when deemed necessary, provide appropriations and make advances of the required funds.

Actual Number The actual number of the extraordinary unemployment at the end of 1938 was 115,192 (26,360 shopkeepers, 88,832 employees), while the number of those who might lose job was 199,553 (53,155 shopkeepers, 146,398 employees), making a total of 314,745. As compared with November in which the total was 374,607, it was a decrease of 15.9 per cent.

Wages

According to investigations made by the Department of Commerce and Industry, the average wage of factory labourers per hour was 13 sen, in 1937, remaining same with the preceding years. The lowest 8 sen, was to be found among textile industry labourers, for a large number of women and juvenile workers are to be found in this industry. Details follow :

Industry:	Aggregate Labour Hours	Total Amount of Wages (In yen)	Per Hour Wage (In sen)
Textile	3,100,402,676	256,647,200	8
Metal	920,060,623	187,936,946	20
Machinery, tools, etc.	1,882,194,952	335,123,435	18
Ceramic	325,227,798	47,839,981	15
Chemical	989,851,651	130,307,384	13
Lumber and woodworking	317,335,206	41,848,840	13
Printing and binding	214,606,323	35,708,631	17
Foodstuff	420,443,323	52,781,958	13
Gas and electric	35,706,835	8,513,923	23
Miscellaneous	546,195,403	55,744,972	10
Total and average	8,752,024,840	1,152,453,270	13

AVERAGE DAILY WAGES OF LABOURERS

(In 13 largest cities)

(Compiled by the Department of Commerce and Industry)

(In Yen)

Kind of Employment	1933	1934	1935	1936	1937	1938
Textile industry:						
Silk-reeler (Female)	0.67	0.62	0.64	0.65	0.68	0.71
Cotton-spinner (Female)	0.75	0.67	0.68	0.68	0.74	0.77
Silk-thrower (Female)	0.77	0.63	0.64	0.63	0.69	0.75
Cotton-weaver (Machine) (Female)	0.67	0.65	0.73	0.68	0.71	0.74
Silk-weaver (Hand) (Female)	0.80	0.24	1.37	1.32	1.23	1.18
Hosiery-knitter (Male)	1.45	1.59	1.59	1.41	1.24	1.42
,, ,, (Female)	0.72	0.66	0.67	0.66	0.68	0.71
Metal, machine and tool industry:						
Lath-man	2.25	2.56	2.58	2.52	2.65	2.75
Finisher	2.28	2.46	2.51	2.49	2.57	2.61
Founder	2.18	2.71	2.72	2.64	2.76	2.92
Blacksmith	2.23	2.45	2.44	2.41	2.72	2.88
Wooden-pattern maker	2.30	2.57	2.61	2.54	2.79	2.91
Ceramic industry:						
Potter	1.74	1.39	1.36	1.45	1.59	1.66
Glass-maker	1.70	1.68	1.67	1.70	1.72	1.82

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Kind of Employment	1933	1934	1935	1936	1937	1938
Cement-maker	2.12	2.05	2.04	2.03	2.19	2.31
Brick-maker (Shape)	1.15	1.27	1.25	1.25	1.32	1.41
Tile-maker (Shape)	1.33	1.50	1.54	1.51	1.65	1.58
Chemical industry:						
Vitriol-maker	1.77	2.11	2.17	2.11	2.18	2.36
Match-maker (Male)	1.07	1.04	1.11	1.18	1.25	1.35
„ „ (Female)	0.49	0.50	0.52	0.53	0.58	0.62
Oil-presser	1.63	1.94	1.97	1.92	2.03	2.01
Japanese-paper maker	1.40	1.48	1.46	1.44	1.55	1.69
Foreign-style paper maker	1.68	1.71	1.75	1.75	1.87	1.92
Leather-maker	2.00	2.38	2.35	2.49	2.61	2.86
Foodstuff industry:						
Flour-miller	1.64	1.88	1.92	1.90	1.89	2.01
Saké-brewery worker	1.79	1.51	1.53	1.58	1.59	1.69
Soy-brewery worker	1.53	1.47	1.45	1.42	1.45	1.49
Sugar-refinery worker	2.06	2.34	2.35	2.50	2.66	2.75
Confectioner	1.44	1.46	1.47	1.45	1.54	1.65
Canner	1.54	1.22	1.21	1.25	1.38	1.52
Clothing industry:						
Tailor (for European clothes)	1.89	1.83	1.79	1.77	1.87	1.96
Shoe-maker	1.76	1.77	1.81	1.82	1.91	2.05
Wooden-clog maker	1.41	1.33	1.35	1.40	1.54	1.70
Engineering and constructional work:						
Carpenter	1.88	1.92	1.93	1.99	2.20	2.35
Plasterer	2.13	2.13	2.16	2.22	2.41	2.55
Stone-mason	2.26	2.33	2.40	2.46	2.66	2.82
Brick-layer	2.31	2.31	2.40	2.43	2.59	2.74
Roofing-tile layer	2.31	2.40	2.41	2.50	2.70	3.03
Painter	2.12	2.10	2.12	2.14	2.27	2.41
Wood and bamboo work:						
Sawyer (Machine)	1.65	1.55	1.56	1.56	1.64	1.79
Joiner	1.80	1.72	1.76	1.80	1.97	2.11
Lacquerer	1.61	1.62	1.62	1.60	1.66	1.74
Floor-mat maker	1.90	1.79	1.84	1.89	1.96	2.07
Printing and book-binding:						
Compositor	2.14	2.17	2.21	2.20	2.24	2.21
Book-binder	1.70	1.61	1.72	1.75	1.78	1.89
Stevedores and daily labourers:						
Stevedore	1.90	2.59	2.66	2.57	2.89	3.14
Day labourer (Male)	1.28	1.31	1.33	1.33	1.43	1.58
„ „ (Female)	0.74	0.78	0.78	0.77	0.82	0.90
Average	—	1.74	1.75	1.75	1.84	1.94

AVERAGE DAILY WAGES OF WORKERS EMPLOYED IN TRANSPORTATION AND COMMUNICATIONS

(Average of 27 Prefectures)

(In yen)

	1935		1936		1937	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
General Average	2.00	1.04	2.01	1.03	2.07	1.11
Land transportation						
Railway	2.02	1.27	2.01	1.03	2.04	1.03
Electric railway	2.15	1.19	2.19	1.32	2.30	1.43
Bus	2.52	1.23	2.66	1.28	2.81	1.36
Sea transportation						
Ocean	2.20	—	2.26	—	2.49	—
Near seas	1.73	—	1.78	—	1.86	—
Coastal	1.46	—	1.44	—	1.48	—
Forwarding	1.59	0.80	1.62	0.75	1.62	0.72
Communications						
Clerks	1.28	1.08	1.27	1.07	1.34	1.13
Postmen	1.69	1.18	1.69	1.16	1.83	1.30

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AVERAGE DAILY WAGES OF WORKERS EMPLOYED IN FARMING AND SERICULTURE

(In Yen)

Wages of Workers Employed in Farming

	1928	1929	1930	1933	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936	1937
General index numbers	93	90	77	59	54	56	56	60	64	73
Workers by the year										
Male										
Actual	0.66	0.66	0.57	0.47	0.42	0.44	0.44	0.48	0.50	0.60
Index numbers	86	88	77	61	56	59	59	64	67	79
Female										
Actual	0.46	0.48	0.41	0.33	0.29	0.32	0.30	0.32	0.35	0.42
Index numbers	81	83	70	56	51	55	52	56	62	72
Workers by the season										
Male										
Actual	1.43	1.45	1.25	0.95	0.85	0.89	0.88	0.95	1.00	1.14
Index numbers	90	96	82	63	58	60	60	64	67	75
Female										
Actual	1.13	1.08	0.96	0.72	0.66	0.69	0.69	0.78	0.80	0.92
Index numbers	92	91	79	61	56	58	58	64	65	75
Workers by the day										
Male										
Actual	1.44	1.35	1.14	0.86	0.77	0.79	0.79	0.85	0.89	1.00
Index numbers	94	89	76	57	52	53	53	57	60	67
Female										
Actual	1.28	1.03	0.87	0.64	0.55	0.57	0.61	0.65	0.67	0.79
Index numbers	112	92	77	55	50	50	54	57	61	71

N. B. Wages per day are calculated by averaging wages, and amounts paid in kind are estimated in equivalent money values. The average is the simple arithmetical average. Base: 1921-23=100

Wages of Workers Employed in Sericulture

	1928	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936	1937
General index numbers	101	101	78	64	59	64	64	69	73	77
Workers by the year										
Male										
Actual	0.99	0.94	0.73	0.59	0.53	0.58	0.57	0.61	0.64	0.67
Index numbers	115	108	83	68	65	74	73	77	81	84
Female										
Actual	0.73	0.72	0.51	0.38	0.37	0.41	0.41	0.44	0.48	0.51
Index numbers	111	104	81	60	60	75	73	75	80	88
Workers by the season										
Male										
Actual	1.26	1.32	1.05	0.89	0.81	0.86	0.84	0.95	0.98	0.98
Index numbers	90	93	75	64	57	60	60	66	68	68
Female										
Actual	0.93	1.01	0.84	0.67	0.62	0.65	0.66	0.74	0.79	0.81
Index numbers	92	96	81	65	60	61	63	70	74	76
Workers by the day										
Male										
Actual	1.50	1.52	1.09	0.93	0.86	0.89	0.88	0.96	1.01	1.07
Index numbers	97	97	70	60	55	56	56	61	65	69
Female										
Actual	1.17	1.21	0.85	0.73	0.67	0.69	0.70	0.75	0.79	0.84
Index numbers	105	108	75	65	59	60	61	66	69	76

N. B. Base: 1921-1923=100.

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AVERAGE DAILY WAGES OF MINERS

(In Yen)

	1935		1936		1937	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Mineral mines	1.68	0.63	1.69	0.64	1.84	0.71
Coal mines	1.78	0.75	1.87	0.79	2.10	0.87
Oil-fields	1.71	0.85	1.65	0.86	1.67	0.88
Other mines	1.69	0.71	1.68	0.68	1.74	0.68
Average	1.75	0.72	1.81	0.74	2.01	0.82

MONTHLY INDEX NUMBER OF WAGES

(Base: 1926=100)

	1935	1936	1937	1938
January	82.2	81.0	81.5	83.8
February	82.0	81.1	81.7	84.0
March	81.8	80.8	81.6	84.2
April	81.4	80.7	81.4	84.1
May	81.2	80.6	81.8	84.3
June	81.0	80.4	82.4	84.9
July	81.0	80.4	83.0	85.6
August	81.0	80.6	83.0	85.9
September	81.0	80.6	83.0	86 2
October	81.0	80.6	83.0	86.5
November	80.9	80.6	83.0	86.9
December	81.0	80.9	83.3	87.8
Year	81.3	80.7	82.4	85.4

MONTHLY INDEX NUMBER OF ACTUAL EARNINGS

(Base, 1926=100)

	1935	1936	1937	1938
January	91.0	91.3	92.7	100.6
February	92.3	92.3	95.5	102.3
March	93.4	93.5	97.0	104.3
April	90.2	90.7	94.9	103.3
May	89.7	91.0	95.9	102.9
June	89.7	90.6	96.6	105.1
July	89.6	90.2	96.3	103.7
August	89.4	90.0	96.0	105.4
September	89.8	90.8	96.1	105.9
October	91.5	92.2	98.3	107.7
November	92.2	93.0	99.4	110.2
December	94.3	96.2	102.9	115.5
Year	91.1	91.8	96.9	105.6

INDEX NUMBER OF ACTUAL EARNINGS CLASSIFIED ACCORDING TO PRINCIPAL INDUSTRIES

(Base 1926=100)

Industries	1934	1935	1936	1937	1938
Silk reeling	61.3	63.3	64.2	67.6	72.0
Cotton spinning	61.2	60.5	60.8	66.4	69.6
Textiles	66.4	65.8	65.5	69.6	71.9
Dyeing	81.4	78.5	76.2	78.8	82.0
Knitting	67.7	66.5	65.3	67.4	69.7
Machinery	96.6	93.2	91.0	92.1	93.6
Shipbuilding	98.4	98.7	98.4	100.7	104.4
Vehicles	89.5	82.0	80.0	82.7	85.4
Instruments	85.3	82.7	80.6	82.8	86.1
Metal wares	98.0	98.1	95.3	99.7	101.2
Ceramics	81.6	82.1	81.8	85.4	90.6
Papermaking	91.8	90.1	89.5	94.1	99.4
Pharmaceutical	78.1	78.6	78.7	81.0	87.4
Rubber goods	86.2	86.8	85.2	89.6	89.6
Artificial fertilizers	94.6	96.1	95.2	99.7	105.9
Foodstuffs	94.4	91.6	91.7	95.2	99.0
Printing and bookbinding	90.3	87.7	86.0	86.5	89.9
Lumber and furniture	73.0	73.3	73.3	75.9	82.4

Labourer's Earning and Its Value The following table, compiled by the Asahi Shimbun, shows that the real value of the labourer's actual earning is gaining.

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INDEX NUMBERS OF ACTUAL EARNING, AND REAL VALUE

(Compiled by the Asahi Shimbun)

(Base: 1914=100)

	Actual Earning	Real Value of the Actual Earning
Average for 1936	258.2	139.6
October, 1936	260.4	141.6
1937:		
January	261.8	139.3
March	267.8	141.3
April	271.0	141.4
October	280.0	143.4
1938:		
December	306.0	145.0
1939:		
January	306.0	144.0
April	315.0	146.0

Note: Real value is obtained by dividing actual earning by living cost.

Working Hour According to the report of the Ministry of Commerce and Industry, the number of working hours of labourers in 1938 and last 5 years was as follows:

AVERAGE DAILY WORKING HOURS IN 1938

	Monthly Working Days	Daily Working Hours
Kind of Industry		
Fabric	25.0	9:46
Metalic	24.8	11:04
Machine manufacturing	25.1	11:04
Ceramics	25.0	9:44
Chemical	26.0	10:18
Foodstuffs	26.4	10:06
Clothing	25.5	10:21
Wood work	25.7	9:46
Printing	26.3	10:45
Stevedore	24.3	11:07

AVERAGE DAILY WORKING HOURS IN 1934-1938

Kind of Employment	1934	1935	1936	1937	1938
Silk-reeler (Female)	9:56	9:56	9:55	9:56	9:58
Cotton spinner (Female)	8:29	8:32	8:33	8:32	8:30
Rayon yarn (male)	8:09	8:39	8:59	9:01	9:07
Rayon textile (Female)	10:10	10:05	10:06	9:59	10:03
Dyeing (Printing) (Male)	11:23	11:08	10:43	10:47	10:53
Hosiery (Male)	9:58	9:56	9:57	10:12	10:12
Furnace (Male)	11:59	12:05	11:53	11:55	11:48
Casting (Male)	11:04	10:51	10:45	11:05	11:07
Lath-man	10:49	10:50	10:51	10:56	11:09
Polisher	11:13	11:10	11:06	11:01	11:05
Finisher	10:50	10:50	10:51	10:56	11:02
Cement	10:25	10:22	10:04	10:32	11:04
Potter	9:39	9:40	9:40	9:37	9:32
Vitriol-maker	10:49	10:59	10:55	10:55	11:09
Match-maker (Female)	9:06	9:29	9:20	9:30	9:14
Japanese paper maker (Male)	10:50	10:50	10:54	10:54	10:48
Leather-maker	9:17	9:12	9:25	9:52	9:55
Flour-miller	10:53	10:45	10:40	10:41	10:59
Canner	9:53	9:57	10:00	10:14	10:16
Tailor (Foreign clothes)	10:13	10:03	10:12	10:22	10:28
Sawyer	9:46	9:40	9:46	9:49	9:50
Printing, Compositor	10:38	10:48	10:48	10:57	10:36
Stevedore (sea)	10:23	10:53	10:31	11:00	11:34
Yearly average (for 64 kinds)	10:05	10:07	10:05	10:10	10:13

It will thus be seen that labour is being strained in all its phases, especially in the heavy industries.

The working hours in the above statistics do not include time for rest. But time for rest has been shortened since 1929.

Labour Accidents Statistics for factory accidents, which have been published include only those figures up to 1935, but it is estimated that accidents have increased since. The number of the casualties which took place while labourers were at work, during 1935, according to the publication of the Social Bureau, numbered 75,926, exclusive of factories to which a portion of the Factory Law applies, and showed an

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increase of 13,809 over the previous year. The number of accidents, as compared with the total number of labourers, began to increase suddenly after 1933. Among the casualties in 1935 female workers numbered 3,030 which corresponds to 4 per cent of the total number of accidents. The reason that the number of casualties in the case of women is comparatively small is explained by the fact that labour is more forced in factories, where male labour constitutes the bulk of the workers. Legal restrictions are also placed on female workers as protected labourers, and this contributes to the lessening casualties in their instance.

Year	Private Factories	Total number of Factories including Government-managed ones.
1926	2.23%	2.71%
1927	2.66	3.13
1928	2.56	2.92
1929	2.72	2.99
1930	2.62	2.86
1931	2.17	2.38
1932	2.14	2.31
1933	2.41	2.57
1934	2.85	2.89

The total number of casualties is shown below. When the sum of those killed and seriously injured is compared with the total number of casualties there was an increase from 24.7 per cent in 1932 to 25.8 per cent in 1934, and 25.7 per cent in 1935, which proves that not only is the number of accidents getting larger but the nature of the accidents is getting worse. The increase of casualties is partly due to the sudden increase in the number of labourers, which include many unskilled men, since 1932, but the rate of increase of casualties, which was 22.2 per cent greater in 1935 than in the previous year, is more than double the increase in the number of labourers, which was 9.5 per cent.

TOTAL CASUALTIES IN INDUSTRY

Year	No. killed	No. seriously injured	No. slightly injured	Total
1932	250	4,058	24,925	34,233
1933	404	10,802	37,157	48,363
1934	555	15,510	46,052	62,117
1935	568	18,970	56,388	75,926
1936	551	19,306	60,684	80,541

LABOUR ACCIDENTS

(Compiled by the Social Bureau)

	Total	In Government Factories	In Private Factories: Total	Textile	Machinery	Chemical	Foodstuff	Miscellaneous	Special
1925	41,011	11,868	29,143	9,585	11,735	4,769	1,095	1,082	877
1926	49,812	11,829	37,983	10,491	17,089	6,648	1,103	1,584	1,068
1927	57,032	12,195	44,837	9,864	20,696	7,935	1,332	4,010	1,000
1928	54,496	9,812	44,684	9,219	22,247	7,541	1,146	3,665	866
1929	58,113	8,910	49,203	8,955	25,691	8,675	1,141	3,809	932
1930	50,984	7,714	43,270	7,170	21,452	8,287	1,169	4,214	979
1931	41,316	6,109	35,207	5,790	17,298	6,677	1,078	3,475	889
1932	39,720	5,487	34,233	5,587	16,968	6,229	879	3,685	885
1933	48,363	6,400	41,963	5,371	23,377	7,194	951	3,973	1,097
1934	62,117	4,978	57,139	5,424	31,165	8,375	1,036	4,620	6,519
1935	75,926	6,166	59,660	5,416	39,316	10,614	998	4,829	6,166

RATE OF FACTORY ACCIDENTS PER 1,000 OPERATIVES

	Total	In Government Factories	In Private Factories: Total	Textile	Machinery	Chemical	Foodstuff	Miscellaneous	Special
1928	29.15	73.04	25.75	9.33	83.35	40.24	13.72	19.92	24.55
1929	29.92	67.29	27.18	8.77	89.59	42.60	13.20	20.35	36.63
1930	28.59	59.53	26.17	7.97	79.64	42.34	13.98	23.47	38.83
1931	23.75	52.26	21.69	6.38	69.92	34.37	13.94	20.31	35.61
1932	23.13	46.76	21.40	6.50	63.51	31.59	11.09	11.46	36.39
1933	25.67	45.70	24.07	6.18	68.28	30.79	11.37	20.88	45.34
1934	28.91	34.59	28.50	5.88	69.73	30.59	11.20	21.84	112.68

In 1937 the number of accidents in the mines was 78,605, the total number of casualties was 78,894, of which deaths numbered 1,031.

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ACCIDENTS IN MINES

Year	Cases	Deaths	Injured	Total Casualties
1933	66,929	833	66,340	67,173
1934	73,239	880	72,807	73,687
1935	72,348	1,120	71,746	72,866
1936	72,510	1,234	71,812	73,046
1937	78,605	1,031	77,863	78,894

Marine Accidents The number of fishing boats and vessels without engines wrecked in 1937 was 1,270, and that of vessels with engines 558, greatly decreasing as compared with previous years. The crews wrecked with those boats and vessels totalled 2,103.

MARINE ACCIDENTS

	Total Number of Fishing Boats and Vessels	Fishing Boats and Vessels Wrecked		Amount of Loss (In ¥1,000)	Total Number of Fishermen	Crews on the Wrecked Boats and Vessels		
		Without Engines	With Engines			Perished	Survived	Total
1933	363,473	12,083	1,444	4,797	1,097,254	714	5,115	5,829
1934	364,582	12,596	2,900	4,785	1,103,346	596	3,852	4,448
1935	366,019	3,443	563	1,775	1,098,999	377	1,942	2,319
1936	366,267	2,841	960	1,744	1,102,502	517	2,292	2,809
1937	364,260	1,270	558	1,147	1,078,142	484	1,619	2,103

Labour Hygiene. The hygienic equipment of factories is legally required, but progress of installation and improvement is rather slow and partial. In compliance with the requirements stated in the new ordinance on labour hygiene, factory managers are endeavouring to make improvements under the guidance of the Government and prefectural authorities, and good results have been reported as to the health of factory labourers where the work has been carried out. (See Chapters on Agriculture, Fisheries, and Mining.)

Labour Measures in the Emergency

Labour Changes and Training Technicians Shortages in labour are causing competition in employing workers or are inducing workers to change employment. A need has been seen of imposing certain restrictions on the movements of workers with the two-fold object of preventing unnecessary shifting of workers from one occupation to another and helping distribute labour equitably and properly.

The present shortage in labour is particularly pronounced among technicians and skilled workers. These technicians and skilled workers cannot be supplied readily at short notice. Many factories and other industrial institutions are already carrying on the training of skilled labour, which, however, is not necessarily being given properly nor does it adequately develop such skilled labour as is needed for the purpose of enlarging the productive power of the nation at large, if such training is left solely to the discretion of the factories and other industrial institutions concerned. The training of skilled labour as is undertaken by factories and other industrial institutions must be given systematically according to certain plans, with the actual shortage found in skilled labour and the volume of skilled labour to be needed for the future enlargement of productivity taken into due consideration.

For these reasons, the National General Mobilization Council, at its second plenary session held on October 31, 1938, passed a Summary Draft of an Imperial Ordinance Concerning the Training of Technicians at Factories and Other Industrial Institutions. The council followed up this action with the adoption of a Summary Draft of an Imperial Ordinance Restricting Employment of Operatives at its third plenary session held on December 5, 1938. Necessary steps have since been taken to promulgate these projected Imperial Ordinances.

The restrictions thus stipulated for imposition upon the employment of workers are summarized below. In the first place, the scope of workers on whose employment the said restrictions are to be imposed covers the following

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four categories:

(1) Men between 16 and 50 years of age who are at the present moment employed and have been employed for more than three months in occupations designated by the Minister of Welfare.

These age limits are the same as the ones for those who are required to file declarations under the provisions of the Ordinance for Declaration of Vocational Abilities, while the occupations so designated by the Minister of Welfare number 93 which are also included in the total of 134 kinds of occupations specified under the Ordinance for Declaration of Vocational Abilities. The 93 different kinds of occupations thus designated include such divisions of mining, metal-work and machine-tool industries as are most seriously in need of skilled labour as well as other occupations such as electric engineering, electric communications, aircraft engineering, shipbuilding engineering, chemical engineering, civil engineering, woodwork engineering, gun-powder manufacturing, electric battery manufacturing, special glass manufacturing, optical glass manufacturing, boiler engineering, rigging manufacturing, etc.

(2) Men between 16 and 50 years of age who, after having been engaged for more than three months in the employment of others for the occupations designated by the Minister of Welfare as mentioned in (1), have terminated such employment after the enforcement of the Imperial Ordinance concerned, provided that such termination of employment occurred less than one year ago in the cases of the graduates of the schools designated by the Minister of Welfare and less than six months ago in the cases of others.

Workers in this category have been included in the cases of labour subject to restrictions on their employment, because undue competition in employing workers or in inducing them to change employment cannot be expected to be prevented effectively unless not only those in actual employment but also those who have until recently been in employment are made subject to the restrictions in question. As regards the periods during which the former employees are made subject to the said restrictions, certain school graduates are distinguished from others, the scope of such school graduates being approximately the same as that of school graduates who are subject to restrictions under the Ordinance for Restricting Employment of School Graduates, which was put into force some time ago under the stipulations of Article 6 of the National General Mobilization Law. Mention must be made, however, of the inclusion in the case under review of the graduates of several schools giving instruction in evening classes, whereas these types of school graduates are excluded in the case of the Ordinance for Restricting Employment of School Graduates.

(3) Those who are at the present moment undergoing training as apprentices under the provisions of the Ordinance for the Training of Technicians at Factories and Other Industrial Institutions, provided that their apprenticeship has lasted for more than three months.

Of those coming under this stipulation, those who are over 16 years of age and are engaged in any of the 93 varieties of work designated by the Minister of Welfare are of course subject to restrictions under the provisions of (1). The other apprentices who are being trained at factories and other industrial institutions under compulsory provisions of the Ordinance for Training Technicians at Factories and Other Industrial Institutions are made subject to restrictions as stipulated here in case they change occupations.

(4) Those who ceased to be apprentices less than six months ago after having been trained as such consecutively for more than three months under the provisions of the Ordinance Pertaining to training of Technicians at Factories and Other Industrial Institutions.

Restrictions to be imposed on the workers of the four above-mentioned categories are to be made effective when a factory or industrial institution is going to employ workers of the said categories, as the prospective employer is required to obtain permission irrespective of the kinds of work for which his workers are to be employed in case he is employing them in his factory or other industrial institution. In case any employer is going to employ these workers in places other than his factory or industrial institution, he is required to obtain permission provided that the work for which these employers are to be employed falls within the scope of the 93 kinds of occupations specified by the Minister of Welfare. However, in case consent has been obtained from the employers who are employing these workers in the kinds of work specified by the Minister or who are training them as apprentices, the permission stipulated above can be dispensed with in newly employing these workers. Similarly, in case consent has been obtained from the former employers of

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the workers who have ceased to be their employees after having engaged in any of the occupations sepecified by the Minister, such workers may be newly employed without the permission stipulated above. In these case, however, the new employer is required to file a report of the employment of these workers, accompanied by a certificate showing that their former employers have no objection to their new employment.

Applications for the permission stipulated above are required to be prepared in a fixed form and filed with the director of the Government Employment Bureau under whose jurisdiction the factory or industrial institution where the prospective employees have been employed or trained as apprentices is located. In case the factory or industrial institution where these workers are to be employed is under the jurisdiction of the same Government Employment Bureau as the factory or industrial institution where the said workers have previously been employed or trained, it is obvious that the application for the desired permission need not be passed through any other authorities. In case, however, the factory, industrial institution or business office where the workers are to be employed is located in Chosen, Taiwan, Karafuto, the South Sea Mandated Islands, or any foreign country such as Manchoukuo, North China, Central China, etc., the application will have to be filed directly with the director of the Bureau under whose jurisdiction the said workers have hitherto been placed.

An application for such permission can be cancelled when any falsehood has been reported. When the application contains untrue statements or when the application is accompanied by irregularities, the permission which might have been given in response to the said application will be cancelled.

Further, there have been stipulated provisions for inspections and examinations in order to obtain materials for reference before deciding between permission and non-permission, or in order to see whether the employment has been completed properly after having obtained necessary permission, or in order to find out whether or not there have been irregularities committed in connection with the employment of workers who have been found to require no permission for their employment. Thus, in case one who has obtained necessary permission has employed workers subject to these restrictions, or in case one has employed such workers without permission, one is required to report such employment to the director of the Government Employment Bureau under whose jurisdiction the concern is located according to a specified form. In case the director of the Bureau deems it necessary in connection with the permission to be given for the projected employment, he is authorized to collect reports from persons interested or send officials in charge to the place of business to inspect the conditions of operation, books or other documents.

In case places of industrial operation of the army and navy, other government-operated works, government offices or prefectural governments employ works subject to restrictions under review, it is deemed inappropriate to make the procedures for obtaining permission applicable to such cases. Therefore, employment of workers in such cases is exempted from the application of the Ordinance for Restricting Employment of Workers.

Training of Technicians The factories and other industrial institutions which are carrying on operations specified by the Minister of Welfare are obliged to train technicians under the provisions of the relative Ordinance, provided that they have more than 200 male workers older than 16 years in their regular employ or that they are engaged in those kinds of work which are specially designated by the Minister of Welfare with less than 200 and more than 50 male workers older than 16 years in regular employ. However, owners of plants regularly employing more than 200 male workers may be exempted from the obligation to train apprentices with permission of the Minister in case it is extremely difficult for them to undertake such training. The industries specified by the Minister of Welfare for this purpose include five important metal-work industries and 17 leading industries manufacturing or repairing machinery and precision instruments. In case one factory or place of industrial operation is engaged in several kinds of work simultaneously, the said concern is to be regarded as coming under the designation of the Minister of Welfare if any of the different kinds of work falls within the scope of designation.

The industries specified for Article 2 of the Ordinance Pertaining to Training of Technicians at Factories and Other Places of Industrial Operation are: metal refining industries; metal rolling industries (exclusive of metal wire

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manufacturing industries and metal foil manufacturing industries); blacksmith industries; metal casting industries; metal welding industries; metal-work and woodwork machine-tool manufacturing industries (including steel foundry machine tools manufacturing industries); mining, dressing and refining machine-tool manufacturing industries; industries manufacturing guns, shells, mines and arms; motor-engine manufacturing industries (boilers and gas generators manufacturing industries included); motors and other electric machinery manufacturing industries; electric communications machinery manufacturing industries; chemical engineering machinery and equipment manufacturing industries; manufacturing industries for pumps, water pressure machines, gas compressors, blowers, valves and cocks; manufacturing industries for belt wheels, gears, axles and ball bearings; rails and vehicle manufacturing industries; aircraft manufacturing industries; automobile and bicycle manufacturing industries; crane manufacturing industries; measuring, testing and scientific instruments manufacturing industries; optical machinery and instruments manufacturing industries; and medical instruments manufacturing industries.

Whether or not any factory or place of industrial operation has more than 200 workers older than 16 years, or whether or not it has more than 50 such workers in employ is to be determined by the total number of workers employed in the place as a whole, and not by the number of workers employed in the specified industries alone. Further, the obligation to train technicians devolves upon the factories or places of industrial operation, and therefore in case the management owns several factories or places of industrial operation, each of the latter places is to be considered as being under such obligation if it falls within the scope of the Ordinance in question.

The technicians are to be trained to qualify as "soldiers of industry" and to qualify intellectually as technicians of more than medium standing, with technical knowledge enabling them to pass considerably extensive technical judgments on productive activities and carry on operations even when left to their own discretion. These technicians are further expected to produce from among themselves leaders for the future, and for this reason experts skilled only in their own divisions of work are not qualified for the said training.

The qualifications of apprentices for such training are stipulated below. In case any factory or place of industrial operation finds it difficult to enlist a required number of such apprentices or in case the nature of the kinds of technicians to be so trained makes it inappropriate to enlist only those who are qualified as specified, it has been stipulated that those who are not fully qualified may be trained as apprentices with permission of the prefectural governor concerned. The qualifications are as follows:

(1) Males over 14 and less than 16 years of age when they start the training.

(2) Those who have finished the two-year course of the higher primary schools or the ordinary course of the young men's schools, or those who have been declared to have scholastic ability equal to or higher than the above-mentioned standards by the Minister of Education.

It has been deemed desirable that those who are under obligation to train technicians should spend a certain period in preparing plans, enlisting required numbers of apprentices and providing for facilities of supervision on training before starting the training, instead of commencing such training immediately on the dates when they find themselves placed under obligation. Therefore, it has been stipulated in principle that those who are placed under such obligation between January 1 and the end of February should start the required training during the month of April in the same year and that those who are placed under such obligation between March 1 and the end of December should do so during the month of April in the following year. For the year 1939, however, those who find themselves under obligation on the day when the Ordinance Pertaining to Training of Technicians at Factories and Places of Industrial Operation, are required to start such training once every year, commencing such training during the month of May in 1939.

Those who are under the obligation of training technicians are required to prepare plans for such training and obtain permission of the prefectural governors concerned. In the first place, these plans are required to include the statement of the kinds of apprentices for whom training is to be started and their number.

The number of apprentices to be trained is, in principle, to be more than the number to be obtained by multiplying the number of those who are required to file declarations under the

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system of the national registration of vocational abilities employed in the psecified works (exclusive of engineers) by the percentage to be fixed by the Minister of Welfare (which is fixed as 4 per cent in the case of metal industries and 6 per cent in the case of machine-tool industries for the training to be started during 1939). For a factory or place of industrial operation regularly employing more than 1,000 male workers more than 16 years old and equipped with a practice shop or other facilities for training, it is stipulated that the said factory or place of industrial operation may be ordered to start the training of a certain number of apprentices to be fixed between the number corresponding to the fixed percentage and twice the said number. Further in case the number of the apprentices under training is found to be short of the required number at the end of any given year, the management is required to start training the required number plus the number of the shortage for the following year.

In case there exist special circumstances making it impossible for the required number of apprentices to start training according to the above-mentioned stipulations, the number of apprentices to be so trained may be cut with permission of the prefectural governor concerned.

The plans to be prepared are also required to indicate the methods by which the apprentices for training are to be selected and the number of trainers classified according to the different kinds of duties they are to assume. In case the prefectural governor concerned deems it particularly necessary, it is stipulated that he may order the appointment of such trainers as may be required.

The plans for which the permission of the prefectural governor are required are further to indicate the details of facilities of training such as classrooms, practice shops and dormitories. In this connection the governor is authorized to order the building of classrooms and their accessory in the case of a concern regularly employing 200 or more male workers more than 16 years old or the building of a practice shop in the case of a concern regularly employing 1,000 or more male workers older than 16 years.

The other matters to be covered in the plans include the hours to be devoted to the cultivation of moral qualities in apprentices as divided according to their different classes, the different scholastic courses for the apprentices and the hours of instruction to be given.

The period for training apprentices is fixed at three years in principle, and in cases where apprentices are to be given technical training for more than one year at practice shops or where there exist special reasons warranting the shortening of the training period without lowering the standard of training, the said period of training may be cut to the limit of two years.

The hours of training are stipulated as follows:

(a) More than 50 hours annually for spiritual training.

(b) More than 700 hours for the scholastic curriculum throughout the period of training.

The management may cut the hours to the limit of 550 hours with permission of the prefectural governor concerned in case special circumstances warrant such a cut.

(c) More than 5,000 hours for practice during the entire period of training. In case necessary permission has been obtained to cut the period of training to less than three years, the hours of practice may be cut to more than 3,500 hours.

The plans to be submitted to the prefectural governor prior to the starting of training are also required to state the wages and other allowances to be paid to the apprentices during the period of training. As the management is required to employ the apprentices after their training, it goes without saying that it is required to pay wages to the apprentices during the period of their training.

The hours of work per diem (including hours for training) are also to be specified in the plans to be submitted to the prefectural governor. In case the hours of work are subject to restrictions under other laws or ordinances, the training of apprentices is required to be carried on within such restrictions on working hours.

Holidays and hours for rest, as well as the estimates of expenses needed for the training, also have to be covered in the plans in question, it being stipulated that the burden of expenses for training should not be shared by the apprentices.

Further, in case the management, which in principle is required to train apprentices at its factory or other place of industrial operation, finds it difficult to do so for special reasons, it may train such apprentices at schools or other institutions equipped with facilities well adapted to their training or cause them to be so trained. In addi-

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tion to the foregoing, statement must also be made of the following matters concerning the schools or other institutions concerned.

(1) The names and locations of the schools or institutions.

(2) The kinds and number of apprentices to be trained.

(3) The details of the courses to be given for the apprentices.

(4) The period during which the apprentices are to be trained.

In case any employer desires to revise the plans of training apprentices on which permission has been obtained, he is required to obtain permission of the prefectural governor concerned on such revisions. The governor may also order the employer to revise his plans for training apprentices. In case there arise special circumstances, after the commencement of training, making it difficult to continue training any or all of the required number of apprentices, training may be discontinued for any number of apprentices with permission of the governor. In case any of the individual apprentices is considered to have no prospect of becoming a worker of more than medium standing, permission may be obtained to discontinue training of such an individual, in which case the required number of apprentices is to remain short.

It is stipulated further that reports may be collected or official visits or inspections may be made occasionally in order to maintain adequate supervision. To be more exact, the Minister of Welfare or the prefectural governor concerned is authorized to collect reports regarding the training of technicians or send officials in charge to factories, places of industrial operation, business offices or other places to inspect books and other documents concerning the training of apprentices. Moreover, the employers are, it is also stipulated, required to file reports to the prefectural governors concerned regarding the appointment of trainers and regarding other circumstances concerning the training.

Adjustment of Labour in Rural Communities The China Affair, together with the influence it has exerted on the industrial life of the nation, has drained heavily on the labour resources of rural Japan. Since the outbreak of hostilities two years ago, men and horses from the rural communities have been mobilized for military service on the China battlefields. Additionally, the ever-increasing demand for workers in munitions factories and other industries connected with the current emergency has called a vast number of young men from the farms. This great outflow of men and animals has affected the agricultural labour power of Japan to an unprecedented extent, and the Government has taken the following measures for counteracting unfavourable sequences of the decrease of agricultural labour power and for carrying agricultural production through without difficulty:

1. Coordination and Adjustment. The Government now is planning the adjustment of labour power, including animals and machines, taking the conditions of agricultural production into consideration. The Government also is devising plans concerning the absorption of farm labourers by the munitions industry, based on the labour power adjustment programme. For these purposes, an appropriation is provided in the supplementary budget for the 1939-40 fiscal year, enabling the local commissions on regeneration and the agricultural associations to frame basic plans for the investigations of agricultural labour power. On the basis of these plans, the Government is trying to coordinate and carry out all the measures for the purpose. Thus the supply of labour power for the munitions industry will be made according to a definite programme.

2. Organization of Labour Service Groups. This is a plan to organize labour service groups in various towns and villages, the unit of these activities being one community. The purpose of these groups is to replenish the shortage of labour in the households of farmers called to the colours, not only stabilizing the livelihood of these families but also maintaining the balance of production. The Government in this manner aided 8,931 agrarian towns and villages in 1937 and 9,989 last year.

3. Cooperative Work. Cooperative labour is not an innovation in Japanese rural life. But in the face of the shortage of labour power since the inception of the China Affair, it has become necessary to encourage this practice widely in order to increase efficiency in agricultural labour. Thus the Imperial Agricultural Association and prefectural and local organizations have been aiding in the promotion of joint work. The number of farmers' unions guided by agricultural associations in this connection since the current hostilities stands at 121,176.

4. Transferring Collective Labour. Shortage of labour power in some instances cannot be corrected by such measures as labour service groups and

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the encouragement of joint work. Particularly in districts where labour power has been supplied by other towns, villages or prefectures during the busy seasons, even in time of peace, necessity is felt all the more keenly for taking further steps for this supply. As a countermeasure for supplying labour power during the busy periods, therefore, a plan has been worked out for the transfer of labour power in groups by taking advantage of the differences in time of the planting and harvest seasons in various rural communities.

5. Distribution and Coordination of Farm Machinery. The situation is becoming such that the consumption of various commodities must be restricted to a considerable extent, by reason of which it is becoming difficult to expand farming equipment by new installations of machinery. This situation, therefore, makes it necessary to make the maximum use of those machines already in existence, by adjusting the uneven distribution among districts, by making joint use of those which are not in full use privately, and by repairing and restoring to service those which are out of order.

6. Means of Production in Agricultural, Mountain, Fishing Villages. (a) Availability of Improved Farming Implements.

The Agricultural Promotion Association and other organizations should furnish various kinds of improved farming implements for joint utility.

(b) Distribution of Implements Operated by Animal Power.

Existing implements should be given wider joint utility in regions where animal power is available.

(c) Encouragement of Simple Water Power Facilities. In agricultural regions where potential water power is available, simple devices should be made for harnessing water power.

(d) Supply of Power Boats for Cooperative Use.

Small power boats used for towing fishing craft should be given wider use to relieve the shortage of labour in fishing villages.

(e) Establishment of Joint Sericultural Facilities.

This is to alleviate labour conditions n the silk producing districts, through joint equipment measures by the Sericulture Promotion Associations.

7. Exchange, Division and Consolidation of Farm Lands. In Japan, farmers own or cultivate patches of land in scattered places, wasting potential labour in getting from one place to another. This situation hampers efficient farm management. The Government recently has revised the Special Tax Law incidental to the China Affair, providing for the exemption of registration taxes in cases where the ownership of land for cultivation and perpetual tenant-right are exchanged, thus facilitating the exchange, division and consolidation of farm lands. This exemption from taxes, allowed in cases of exchange, division and union, is made through the mediation of Farm Land Commissions of cities, towns and villages. Under the direction of the Government, these commissions strive actively to facilitate such arrangements on the part of farmers, subsidizing the operations involved.

8. Supply and Renting of Farm Horses. Due to the requisition of farm horses, the shortage of animal power and the consequent loss of natural fertilizer resources is great. To correct this deficiency, the Government is aiding the joint purchase of horses through prefectural governments and various organizations and also is facilitating renting of horses.

9. Supply of Cattle. Under the current emergency, the number of cattle slaughtered for beef and leather has increased considerably. This measure is designed to encourage cattle raising and to rationalize the distribution of livestock, as it is feared that a serious shortage of animal power and self-supplying fertilizer resources will develop if the present tendency is not checked.

Regislation of Vocational Abilities A system of registering vocational abilities of the people at large, for which preparations had been going on for some time, went into effect as from January 20, 1939, as provided in Ordinance No. 5 promulgated on January 7th, on approval of the National General Mobilization Council.

The system can be explained, briefly, as one in which the State registers working abilities of the people, abilities for mental as well as physical types of work. It can accordingly be called the System for National Registration of Vocational Abilities. The National General Mobilization Law provides, in Article 21, for obliging Japanese subjects to report on and to be examined concerning their vocational abilities. This system of general registration, however, is not applied to physicians, dental surgeons, pharmaceutists, veterinary surgeons, and mariners. For with regard to those engaging in medical and related professions and occupations, a separate, special Ordinance for registering their abilities has already been

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promulgated, and with regard to the others of this group, similar Ordinances concerning their respective vocational groups will soon be promulgated.

Employment exchanges have been designated to act as agencies for registration under the present system. The change from municipal to national management of these employment exchanges, which was effected in July, 1938, has made them peculiarly fitted for the purpose, since by this change they have come to be widely and adequately distributed throughout the country, improved in organization and activities, and operated with the view of nation-wide, rational adjustment of supply and demand of labour.

In the light of the above-stated purpose of the national registration system, the best way of carrying it out may require the registration of all the members of the nation who are capable of working in some way in time of emergency, regardless of age, sex and occupation. Such a step, however, not only exhausts the time and energy of the competent authorities but is unnecessary for the practical purpose of national labour mobilization. The present system, therefore, specifies certain categories of vocational and other abilities deemed most urgent in war-time labour mobilization as constituting the qualifications for being registered.

They are:

1. Japanese subjects: aliens will not be registered.

2. Male subjects: women also may be included in wartime labour mobilization; however, as men will form the immediate objective of the mobilization, women are excluded from this system.

3. Male subjects above 15 and below 50 years of age: this age restriction is adopted from the consideraiton that those who are within these ages are most suitable for mobilization; those outside these age limits, therefore, might possibly be mobilized in time of war.

4. Subjects residing within the Japanese Empire: those Japanese subjects residing in foreign countries are excluded from this system.

5. Subjects who are of the categories named below:—

a. Those who have pursued vocations designated by the Minister of Welfare for more than three consecutive months. As for the designated vocations, some 130 classes relating to war industries or those considered as essential for military operations have been named, including mechanicians, miners, forgers and turners. Classes of designated vocations will increase in the future according to the actual needs. The time restriction is adopted for the purpose not only of ensuring the minimum amount of skill but of preventing complexities in registration arising from cases of leaving and changing vocations, which occur most frequently within the early months after starting in them.

b. Those who have pursued the vocations stipulated in the foregoing for more than one year without intermission within the period of the past five years. The requirement of one year is made out of the consideration that it is the minimum length of time in which can be acquired a fair degree of skill in vocations, and the requirement of within the period of the past five years in consideration of the possible lowering of skill already acquired by extending the period.

c. Graduates of universities, colleges and technical schools designated by the Minister of Welfare, who have taken the authorized courses. Graduates of such educational institutions are considered to have acquired adequate vocational abilities and skill by the fact that they have successfully completed the prescribed courses. The designated institutions are mainly technical schools above the middle grade, and the designated courses are such technical courses as mechanical, electrical, mining and metallurgical engineering and applied chemistry.

d. Those who have completed work in technical training institutes designated by the Minister of Welfare, such as training institutes for mechanics established by the State or municipalities. They are considered as qualified for registration for the same reason as graduates of the schools stipulated in the foregoing.

e. Those who have obtained licences or certificates by passing examinations and tests designated by the Minister of Welfare, such as those for chauffeurs and farriers.

Exemption is made, however, from the registration in the cases of those coming under the categories named below:

1. Men in the services who are on the active list or those who have been called to the colours in time of war and of other emergencies in accordance with Clause 2 of Article 55 of the Military Service Law.

2. Cadets enroled in the active service.

3. Civilians in the employ of the Army and Navy.

4. Physicians, dental surgeons, pharmaceutists, veterinary surgeons, and

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mariners coming within the purview of the Mariners Law.

Examination of Vocational Abilities In view of the objective of the national registration system which lies in the rational mobilization of vocational abilities of the people in time of emergency, keeping the records of their abilities in clear and definite terms is essential. Reporting to be made by the persons concerned and their employers regarding their vocational careers and technical skill according to the given standards is a feasible but by no means satisfactory method of keeping such records and of supplying data for judging and estimating the kinds and grades of their abilities. In order to ensure accuracy in the estimation to the greatest possible extent, therefore, the National General Mobilization Law provides for the examination of vocational abilities of the people. And this examination will be conducted, in principle, by prefectural governors and directors of local employment bureaus under the following procedure.

1. Judging by Computation Formula. This is a method of judging the adequacy or inadequacy of the report concerning the degree of skill by a certain formula or standard worked out by computing statistically inter-relations between years of experienc and degrees of skill. In applying this method to a report, if the reported degree of skill agrees with the formula, the adequacy or validity of the report is considered as established and the report is accepted; but if discrepancies are found the reporter is subjected to practical examination.

2. Practical Examination. According to this method, individual registered persons are made to perform a given piece of work, and by their ways of doing things and the results of their work the grades of their skill are adjudged. The important questions are what kinds of work should be given as the test and what methods of grading the results be adapted. With a view to working out such standards, a central institute for examination of technical skill will be created. Test questions worked out in this institute are to be used by the officials in charge of examinations who are attached to prefectural governments in giving the work-test to individual workers at individual and other establishments.

With regard to certain classes of those employed by the State who are within the purview of this system of national registration, particularly those in the employ of the governmental establishments designated by the Minister of Welfare, which are mostly establishments of the Army and Navy, special provisions are made for reporting, examining and registering their vocational abilities. They are to be reported upon to employment bureaus through those establishments. When, however, those qualified for these exceptional provisions become disqualified, they are placed under the general rules concerning the reports and other requirements.

All these provisions concerning the national registration of vocational abilities will be carried out by empowering directors of employment bureaus and prefectural governors to require other reports deemed necessary for the purpose of the system from persons concerned and to make inspections of factories and other establishments.

Control of Wage Rates For the necessity of controlling the commodity prices, the problem of unchecked rise in wage rates has been studied by the competent authorities in the Ministry of Welfare and the Central Wage Commission in the Ministry decided the standard wage rates of inexperienced operatives at employment as follows at their general meeting which was held on June 24, 1939. The decision was made to keep the average rates in the mine months from April to December, 1938, as standards for the latter half of 1939, or from 10 to 20 per cent lower than the rates prevailing in the first half of 1939. The wages stated in the following table are for 10 working hours (rest hour inclusive) a day in the case of factory operatives and 9 working hours in the case of mine workers in the pit, and for an extra hour 10 per cent increase is allowed.

STANDARD DAILY WAGE RATES FOR INEXPERIENCED OPERATIVES (Male)

At New Employment in Factories

(Unit: yen)

Age	12-13	13-14	14-15	15-16	16-17	17-18	18-19	19-20
In the Prefectures of Tokyo, Kanagawa, Aichi, Osaka, Hyogo, Fukuoka and Nagasaki	0.55	0.60	0.65	0.75	0.85	0.95	1.05	1.15

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	12-13	13-14	14-15	15-16	16-17	17-18	18-19	19-20
Hokkaido, Toyama, Kyoto, Okayama, Hiroshima, and Yamaguchi	0.50	0.55	0.60	0.65	0.75	0.85	0.95	1.05
Fukushima, Ibaraki, Tochigi, Gumma, Saitama, Chiba, Niigata, Yamanashi, Nagano, Gifu, Shizuoka and Mié.	0.45	0.50	0.55	0.60	0.65	0.75	0.85	0.95
Other 22 Prefectures	0.40	0.45	0.50	0.55	0.60	0.65	0.75	0.85

STANDARD DAILY WAGE RATES FOR INEXPERIENCED OPERATIVES

At New Employment in Mines

(Unit: yen)

Age	16-17	17-18	18-19	19-20
Workers in the Pit (Permanent employment)				
In the mines in				
Sapporo District				
Coal and Metal	1.40	1.55	1.70	1.85
Non-Metal	1.05	1.15	1.25	1.35
Fukuoka District				
Coal and Metal	1.20	1.35	1.50	1.65
Non-Metal	0.85	0.95	1.05	1.15
Sendai, Tokyo and Osaka districts				
Coal and Metal	1.00	1.15	1.30	1.45
Non-Metal	0.95	1.05	1.15	1.25

Workers in oil-wells								
Age	12-13	13-14	14-15	15-16	16-17	17-18	18-19	19-20
Wage	0.45	0.50	0.55	0.60	0.65	0.75	0.85	0.95

Health Insurance As to the business conditions of the State Health Insurance mentions are given in Chapter XII, Insurance, and here it will be suffice to give mentions on some items directly to do with labour.

Insured persons are entitled to benefit when they are injured while in service or become ill, or in case of maternity. In case of death benefits are paid to their dependents. In the fiscal year of 1936-37, there were as many as 10,848,429 cases for which benefits were given to the amount of ¥45,882,742. Of the total, the number of cases directly arising from work was 1,211,274 with the payment amounting to ¥3,713,674, details of which follow:

	Cases	Amount paid (In Yen)
Medical treatment	921,020	—
Prolonged treatment	14,157	87,670
Medical treatment for the injured	273,956	3,533,818
Funerals	2,141	92,187
Total	1,211,274	3,713,674

Of the total 1,211,274 cases, the number of casualties was 796,678.

The number of cases which directly arose from work and handled by the Health Insurance in recent years was as follows:

Fiscal Year	Cases	Amount Paid in yen
1932-33	526,823	1,752,785
1933-34	639,728	2,024,485
1934-35	807,734	2,558,332
1935-36	1,018,915	3,209,735
1936-37	1,211,274	3,713,674

It is generally understood that the accidents and casualties are increasing with the advance of years, but the yearly increase in figures given above does not necessarily speak of the fact, because the reports of factories and associations from which the figures are compiled are increasing as it is shown in the following table:

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At the end of March,	Under Governmental Management		Associations	
	No. of Factories	No. of Persons insured	No. of Associations	No. of Persons insured
1933	48,525	1,122,141	347	598,058
1934	54,356	1,294,926	345	706,555
1935	61,241	1,503,550	349	823,144
1936	113,719	2,096,657	370	947,277
1937	123,605	2,346,637	379	1,104,833

Labour Disputes

The number of labour disputes in 1931 recorded highest with 2,456 including 998 which were accompanied by strikes, sabotages or lockouts. The following 4 years showed a decreasing tendency in labour disputes, their number in 1935 being 1,872 including 590 cases accompanies by strikes, sabotages or lockouts. But in 1936 the number rose once again and in the first half of 1937, it surpassed the corresponding period of the record year 1931, and then suddenly began to decrease after July, 1937, when the North China incident occurred.

The reason for the decrease in the number of labour disputes in 1932 and after may be found in the occurrence of the Manchurian incident in September 1931 and the consequent change of thought among the people in which nationalism gained an ascendency over the socialistic ideologics of labour leaders. The leaders themselves altered their concepts and showed a spirit of co-operation with capitalists in promoting the benefit of industrial enterprises. The prosperity attending the heavy industries and the export trade also had much to do with the decrease in labour disputes, and the nature of disputes was considerably modified.

The increase in 1936 and the first half of 1937 was caused not by any change in thought but by a purely economic reason, namely, the increase in wage did not correspond to the rise in prices. The sudden decrease in the second half of 1937 was exceptional, being the result of the emergency situation and the national mobilization of men and resources. The tendency prvailed in 1938 and the number of disputes decreased to a half of 1937. The following table is given here to show the general conditions of labour disputes during past 15 years, 1934-38.

LABOUR DISPUTES IN 1924-1938

	Totals of Disputes			Disputes accompanied by Strikes, sabotage or lockouts		
	Cases	Partakers	Partakers per case	Cases	Partakers	Partakers per case
1924	933	94,047	101	333	54,526	164
1925	816	89,387	110	293	40,742	139
1926	1,260	127,267	101	495	67,234	136
1927	1,202	103,350	86	383	46,672	122
1928	1,021	101,893	100	397	46,252	117
1929	1,420	172,144	121	576	77,444	134
1930	2,290	191,838	82	907	81,362	90
1931	2,456	154,528	63	998	64,536	65
1932	2,217	123,313	56	893	54,783	61
1933	1,897	116,733	82	610	49,423	81
1934	1,915	120,307	63	626	49,536	79
1935	1,872	103,962	56	590	37,734	64
1936	1,975	92,724	47	547	30,900	56
1937	2,126	213,622	101	628	123,730	197
1938	1,022	53,550	52	—	—	—

LABOUR DISPUTES BY INDUSTRY

Industry:—	1934	1935	1936	1937	1938
Metal, machinery and tool	281	323	408	394	203
Chemical	332	279	258	290	139

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	1934	1935	1936	1937	1938
Textile	226	252	196	286	105
Foodstuff	68	71	55	85	39
Miscellaneous	204	173	313	277	132
Mining	85	79	102	120	78
Gas and electric	17	—	5	—	—
Transportation	201	255	260	348	166
Engineering and construction	179	115	115	100	61
Communication	5	—	—	—	—
Others	316	325	263	226	99
Total	1,915	1,872	1,975	2,126	1,022
Participants	120,307	103,962	92,724	213,622	53,550

CASES CLASSIFIED ACCORDING TO THE NATURE OF DEMANDS

	1936	1937	1938
Positive demands			
Increase of wages	561	998	429
Shorter hours	23	17	—
Recognition of freedom of trade unions	15	11	—
Better equipments for labourers in factories	9	9	23
Rejection of overseers	44	50	452
Total	652	1,085	29
Negative demands			
Against lowering of wages	131	70	—
Against revision of working method, etc.	27	23	—
Against revision of the method of paying wages	70	55	29
For establishment or improvement of pension	397	299	207
Aagainst dismissals	309	235	82
Total	934	682	347
Others	389	359	223

NUMBER OF LABOUR DISPUTES ACCOMPANIED BY STRIKES, SABOTAGE OR LOCKOUTS

	Cases	Participants	Per case
1933			
Strikes	516	33,302	64.5
Sabotage	59	12,029	203.9
Lockouts	23	1,456	63.3
Total	598	46,787	78.2
1934			
Strikes	559	42,091	75.3
Sabotage	48	6,975	145.3
Lockouts	16	412	25.8
Total	623	49,478	79.4
1935			
Strikes	527	31,811	60.4
Sabotage	43	5,271	122.6
Lockouts	14	568	40.6
Total	584	37,650	64.5
1936			
Strikes	498	26,772	53.7
Sabotage	36	3,696	102.7
Lockouts	13	432	33.2
Total	547	30,900	56.4
1937			
Strikes	530	53,429	100.8
Sabotage	75	67,758	903.3
Lockouts	23	2,543	110.5
Total	628	123,730	197.0

Classified by Demands

Demand for	1935 Cases	1935 Men	1936 Cases	1936 Men	1937 Cases	1937 Men
Recognition of freedom of trade unions	7	1,159	5	233	7	2,483
Against the reduction of wages	82	3,432	60	3,281	29	1,439
Increase of wases	225	15,285	228	14,259	373	94,844
Against the revision of the method of calculating or paying of wages	46	3,977	38	1,747	24	1,283
Shorter hours	9	152	15	381	12	540
Establishment of holidays	5	128	2	211	2	23
Against the revision of working method or rules	11	409	13	685	9	175
Payment of wages	42	1,909	—	—	19	814

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Demand for	1935 Cases	1935 Men	1936 Cases	1936 Men	1937 Cases	1937 Men
Better equipment	2	1,152	4	151	5	129
Establishment or increase of pensions	26	922	19	258	21	5,583
Reappointment or against dismissals	46	2,949	45	2,099	37	8,337
Not to punish the leaders of disputes	—	—	—	—	—	—
Rejection of superintendents	30	2,687	29	2,136	31	2,330
Other	53	3,489	89	5,459	59	5,750
Total	584	37,650	547	30,900	628	123,730

Results of Disputes

	Total	Compromised	Demands Accepted	Demands Unaccepted	Defeated	Left Unsettled
1933	598	263(44.0)	123(20.6)	206(34.4)	3(0.5)	3(0.5)
1934	623	271(43.5)	163(26.2)	188(30.2)	1(0.1)	—
1935	584	276(47.3)	157(26.9)	151(25.8)	—	--
1936	547	217(39.7)	176(32.2)	153(27.9)	—	1(0.2)
1937	628	261(41.5)	168(26.9)	197(31.3)	2(0.3)	—

Figures in parentheses represent percentages.

Tenant Disputes

In the past 5 years tenant disputes centred round the protection of the tenant rights, or the demand of tenants for the continuation of their tenure. The difficulty for a farmer to get another farm has become much greater than that of finding work for a labourer in a city. To lose one's farm is to starve, and tenant disputes along this line are accordingly acute. The number of tenant disputes in 1937 and 1938 decreased as shown in the following table.

TENANT DISPUTES

Year	Number	Tenant Participants	Area Included (In cho)
1933	4,000	48,073	30,343
1934	5,828	121,031	85,129
1935	6,824	113,164	70,160
1936	6,804	77,187	46,036
1937	6,170	63,246	39,255
1938	3,331	31,445	20,871

The causes, demands and results of disputes in the past 5 years have been as follows :

TENANT DISPUTES

By Causes

	1933	1934	1935	1936	1937
Raising tenant rents	86	114	115	227	240
Bad crops	646	1,940	2,451	1,375	1,116
High tenant rents	99	85	66	155	119
Unbalanced production cost	16	7	6	15	—
Cancellation of tenant rights	2,275	2,704	3,031	3,644	3,575
Arrears of farm-rents	485	505	734	871	621
Others	393	473	421	515	499

By Demands

	1933	1934	1935	1936	1937
Temporary lowering of tenant rents	1,013	2,168	2,616	1,621	1,546
Permanent lowering of tenant rents	105	96	96	213	
Against raising tenant rents	72	112	114	197	184
Continuation of tenant rights	2,097	2,421	2,862	3,674	3,274
Recognition of tenant rights	49	44	45	253	202
Compensation for lost tenant rights	120	166	123		
Others	544	821	968	846	964

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Results of Disputes

	1933	1934	1935	1936	1937
Compromised	2,568	3,764	5,131	5,162	4,824
Demands accepted	523	922	381	294	277
Demands withdrawn	92	157	160	167	107
Naturally settled	56	76	82	72	76
Unsettled	761	909	1,070	1,109	886

Trade Unions

Annual Meetings in 1936 The fifth annual meeting of the Japan Trade Union Council (Nippon Rodo Kumiai Kwaigi) was held at Yokohama on October 18, 1936, Komakichi Matsuoka presiding over the 69 delegates who were present. Ten decisions were arrived at, of which the most important were "Recommendations to the Government for the establishment of a Ministry of Labour," and a "Resolution against the suppression of the trade union movement among Government factory labourers," besides the declaration of the fifth council which voiced its stand in liberalism in sympathy with the Social Mass Party.

The Japan Trade Union Council lost the Japan General Federation of Trade Unions (Nippon Rodo Kumiai So-rengo) in 1935 from among its important members and was further weakened, in September, 1936, by the prohibition of the trade union movement among labourers in Government factories belonging to the War Ministry. The Council, however, was successful in bringing about the formation of the All-Japan General Federation of Labour and the National Trade Union Federation in 1935, and added to its power by the coming in of the Japan Federation of Ceramic Trade Unions in 1936, it thus remains the largest organization of trade unions in Japan, with a membership of 9 bodies and 263,914 labourers.

The new officials and the present members of the Japan Trade Union Council are as follows :

President, Komakichi Matsuoka
Vice-president, Manryo Yonekubo
Chief-secretary, Aiichi Kamijo
Adviser, Bunji Suzuki
Executive Committee : Shinichi Yagi, Suehiro Nishio, Bunsaku Hamahashi, Choei Horiuchi, Hidekichi Koizumi, Yasutaro Kawamura, Kichitaro Numada, Eiichi Iwanaga.

Members :	Number of Members
Japan Seamen's Union	104,306
All-Japan General Federation of Labour	94,926
Japan Longshoremen's Union	16,488
Seamen's Association	13,086
Japan Iron Labourers' Union	12,500
Japan General League of Labour	6,068
Tokyo Electric Company Workers' Union	2,450
Japan Federation of Ceramic Trade Unions	3,500
9 bodies Total	263,914

The first meeting of the All-Japan Convention of Patriotic Trade Unions (Aikoku Rodo Kumiai Zenkoku Konwakwai) which was organized in April, 1936, by the union of all patriotic or nationalistic trade unions with reactionary ideas in general politics, was held at Tokyo on September 27, 1936. The meeting was carefully watched by the public as the Convention stands in opposition to the Japan Trade Union Council. With six planks in its platform "Propagation of the Japanese Spirit", "Demand for the Establishment of an Industry and Labour Council," "Institution of a Law for the Control of Industry and Labour," "A Thorough Industrial Service for the Country," "Nationalization of a Labour Festival peculiar to Japan" and "Unity of the War Front of Labourers and Farmers," the meeting proceeded under the leadership of President Tsunekichi Yamazaki. There were 168 delegates from the different member unions present. Among several reports, there was one which showed the attitude of the Convention towards the Government prohibition of the trade union movement in Government factories. The standing committee had requested the authorities to allow Government factory workers to enter patriotic trade unions only, but apparently in vain.

It passed 6 resolutions, the chief being, "Nationalization of Electric Power," "Request for the Organization of a New Patriotic Political Party" in opposition to the old social and democratic parties, and "Destruction of the People's War Front." They denounced present social and democratic thought as being mere imitation of the West and

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contrary to Japan's national constitution, and upheld a reorganization of all trade unions in the spirit of love for the country in the true Japanese spirit.

The Council is composed of 15 unions with an aggregate membership of 80,278. Its officials and member unions are as follows :

Officials :
Standing Committee,
Kyuzo Takayama, Nisaburo Nishiyama, Harufusa Ohashi, Kenji Tsuyukubo, Kisaburo Yao, Tsunekichi Yamazaki, Shizuma Yagasaki, Tokuju Niizuma.
Treasurer, Shuji Okubo
Secretary, Rikichi Minagawa

	Number of Members
Member Unions :	
Japan Industrial Labour Club	18,550
Tokyo Electric Company's Patriotic Alliance	1,500
New Japan Seamen's Union	9,750
Japan Labour Alliance	4,400
Patriotic Labour Farmer Society	2,600
Life Defence Alliance	1,780
Japan General Federation of Trade Unions	25,258
Longshoremen's Trade Union in Central Japan	1,090
Central District Committee of the All-Japan Convention of Patriotic Trade Unions	4,300
Great Japan Council of Trade Unions	4,700
Mikawa Patriotic Workers' Union League	1,800
Imperial Lumber Industry Righteous Research Society	800
Japan Sea Society	2,750
Patriotic Lumber Workers' Society	500
Tokyo " Hanao " Industry Union	500
15 unions Total	80,278

The 15th anniversary of the All-Japan Farmers' Union was celebrated at Osaka for 3 days September 7-9, 1936. This union, which was first organized by M. Sugimoto and T. Kagawa, has the oldest history of all farmers' unions in Japan and occupies the most important position in the trade union movement among farmers. A short history of farmers' union movement in different prefectures is published.

The general meeting was held on September 8, with 399 delegates present. The meeting passed resolutions requesting, (i) the institution of tenant and tenant union laws ; (ii) opposing the proposed increase of taxes that fall on the masses ; (iii) requesting the lowering of the price of electric power, (iv) declaring the intention of the union should be to obtain the security of farmers' living by (a) better tenant and farming conditions, (b) the securing of land for practical farmers and ousting of the landowners, (c) the improvement of land and farming technique and management so as to bring about better returns to farmers, (d) organizing an all-Japan farm workers union inviting tenant and half-landed farmers and farm labourers to belong, and finally, (e) establishing a new society through the activities of the All-Japan Farmers' Union in co-operation with city proletarians.

The president of the standing committee of ten is Motojiro Sugiyama and the chief-secretary is Minoru Ito. The number of members of the union is over 40,000.

The first general meeting of the Japan Industrial Labour Club (Nippon Sangyo Rodo Club) was held at Tokyo on October 24, 1936. The club was inaugurated in June, 1933, as a patriotic organization of trade unions on the principle of oneness of capital and labour and no class antagonism, but had had no opportunity of calling a general meeting before. At the meeting 647 representatives were present, and under the leadership of Kumazo Ishii they passed resolutions on the organization of a new patriotic political party and the establishment of an Industry and Labour Council, confirming similar decisions passed by the September meeting of the All-Japan Convention of Patriotic Trade Unions mentioned above, for this club is one of the strongest members of the Convention. The club is composed of 18 smaller unions with an aggregate membership of 18,550.

The tenth general meeting of the Japan General Federation of Trade Unions, another powerful member of the All-Japan Convention, held at Tokyo on November 15, 1936. This Federation had seceded from the Japan Trade Union Council in September, 1935, and entered the Convention, turning from liberalism to nationalism. The meeting passed 10 resolutions among which the most important was that regarding " the promotion of a political war front of patriotic trade unions." The officials of the Federation on the day of the meeting was as follows :

Officials :
President, Kyuzo Takayama
Vice-president, Bukichi Imai
Chief-secretary, Eiichi Mori

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Advisers, Kesaya Yamazaki, Chukichi Kaneko
Central Executive Committee, Fusaji Ohashi, Minekichi Takahashi, Keiji Takahashi and others.
Membership :
43 unions with an aggregate membership of 29,802.

The 3rd general meeting of the All-Japan Council of Trade Unions was held at Tokyo on November 15 and 16. Among trade unions in Japan this body is most inclined to the left, and is close to the Japan Trade Union Council, their slogans being, "Institution of a Trade Union Law," "Institution of a Labour Protection Law," "War for Higher Wages," "Union of Anti-Fascist Bodies," and "War against the Increase of the Tax Burden of the Masses." At the meeting Kanju Kato presided over the 190 representatives present, who expressed their hope to be united with the Social Mass Party in political matters and with the Japan Trade Union Council in trade union matters. The All-Japan Council of Trade Unions is composed of 42 unions and about 15,000 members. Present officials are :

President of the Central Executive Committee, Kanju Kato
Chief-secretary, Hideo Yamahana
Central Executive Committee, Minoru Takano, Toraichi Nanba, Shikaichi Yasuhira, and others.

Trade Unions in 1937 The activities of the labour movement in 1937 chiefly centred round a demand for higher wages in the face of the rapid rising tendency of commodity prices since the fall of 1936 and an opposition to the raising of the taxes affecting the masses.

The central committee meeting of the All Japan Federation of Labour which was held on January 11 passed a resolution "to begin a movement for increased wages by adoption of peaceful but positive measures," and despatched instructions to its member unions all over Japan on the course of action to be followed. The All-Japan Council of Trade Unions issued orders to its member unions with the same objective and all other trade unions followed suit with the result that a large number of labour disputes based on wage issue were recorded during the first half of the year. The demand was for raising wages from 10 to 30 per cent. Many of the employers showed a compromising attitude and the disputes ended for the time being with a rise of 5 to 15 per cent in wages. In the meantime the Social Mass Party, which is supported by the Japan Trade Union Council, scored a great victory in the general election of April 30, obtaining 928,000 votes (aginst 518,000 obtained at the last election) and sent 37 members (against the former 18) to the House of Representatives. The labour movement in the first half of the year made a good advance in both economic and political fields.

The second half, however, turned out to be bad because of the occurrence of the China incident. The emergency situation that followed demanded the co-operation of the entire nation. The expansion of industrial activities and the economic control by the Government put a stop to labour union disputes. The occasion was one which demanded sacrifice for the country and the labouring classes were to bear a large share of it A large number were called to the colours and sent to the front in China and a considerable amount of human power was mobilized for industries directly or indirectly connected with military operations. The social democratic labour unions changed their ideology, at first, to industrial co-operation with capital and then to nationalism; even the leftist unions showed a compromising attitude toward capital for industrial co-operation.

The Japan Trade Union Council held its 6th general meeting in Osaka on October 10, and declared, "At this period when our country is engaged in an international conflict in which she is throwing all her might our spirit of patriotism is deeply stirred and we cannot allow ourselves to think of our personal interests. The great mission before us is to give ourselves to the country and render our lobour inspired by the object of bringing about the general welfare of the entire nation. The Japan Trade Union Council will do its best by upholding these ideals before the labouring classes. . . . The Council is one of the most patriotic bodies in the country because it is a body organized by the masses who are engaged in actual toil for the advancement of the country," and promised its co-operation and service for the country as a representative federation of labour unions. When the Central League for National Spiritual Mobilization was organized the Japan Trade Union Council became a member and promised to give its positive support to the spiritual mobilization movement initiated by the Government, and des-

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patched, Bunji Suzuki, one of its leaders, to the United States as a people's ambassador for presenting Japan's case in the present conflict to the labour unions in that country.

The All Japan General Federation of Labour decided to make collections for raising a fund for soldiers and the bereaved families and to urge members to purchase the Patriotic Bonds issued by the Government by monthly instalments declaring, "as long as the present international conflict lasts we are confident that we shall find peaceful and just means for settling all disputes between capital and labour, and do not have to resort to strikes for settlement of our problems."

The old and new Japan Seamen's Unions which had been hostile to each other since their secession in May 1935, were united again into a single Union in March 1938, and seceded from the I. T. F. at Amsterdam in September, 1937.

The Social Mass Party has changed its ideology from class struggle to co-operation, and Isoo Abé, its chief leader, expressed his willingness to bring the Party in line with other national movements in order to cope with the present emergency situation. Kanichiro Kamei, a representative of the Party went to the length of declaring, in his speech in the House of Representatives in September 1937, that the Party did not stand for socialism. On October 15, 1937, the 6th national meeting of the Social Mass Party adopted a new platform which emphasized nationalism.

Arrest of Leftist Leaders The Police Bureau of the Home Department, issued orders to the Tokyo Metropolitan Police and other 17 prefectural police offices on December 15, and had some 400 leaders of the Japan Proletariat Party and the All-Japan Council of Trade Unions arrested. Among those arrested were such popular labour leaders as Kanju Kato, Kin Yamakawa, Tsunao Inomata, Gitaro Omori, and K. Arahata. The Party and the Council were ordered dissolved on December 22, 1937, on the ground that "the Japan Proletariat Party has, as its principal aim, the establishment of anti-Fascist people's front, the true aim of which is the mobilization of the masses toward communistic revolution and the changing of Japan's national character in accordance with Bolshevik principles," and that "the All-Japan Council of Trade Unions is the main support of the Japan Proletariat Party, the leaders being common to both, and seems to be still holding the revolutionary principles of the former labour unions in this country."

As to the nationalists, the Patriotic Labourer Farmer Society and the Japan Industrial Labour Club were amalgamated into one organization under the former name, on August 8, 1937, and the new society held its first national meeting on December 21, and announced that "the Society is a labour union which aims at the realization of Nipponism."

The advance of the nationalistic labour unions in the political field was in general unsuccessful in the first half of 1937, but a plan for organizing a new political party with the former political Reform Council at the centre, was carried out by the nationalists and the Nippon Kakushinto (Japan Reform Party) was organized on July 18 (vide The Japan Year Book, 1937, P. 173).

Birth of the Patriotic Industrial Association

The outstanding event in the annals of the trade union history in Japan was the birth of the Patriotic Industrial Association(Sangyo Hôkoku Kai) in 1938. The organization of the Association was first initiated by the Arbitration Society for the purpose of readjusting the relations between capital and labour in the time of emergency. A special commission in the Society recommended, early in 1938, the organization of such associations in factories and industrial establishment all over the country, and within a few months the number of the Patriotic Industrial Associations became so many that the Central Patriotic Industrial League was organized on July 30th. The Central League, then began a national campain for the spread of the principles of the association among the employers and workers in all kinds of factories and for the organization of the association in every one of them in all the districts of the country. On August 24, 1938, the Government decided to give a helping hand to the movement and issued an order, in the name of Vice-Minister of the Home and Welfare Departments, to encourage the organization of a patriotic trade union in every factory if possible. Thus the movement became semi-governmental and the number of the Patriotic Industrial Associations rapidly increased. In view of the necessity of national control, the leadership and supervision of the Associations was finally transfered from the Central Patriotic Industrial League to the Gov-

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ernment on April 24, 1939, and the National Federation of the Patriotic Industrial Associations was organized, while the Central League was reorganized so as to take the part of education and propaganda only.

According to the report published by the Government on July 20, 1939, the number of the associations reached 5,332 with a membership of 1,849,000. There is no doubt that the appearance of such patriotic trade unions will bear hard upon the existing trade unions and federations which are confronted with the danger of dissolution or scisson among members.

TRADE UNIONS

(Compiled by the Ministry of Welfare)

	Unions	Members	Total Number of Labourers	Union Percentage
1930	712	354,312	4,713,002	7.5
1931	818	368,975	4,729,436	7.9
1932	932	377,625	4,860,276	7.8
1933	942	384,613	5,126,719	7.5
1934	965	387,964	5,764,277	6.7
1935	993	408,662	5,906,589	6.7
1936	973	420,589	6,090,116	6.9
1937	837	395,290	6,422,333	6.1

Farmers' Unions Farmers' unions are changing from temporary to permanent organizations, and are steadily increasing in number. According to the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry in 1921 there were only 681 tenant-farmers' unions, and their growth is shown below. The number of landowners' unions correspondingly increased from 192 in the same span of time. Opposition between the two is apparently much wider in scope and deeper in nature.

FARMERS' UNIONS

	Landowners		Tenant-farmers		Landowners and Tenant-farmers	
	Unions	Members	Unions	Members	Unions	Members
1929	655	55,138	4,156	315,771	1,986	244,943
1930	640	53,278	4,208	301,436	1,980	247,880
1931	645	50,556	4,414	306,301	2,047	255,088
1932	662	50,454	4,650	296,839	2,098	258,613
1933	686	49,645	4,810	302,736	2,309	279,431
1934	633	48,836	4,390	276,246	2,219	271,434
1935	531	38,172	4,011	242,422	1,748	202,785
1936	513	35,703	3,915	229,209	2,878	254,907
1937	448	29,924	3,471	207,228	1,059	123,576

Consumers' Co-operative Movement

The condition of friendly societies among labourers in 1932-1936 was as follows (As to the cooperative societies of farmers see Chapter XIII, Agriculture.)

FRIENDLY SOCIETIES IN GOVERNMENT FACTORIES

(Amount in yen)

	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936
Membership	548,282	564,723	563,800	583,187	530,535
Income :					
Paid in, by members	16,808,180	17,741,302	18,230,827	19,087,113	20,035,612
by the Government	13,177,041	13,189,151	12,554,579	14,101,544	14,697,144
Others and Total	44,966,896	47,323,625	46,531,173	50,583,502	54,051,967
Disbursements :					
For deaths	2,950,665	2,973,018	3,124,125	3,282,930	3,349,952
For the disabled	3,641,628	1,406,067	1,311,389	1,474,393	608,388
For injuries and illness		1,311,389	2,549,539	2,516,020	4,970,463
Others and total	20,306,055	23,012,007	22,557,651	26,366,705	24,636,027

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FRIENDLY SOCIETIES IN PRIVATE FACTORIES

	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936
No. of Societies	3,334	3,394	3,340	3,588	4,179	4,225	4,502
Membership	503,998	486,160	559,834	569,820	685,164	769,049	817,444

CONSUMERS' CO-OPERATIVE SOCIETIES ORGANIZED BY LABOURERS IN CITY AREAS

(Amount in yen)

	1933	1934	1935	1936	1937
No. of Societies	177	190	178	184	182
Membership	199,281	212,091	221,994	238,962	265,155
Paid-up capital	2,633,021	2,508,405	2,367,070	2,542,980	3,192,741
Reserves	1,333,884	1,574,655	1,637,545	1,854,239	2,076,112
Loans	2,234,494	2,098,557	2,194,781	2,226,156	1,932,354
Profit	2,559,381	3,006,949	3,467,120	3,488,863	4,155,081
Loss	2,071,837	2,514,856	2,812,717	2,714,134	3,219,278
Balance	487,544	492,093	654,403	774,729	935,803

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CHAPTER XXXII

MEDICINE AND SANITATION

Introduction

Sanitary affairs of the country were placed under the supervision of the Sanitary Bureau, Home Department, until 1938 when the Bureau was transferred to the new Welfare Department, and divided into two bureaux of public hygiene and of disease prevention. The report for 1937 is, therefore, that of the old Sanitary Bureau. Sanitary establishments under the direct control of the Bureau are 6 health centres in 6 largest cities, the hygienic laboratory, the Institute of Nutrition, 3 national leprosaria, the National Tuberculosis Sanatorium, and the Institute for Infectious Diseases. Special committees or boards are the Committee for the Examination of Medical Practitioners, the Committee for the Examination of Dental Surgeons, the Committee for the Examination of Pharmacists, the Central Board of Health, the Board for the Investigation of the Japanese Pharmacopoeia, the Board for the Investigation of National Hygiene, the Opium Committee, and the National Parks Committee.

Health Preservation Work

Control of Foods and Beverages

Milk. In the following table are given the actual number at the end of 1937 of persons engaged in the milking, handling and selling or milking and selling, or handling and selling or selling of cow's milk, and of dairy firms, milk plants, and of milk-cows, as well as the quantities of milk produced during the same year :—

Persons engaged in milking, handling and selling of milk	4,799
	* 41
Persons engaged in milking and selling of milk	25,111
Persons engaged in handling and selling of milk	1,914
Persons engaged in selling of milk	3,862
Dairy firms	30,422
	* 41
Milk plants	6,445
	* 41
Number of milk-cows	107,878
	* 753
Quantity of milk produced	262,314,993 (Litres)
	*1,802,813
Quantity of milk handled	160,519,418
	*1,455,369

Note :—* Refers to special milk. Of 41 persons who were engaged in the milking, handling and selling of special milk, 36 had some other additional business, and of 160,519,418 litres of milk handled 118,372 litres was skimmed milk.

GOAT'S MILK

	1937	Compared with 1936
		(Litres)
Persons engaged in production and sale of goat's milk	606	39 (incr.)
Number of goat-milk dairies	614	51 (,,)
Number of milk-goats	6,482	446 (,,)
Quantity of goat's milk produced	1,575,766	282,977 (,,)

MILK-PRODUCTS

	1937	Compared with preceding year
	(kg.)	(kg.)
Condensed milk	1,406,212	75,054 (incr.)
Unsweetened condensed milk	866,303	168,598 (decr.)
Condensed skimmed milk	331,994	139,298 (incr.)
Powdered milk	117,530	92,164 (decr.)
Unsweetened powdered milk	130,581	21,553 (incr.)
Powdered skimmed milk	6,130	901 (,,)
Butter	715,423	605,348 (,,)

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Snow and Ice The number of traders in snow and ice (those who gather and sell natural ice, and those who manufacture ice artificially and sell it for the purpose of consumption) at the end of 1937 and the quantity of snow and ice gathered and manufactured during the year compared with the figures for the preceding year are given in the following table :—

	1937	Compared with 1936
Traders is snow and ice	1,636 persons	72 (decr.)
Artificial ice	2,699,039,119 kg	410,266,958 (incr.)
Natural ice	59,291,065 ,,	66,232,183 (decr.)
Snow	154,752 ,,	1,126,416 (,,)

Non-alcoholic Drinks The number of manufacturers of non-alcoholic drinks at the end of 1937 was 3,347 showing a decrease of 210 over the preceding year.

	1937	Compared with 1936
Mineral water and Plain Soda Water	668	16 (incr.)
Ramuné	1,835	43 (decr.)
Cider	1,542	39 (,,)
Lemonade (including Fruit water, Peppermint water and Cinnamon bark juice)	1,958	58 (,,)
Fruit Juice, Syrup and others	1,631	48 (,,)
Acid drinks made from milk or milk-products	230	23 (incr.)

The following table gives the quantity of non-alcoholic drinks manufactured in 1937:

	1937 (Litres)	Compared with the Preceding year
Mineral Water and Plain Soda Water	8,291,972	1,334,575 (decr.)
Ramunè	43,744,847	3,323,997 (incr.)
Cider	52,177,373	2,513,718 (,,)
Lemonade (including Fruit water, Peppermint and Cinnamon bark juice)	18,486,295	919,819 (,,)
Fruit Juice, Syrup and others	17,673,521	2,073,193 (,,)
Acid drinks made from milk or milk-products	2,752,981	620,383 (,,)
Total	143,126,989	8,114,535 (,,)

The total quantity of refreshing drinks as given above, when compared with the total population for the year, comes to 2.01 litres per inhabitant, showing a decrease of 0.09 litres compared with the preceding year.

Waterworks During the year from April, 1937 to March, 1938, sanction was given for the construction of waterworks in the following 34 localities:

*Shirikishinai village, Hokkaido; Hachinohe city, Aomori prefecture; *Watanami town, Miyagi prefecture; Onahama town, Fukushima prefecture; Ohta town, Gumma prefecture; *Yoshihama village, Kanagawa prefecture; Tsubame town, Niigata prefecture; *Hirao village, Nagano prefecture, *Sannomaru Waterworks Users Union (private), Gifu prefecture; *Kitakano village, Shizuoka prefecture; Mitani town, Aichi prefecture; *Tai waterworks Union (private), Kyoto prefecture; *Nariu Waterworks Union, (private) same prefecture; Ryuge village, Kami village, Ohtori town, Yao town, and Kashiwara town, Osaka prefecture, *Joto Waterworks Union same prefecture; *Naruo village, *Hanshin Waterworks Municipal Union, *Hanshin Express Electric Railway Company (private) (a portion of Muko village) and *Hanshin Express Electric Railway Company (private) (a portion of Sonoda village), Hyogo prefecture; Koriyama town, Nara prefecture; and *Osaka Electric Tramcar Company (private) same prefecture; *Ubeno village, *Gamo village, *Tago

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village, Tottori prefecture; *Juzo Minato and other three men's Union, Hiroshima prefecture (private), and *Habu town Waterworks Union (private), same prefecture; *Yobuko town Waterworks Union (private), Saga prefecture; *Mogi town, Nagasaki prefecture; Saganoseki town, Oita prefecture; *Sankasho village, Miyazaki prefecture.

Those places which obtained permission to construct waterworks may be classified as follows :

Undertaken by	No. of Waterworks to be constructed	No. of Waterworks Completed
Cities	120	117
Towns and Villages	405	368
Town or Village Association	6	6
	* 2	* 1
Prefecture	4	4

Undertaken by	No. of Waterworks to be constructed	No. of Waterworks Completed
Private parties	115	108
Total	625	604

Note :—Refers to those established by the city, town or village guild.

Sewerage During the year 1937, permission to construct sewers was given to three places, namely; Seto city, Aichi prefecture, Himeji city and Sumiyoshi village, Hyogo prefecture.

The places which had already obtained permission to construct sewers were 46 places, consisting of 39 cities, 6 towns and one village.

Removal of Foul Matter The following table gives a general idea of the removal of foul matter conducted in 1937 in 146 cities, under the provisions of the Law for the Removal of Foul Matter.

Number of houses within the districts in which removal of refuse was carried out		4,795,227
Removal from the above-mentioned houses	Refuses	3,390,450,442 kg
	Dirt	645,449,165 ,,
	Night-soil	14,027,551 kl
Average amount removed per house	Refuses	707.0 kg
	Dirt	134.6 ,,
	Night-soil	2.9 kl
Number of houses from which the holder of the land removed refuse under Art. XXI of the Regulation for Enforcement of the Law		150,559
Number of incineration plants		152
Amount of refuse burnt		1,879,692,200 kg
Water-closets with purifying equipments		17,877
Number of water-closets directly connected with the main under Art. 12 of the Regulations for the Enforcement of the City Building Law		68,817

Note:—(1) The number of houses, incineration plants and water closets was the same as that which existed at the end of 1937.
(2) The figures of night-soil given in the table represent only those for which city authorities are held responsible for its removal.
(3) Number of incineration plants does not include the provisions for burning in the open.

Slaughter-houses The total number of slaughter-houses at the end of 1937 was 714, of which 103 were established by cities, 381 by towns and villages, 43 by live-stock raisers' or industrial associations, 187 by private individuals. When compared with the figures of the preceding year, it shows an increase of 12 in city slaughter-houses, 1 in those established by towns and villages, and 5 in those of live-stock raisers' or industrial associations, and a decrease of 14 in those privately established. If these slaughter-houses are considered according to locality, it is found that the largest number is Hokkaido which has 65, followed by Kagoshima with 31, and the prefectures of Hyogo, Chiba, Niigata, Nagano, Tokyo, Fukushima, Ibaraki, Gumma, Okinawa, Iwaté, Shizuoka, Aichi, Hiroshima, Yamaguchi, Miyé, Shimané, and Oita have each from 15 to 25; the prefecture with the smallest number is Fukui with 5, and Tottori with 6 each, followed by Wakayama and Shiga with 7 each; Miyazaki, Nara, Ehimé, Gifu, Toyama and Aomori are also prefectures with but few slaughter-houses, each having not more than 10.

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Slaughtering The number of animals of various kinds slaughtered in 1937 for food purpose and its comparison with the figures for the preceding year are given here (those slaughtered in emergencies or for household use are not included) :

Kind of Animals	No. of Cattle slaughtered in 1937	Compared with 1936
Cattle	345,385 heads	52,225 (incr.)
Calves	43,661 „	10,421 „
Sheep	2,534 heads	1,037 (incr.)
Goats	4,207 „	152 „
Pigs	1,222,249 „	42,140 „
Horses	71,427 „	23,459 (decr.)

The following table gives the weight of meat yielded in 1937 by the slaughtered animals and a comparison of the yield with that of the preceding year :

	Total weight		Average weight per head	
	1937 kg	Compared with 1936 kg	1937 kg	Compared with 1936 kg
Cattle	64,523,122	8,978,802 (incr.)	186.82	2.65 (decr.)
Calves	2,647,629	932,709 („)	60.64	9.05 (incr.)
Sheep	46,927	18,269 („)	18.52	0.62 (decr.)
Goats	43,654	4,998 („)	10.38	0.85 (incr.)
Pigs	60,042,749	1,410,177 („)	49.12	0.56 (decr.)
Horses	10,497,131	3,211,382 (decr.)	146.96	2.49 (incr.)

The number of cases of emergency slaughter in 1937 (slaughtered outside slaughter-houses without formal steps being taken on account of injuries or helpless condition by accident, difficulty of delivery, puerperal anesthesia, or acute tympanities) was 1,453 of cattle, 61 of calves, 271 of pigs and 956 of horses and the number slaughtered in the same year for private use consisted of 342 calves, 141 sheep, 1,279 goats and 21,548 pigs.

Inspection of Imported Meat The total amount of meat imported in 1937 at the ports of Yokohama, Tsugaru, Osaka, Kobé, Ujina, Shimonoseki, Moji, Nagasaki and Izuhara was 13,086,484 kilogrammes, of which 3,519 kilogrammes were condemned. Compared with the preceding year, the amount of meat inspected increased by 3,876,669 kilogrammes, and condemned meat by 3,401 kilogrammes. Classified by the kinds of meat, it was as follows :

	The weight of meat inspected (in kg)	The weight of meat condemned (in kg)	Ratio of condemned meat (%)
Fresh Beef	368,557	—	—
Chilled Beef	7,244,483	3,519	0.49
Frozen Beef	5,384,240	—	—
Mutton	52,900	—	—
Goat meat	554	—	—
Horse meat	33,660	—	—
Pork	2,085	—	—
Total	13,086,484	3,519	0.27

Poisoning The total number of persons poisoned in 1937 was 12,666 (a decrease of 7,363 on the preceding year), of which 7,410 (58.50 per cent) were poisoned intentionally, 5,213 (41.16 per cent) by accident and 44 (0.34 per cent) through other's injuries; and of these persons poisoned 3,278 died, of which 2,924 were those poisoned intentionally, 332 those poisoned by accident, and 22 those poisoned by others, so that 39.41 per cent of those intentionally poisoned died, 6.41 per cent of those accidentally poisoned also died, and 55.16 per cent of those poisoned through other's injuries also succumbed. Of poisonous substance the most frequently used in intentional poisoning and poisoning through other's injuries are chemicals, especially a preparation containing phosphorus; accidental poisoning is mostly due to eating poisonous animals, plants or putrefied food.

Burials and Cremations The total number of burial-grounds at the end of 1937 was 975,682 and their total area was 23,405 hectare, making the average area of burial-ground 0.02 hectare, and the total number of crematoria at the end of the same year was 34,534, in which 707,164 bodies were cremated during the year, so that a crematorium burnt on an average 20.48 bodies. In the same year 608,329 bodies were buried uncremated so that those cremated came to 53.76 per cent and those buried uncremated to 46.24 per cent of the total number of burials, which, when

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compared with the percentage for the preceding year showed an increase of 1.84 per cent in those cremated.

Insane Persons The total number of insane persons at the end of 1937 was 90,753, showing an increase of 4,706 over the figures for the preceding year. Its ratio to the population of the country in that year was 12.74 per 10,000, which, compared with the preceding year, shows an increase of 0.49.

The following table gives the number of insane persons at the end of 1937, classified according to the places of their custody or confinement :

	Actual Numbers			Percentage		
	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total
Admitted into Insane Asylums under the Law concerning Asylums for the Insane	1,667	883	2,550	2.92	2.63	2.81
Admitted into Substitute Asylums under the same Law	4,127	2,420	6,547	7.22	7.20	7.21
	*2,147	*1,291	*3,438			
Under Custody in the Asylums or Hospitals	4,341	2,329	6,670	7.60	6.93	7.35
Under Custody in other places	5,858	1,350	7,208	10.25	4.02	7.94
Under Temporary Custody	94	28	122	0.16	0.08	0.14
Not requiring Admission or Custody	41,066	26,590	67,656	71.85	79.14	74.55
Total	57,153	33,600	90,753	100.00	100.00	100.00
	*2,147	*1,291	*3,438			

Note:—Figures marked with * refer to those who were under custody at places that may be included among the category of substitute asylum out of the figures just above the line.

Tuberculosis The following table shows the results of health examinations conducted in 1937 by the prefectural governments, in accordance with the provision of Art. IV, Clause I of the Law for the Prevention of Tuberculosis :

	1937	Compared with the preceding year
Estimated number of persons requiring health examination	1,596,010	207,089 (decr.)
Number of persons examined	1,252,114	190,644 („)
	*73,353	*48,434 („)
Number of persons diagnosed as tuberculosis patients	601	85 (incr.)
Ratio of the patients per 1,000 of the examined	0.45	0.16 („)
Number of persons ordered to suspend from work	90	11 („)

Note:—The figures marked with an asterisk are those for whom more than two examinations were made.

Trachoma The following table shows the result of examination conducted by the prefectural government during 1937, in accordance with provision of Art. 4, clause 1 of the Law for the Prevention of Trachoma :

	1937	Compared with preceding year.
Number of persons examined	6,522,554	633,192 (incr.)
	*703,782	*456,639 (decr.)
Number of trachoma cases:		
Severe cases	39,453	272 (incr.)
Mild cases	409,495	19,422 (decr.)
Suspected cases	123,549	1,669 („)
Total	572,497	20,819 („)

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	1937	Compared with preceding year.
Ratio of cases per 100 persons examined	7.92	0.50 („)
Number of patients ordered to refrain from work	207	39 („)

Note:—The figures marked with asterisk are those for whom more than two examinations were made.

Health Examination of Prostitutes The prostitute quarters actually existing at the end of 1937 (the term prostitute quarters does not here and hereinafter necessarily mean segregated quarters, but is also intended for convenience's sake to include all places where licensed prostitutes have been permitted to carry on their trade) numbered 392, being a decrease of 7 from the preceding year. The daily average during the year of licensed prostitutes in these quarters was 44,908, showing an increase of 788 over the preceding year.

The number of health-examination stations for these prostitutes was 368, showing a decrease of 7 from the preceding year, and the total number of examinations made in these stations was 2,770,427, showing an increase of 98,273 over the preceding year, and in 59,454 cases the prostitutes were found diseased. The ratio of cases of diseases to the total number examined was 2.15 per cent, i. e. 0.04 per cent lower than in the preceding year. The number of hospitals for admitting these diseased prostitutes (including places for treatment lacking hospital accommodations) was 138, and the average number of times a prostitute was admitted into hospital during the year was 1.32 and was same as the preceding year.

The percentage of prostitutes pronounced diseased among those examined for health was, if we examine the different prefectures, highest in Gifu prefecture (4.49%), followed by Shiga (4.32%), Osaka (3.38%), Okinawa (3.08%), Wakayama (2.91%), and Chiba (2.68%), while the lowest was in Ishikawa prefecture (0.30), followed by Iwaté (0.49%), Toyama (0.54%), Nagano (0.67%), Ibaraki and Niigata (0.81%), and Kumamoto (0.82%).

The following table gives the number, classified according to diseases, of prostitutes in the whole country who were during the year found to be diseased upon examination; when two or more diseases are found in the same person, the one which appears first in the table is taken to be the principal disease; thus for instance, if a person is suffering from both syphilis and gonorrhoea, she is taken to be infected with the former disease and the latter is added to the number in bracket under gonorrhoea (the percentage for the preceding four years are also given for comparison):

In-patients

	Actual Number, 1937	Percentage 1937	1936	1935	1934
Syphilis	467	16.54	21.42	15.83	16.41
Gonorrhoea	1,101 (65)	41.30	39.29	34.77	34.17
Chancroid	1,255 (62)	46.65	42.88	56.06	54.23
Total	2,823				

Out-patients

	Actual Number, 1937	Percentage 1937	1936	1935	1934
Syphilis	1,349	16.37	12.34	14.90	17.70
Gonorrhoea	5,356 (111)	66.35	66.57	73.21	68.11
Chancroid	1,535 (57)	19.32	23.30	14.32	16.35
Total	8,240				

Note:—In the percentage of cases of diseases, the diseases which are found in one and the same person are taken as separate cases, so that their total exceeds 100.

Cholera The total number of cases of cholera in 1937 was 57 with 20 deaths (no case occurred in the preceding year). The ratios of these cases and deaths to the population in the same year were 0.01 cases and 0.00 deaths per 10,000 inhabitants. Below are given prefectures where cases of cholera broke out:

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Prefecture	Cases	Deaths	No. of cases per 10,000 inhabitants
Hiroshima	40	15	0.22
Yamaguchi	10	3	0.08
Okayama	5	1	0.04
Tokyo	1	—	0.00
Hyogo	1	1	0.00

Of the above total number, 43 cases broke out in urban districts, and it represents 75.44% of the total number for the whole country. There were 18 deaths therefrom. The rate of above cases and deaths to the urban population was 0.02 cases and 0.01 deaths to 10,000 inhabitants.

Dysentery, Including Ekiri The total number of the cases of dysentery in 1937 was 78,284 and there were 18,427 deaths therefrom which, when compared with the figures for the preceding year, shows an increase of 26,209 cases and 2,687 deaths. The ratios of these cases and deaths to the population in the same year were 10.99 cases and 2.59 deaths per 10,000 inhabitants, showing, compared with the preceding year, an increase of 3.58 cases and 0.35 deaths.

Typhoid Fever The total number of cases of typhod fever in 1937 was 38,542 with 6,617 deaths, showing an increase of 1,604 cases and 150 deaths compared with the preceding year. The ratios of these cases and deaths to the population in the same year were 5.41 cases and 0.93 deaths per 10,000 inhabitants, showing, when compared with the preceding year, an increase of 0.15 cases and 0.01 deaths.

The total number of cases of typhoid fever reported for urban districts only, during the year was 18,909 which corresponds to 49.06 per cent of the cases for the whole country. Of the above number, there were 3,376 deaths.

The ratios of these cases and deaths per 10,000 of urban population was 7.53 and 1.34 respectively, showing, when compared with the preceding year, an increase of 0.24 while that for deaths remained stationary.

Paratyphoid Fever The total number of cases of paratyphoid fever in 1937 was 4,480, of which 292 ended fatally, showing, when compared with the preceding year's figures, a decrease of 295 cases and 1 deaths. The ratios of these cases and deaths to the population in the same year were 0.63 cases and 0.04 deaths per 10,000 inhabitants, which shows when compared with the preceding year, an increase of 0.05 cases while the death-rate remained unchanged.

The total number of cases of paratyphoid fever reported for urban districts only in 1937 was 2,065 which corresponds to 46.09 per cent of the total number of cases for the whole country, and the deaths therefrom numbered 123.

The ratios of cases and deaths per 10,000 of urban population was 0.82 and 0.05 respectively, showing, when compared with the preceding year, an increase of 0.02 cases, but with no change in death-rate.

Smallpox In 1937 the total number of cases was 90 with 6 deaths. Compared with the figures of the preceding year, there was a decrease of 88 cases and 23 deaths. The ratios of these cases and deaths to the total population in the same year were 0.01 cases and 0.00 deaths per 10,000 inhabitants. The largest number of cases occurred in Fukuoka prefecture, it being 25 cases with 1 death: in the other prefectures the number of cases was less than 24. (In 1936 there were 178 cases with 29 deaths). The total number of cases of smallpox in urban districts was 32 (2 deaths), corresponding to 35.56 per cent of the total number of cases for the whole country, and the ratio to 10,000 of urban population shows 0.01 cases and 0.00 deaths.

Typhus In 1937, total number of cases of typhus was 17, but there was no death. Compared with the preceding year, cases increased by 16, while deaths decreased by one. The ratio of these cases to the population in the same year was 0.00 per 10,000 inhabitants, being same as in the preceding year.

Scarlet Fever The total number of cases of scarlet fever in 1937 was 17,603 with 480 deaths, showing, when compared with the preceding year's figures an increase of 896 cases and a decrease of 7 deaths.

The ratios of these cases and deaths to the population in the same year were 2.47 cases and 0.07 deaths per 10,000 inhabitants. Compared with the preceding year, there was no change in both ratios.

Diphtheria The total number of cases of diphtheria in 1937 was 28,111 with 4,059 deaths, showing, when compared with the preceding year's figures, a decrease of 123 cases and 135 deaths.

The proportion of these cases and deaths to the population in the same year was 3.95 cases and 0.57 deaths per 10,000 inhabitants, showing, when compared with the preceding year, a decrease of 0.07 cases and 0.03 deaths.

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Epidemic Cerebrospinal Meningitis The total number of cases of epidemic cerebrospinal meningitis in 1937 was 839, of which 481 ended fatally, showing, when compared with the preceding year's figures, a decrease of 164 cases and 133 deaths. The proportion of these cases and deaths to the population in the same year was 0.12 cases and 0.07 deaths per 10,000 inhabitants, showing a decrease of 0.02 cases and 0.02 deaths on the preceding year.

Plague No cases of plague occurred in 1937.

The following table gives the situation of cholera and four other infectious diseases in the country during the fifty-five years since 1887:

FIFTY YEARS OF INFECTIOUS DISEASES

	Cholera		Dysentery		Typhoid Fever		Smallpox		Diphtheria	
	Cases per 10,000 Inhabitants	Deaths per 1,000 deaths from all causes	Cases per 10,000 Inhabitants	Deaths per 1,000 deaths from all causes	Cases per 10,000 Inhabitants	Deaths per 1,000 deaths from all causes	Cases per 10,000 Inhabitants	Deaths per 1,000 deaths from all causes	Cases per 10,000 Inhabitants	Deaths per 1,000 deaths from all causes
1887	0.31	0.87	4.09	5.65	12.01	13.02	10.07	13.22	0.69	1.90
1888	0.20	0.61	6.69	8.69	10.87	12.18	1.01	1.13	0.64	1.92
1889	0.18	0.53	5.62	7.30	8.81	10.54	0.33	0.40	0.66	1.83
1890	11.23	42.91	10.41	10.60	8.48	10.31	0.07	0.03	0.60	1.75
1891	2.70	9.10	11.23	13.15	10.65	11.28	0.87	0.85	0.83	2.32
1892	0.21	0.55	16.99	18.76	8.55	9.50	8.10	9.36	1.05	2.82
1893	0.15	0.39	39.78	44.11	8.10	8.74	9.96	12.66	1.36	3.42
1894	0.13	0.37	36.57	44.91	8.64	9.49	2.93	3.94	1.25	3.42
1895	12.81	43.49	12.24	18.68	8.60	9.83	0.30	0.31	1.42	3.54
1896	0.34	1.00	19.54	14.72	9.67	10.14	2.44	3.75	1.96	3.64
1897	0.20	0.56	20.54	26.49	6.07	6.69	9.46	14.03	3.49	6.38
1898	0.15	0.42	20.81	25.12	5.79	6.39	0.40	0.41	4.50	7.24
1899	0.19	0.53	24.59	25.82	6.26	7.01	0.27	0.27	4.76	7.24
1900	0.08	0.25	10.34	11.16	5.33	5.89	0.02	0.00	4.00	6.22
1901	0.02	0.07	10.97	11.68	5.33	5.80	0.02	0.00	3.29	5.03
1902	2.92	9.62	8.09	8.80	4.61	5.01	0.01	0.01	3.28	4.50
1903	0.03	0.10	6.50	7.74	4.04	4.61	0.02	0.01	2.99	4.48
1904	0.00	0.00	4.82	5.41	4.16	4.84	0.25	0.25	2.68	3.89
1905	—	—	7.93	8.57	4.78	5.25	0.06	0.00	2.77	3.86
1906	—	—	4.59	5.38	5.19	6.17	0.10	0.11	2.92	4.38
1907	0.74	2.48	5.08	5.85	5.29	5.59	0.21	0.43	3.01	4.22
1908	0.13	0.39	6.38	7.62	4.76	5.18	3.51	5.67	3.46	4.83
1909	0.07	0.02	5.61	6.22	5.03	4.97	0.01	0.00	3.63	4.65
1910	0.56	1.90	6.33	6.85	6.98	7.35	0.02	0.01	3.78	4.92
1911	0.00	0.00	5.37	5.51	6.68	6.26	0.04	0.03	3.93	4.79
1912	0.53	1.62	4.96	5.52	6.09	6.06	0.00	0.00	3.72	4.59
1913	0.01	0.02	3.20	3.59	5.29	5.30	0.02	0.04	3.65	4.88
1914	0.00	0.36	4.87	5.19	6.61	6.01	0.09	0.10	3.42	4.16
1915	—	—	3.88	3.99	6.70	6.52	0.00	0.00	3.62	4.31
1916	1.88	5.27	4.07	3.83	7.56	7.07	0.05	0.04	2.94	3.33
1917	0.16	0.45	2.67	2.63	6.28	6.05	0.91	0.97	3.12	3.65
1918	—	—	2.46	1.89	7.59	6.61	0.26	0.19	2.77	2.58
1919	0.52	2.09	2.30	1.98	9.72	6.92	0.72	0.57	2.54	2.30
1920	0.89	2.16	2.27	2.05	9.63	7.15	0.57	0.58	2.71	2.38
1921	0.01	0.01	2.19	2.28	8.83	8.25	0.16	0.16	2.56	2.72
1922	0.13	0.22	2.67	2.12	9.08	5.70	0.12	0.06	2.38	1.65
1923	0.00	0.00	3.47	5.53	9.00	8.53	0.33	0.29	2.18	2.33
1924	—	—	3.15	5.77	9.87	10.04	0.29	0.21	2.22	2.53
1925	0.10	0.31	2.46	5.49	7.66	7.51	0.07	0.07	2.32	2.79
1926	0.00	0.01	2.83	6.63	7.26	7.65	0.21	0.15	2.26	2.89
1927	0.00	0.00	3.49	7.81	6.12	6.04	0.06	0.08	2.48	3.04
1928	0.00	0.00	4.06	9.06	6.77	6.63	0.12	0.09	2.83	3.30
1929	0.03	0.09	4.81	10.02	5.93	5.94	0.02	0.01	3.13	3.60
1930	—	—	4.61	10.57	6.43	6.68	0.00	0.00	2.88	3.25
1931	—	—	4.54	9.93	5.85	6.12	0.00	0.00	3.23	3.54

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	Cholera		Dysentery		Typhoid Fever		Smallpox		Diphtheria	
	Cases per 10,000 Inhabitants	Deaths per 1,000 deaths from all causes	Cases per 10,000 Inhabitants	Deaths per 1,000 deaths from all causes	Cases per 10,000 Inhabitants	Deaths per 1,000 deaths from all causes	Cases per 10,000 Inhabitants	Deaths per 1,000 deaths from all causes	Cases per 10,000 Inhabitants	Deaths per 1,000 deaths from all causes
1932	—	—	4.86	10.95	5.36	5.53	0.05	0.04	3.30	3.71
1933	—	—	5.66	11.91	5.73	6.06	0.06	0.05	4.25	4.42
1934	—	—	6.30	11.98	6.25	6.26	0.05	0.03	4.42	4.12
1935	—	—	7.07	12.97	5.54	5.89	0.02	0.01	4.07	3.76
1936	—	—	7.41	12.79	5.26	5.26	0.03	0.02	4.02	3.41
1937	0.01	0.02	10.99	15.26	5.41	5.48	0.01	0.00	3.95	3.36

Note:—Among the number of dysentery cases since 1922 (October) includes ekiri.

Vaccination The total number of the 1st period vaccination performed in 1937 was 2,031,232, of which 1,908,237 proved positive and 66,372 negative while 56,623 were not examined for the result of vaccination. Compared with the figures of the preceding year, there was a decrease of 115,785 in the total number of vaccinations, of 117,082 in the number of positive vaccinations, and an increase of 5,223 in negative vaccinations, and again a decrease of 3,926 whose result was not examined.

The total number of the 2nd period vaccinations was 2,011,374, of which 1,215,149 proved positive, 765,489 negative while 30,736 were not examined of their result, showing, compared with the figures of the preceding year, a decrease of 36,268 in the total number vaccinated, and 40,903 in the positive takes, and an increase of 6,001 in the negative, and a decrease of 1,366 in the number of unexamined cases.

The following table gives the number of public and private vaccinations both for the first and second times in each period:

			1st Time Vaccination	2nd Time Vaccination
First Period	Public Vaccination	Positive	1,795,331	60,982
		Negative	46,323	16,742
		Not yet examined	51,340	5,283
		Total	1,892,994	83,007
	Private Vaccination	Positive	50,954	970
		Negative	2,589	718
		Total	53,543	1,688
Second Period	Public Vaccination	Positive	1,116,471	94,789
		Negative	478,241	284,230
		Not yet examined	24,876	5,860
		Total	1,619,588	384,879
	Private Vaccination	Positive	3,258	631
		Negative	2,102	916
		Total	5,360	1,547

The special vaccinations were carried out in 1937 in 36 prefectures, including Tokyo, Kyoto, Osaka and Miyagi, and the total number of persons vaccinated thereby was 4,204,400.

Port Quarantine The total number of vessels inspected in 1937 by harbour offices of the Custom Houses and by temporary port quarantine stations was 24,281 Japanese vessels (with a total tonnage of 84,695,271) and 5,978 foreign vessels (with a total tonnage of 37,856,396), making a total of 30,259 vessels (with a total tonnage of 122,551,667). The total number of persons inspected was 2,877,586, of which ships' crews numbered 1,657,126 and passengers 1,220,460. Compared with the corresponding figures of the preceding year, the number of vessels increased by 1,467 and that of crew and passengers by 187,808. By these inspections were found 9 persons suffering from smallpox, 3 persons from cholera and 81 from other notifiable infectious diseases, making a total of 93 cases. Compared with the preceding year, this shows an increase of 12 cases.

Of the above mentioned vessels inspected, 264 vessels and 5,777 persons thereon were subjected to disinfection. When compared with the preceding year, there was an increase of 250 vessels and 5,396 persons. The vessels subjected to detention numbered 93, being an increase of 84 when compared with the preceding year. The destruction of rats and insects was carried out on

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1,431 vessels and 7,409 rats were caught, which, compared with the preceding year, shows a decrease of 160 in the number of vessels and of 126 in that of rats.

Rabies In 1937, there was no case of rabies in men. The number of rabid dogs in 1937 was 5 reported in Tokyo prefecture showing an increase of 2 compared with the preceding year. (In 1937 there was no rabid animal other than dogs). The number of persons bitten by rabid dogs in 1937 was 3 in Tokyo prefecture, showing no change on the preceding year. The number of persons who had preventive injection for rabies in 1937 was 3,748, showing an increase of 601 on the preceding year. Of the above number, 3 were those who had been bitten by rabid dogs, and 3,745 by animals suspected of rabies.

Bacteriological Laboratories The number of bacteriological laboratories at the end of 1937 was 195, consisting of 145 established by prefectural governments, 24 by cities, 1 by towns and villages and 25 by private individuals, showing an increase of 2 in the total number on the preceding year.

If we examine the number of these laboratories according to locality, we find that Shizuoka prefecture had the largest number with 13, followed by Hyogo prefecture with 12, Osaka and Nagasaki prefectures with 9 each, Hokkaido, Miyagi, and Hiroshima prefectures with 7 each, Ibaraki, Yamaguchi, Fukuoka and Kumamoto with 6 each, while the rest of prefectures all had less than five.

The number of bacteriological examinations made by these laboratories in 1937 were 4,446,393, of which those connected with the notifiable infectious diseases were 3,859,920 and those not connected therewith 586,473, showing an increase of 878,998 in the total number of examinations on the figures of the preceding year.

Medical Affairs

Medical Practitioners The total number of medical licences issued in 1937 was 3,359 (besides, 17 to foreigners), showing an increase, compared with the preceding year, of 40 licences (the number issued to foreigners decreased by 2). In the following table is given the number of persons to whom licences were issued, classified and compared with the preceding year's figures:

	1937	Compared with preceding year
Graduates of universities	1,816	64 (incr.)
Completed course in Government or public colleges of medicine	260	32 („)
Completed course in approved private colleges of medicine	1,276	58 (decr.)
Completed course in foreign colleges (including examination)	7	2 (incr.)
Passed examination	—	— („)
Total	3,359	40 (incr.)

The total number of medical practitioners at the end of 1937 was 61,799 (besides 35 foreigners), showing an increase over the preceding year of 2,093 practitioners (an increase of 5 among foreigners). The following table gives the number of medical practitioners at the end of 1937 classified and in percentages (the percentages for the preceding four years are also given for comparison):

	At the end of 1937	Percentage 1937	1936	1935	1934	1933
Graduates of universities	21,699	35.11	33.67	32.69	30.96	29.51
Completed course in Government, public or approved private colleges of medicine	30,127	48.75	48.85	48.61	48.80	48.33
Completed course in foreign schools (including examination)	73	0.12	0.13	0.12	0.12	0.12
Passed examination	9,434	15.26	16.41	17.49	18.82	20.42
Licensed on account of official career	29	0.05	0.05	0.06	0.07	0.09
In practice from before promulgation of the Law of Medical Practitioners	389	0.63	0.78	0.90	1.08	1.36
In practice within limited districts	48	0.08	0.11	0.13	0.15	0.17
Total	61,799	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00

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Of the above total number, those actually engaged in the diagnosis and treatment of patients were 54,481, being 88.16 per cent of the total.

The total number of those medical practitioners who were actually engaged in the diagnosis and treatment of patients at the end of 1937 was at the rate of 7.65 practitioners per 10,000 inhabitants (1,308 in habitants per physician). Next, if we consider the ratio of practitioners per 10,000 inhabitants in the prefectures, we find the highest ratio in Kyoto prefecture which had 15.66 practitioners, followed by Tokyo with 14.24, Osaka and Ishikawa with 10.61 each, and Miyagi with 9.03. Aichi with 8.78, and Chiba with 8.28 and the prefecture with the smallest ratio was Okinawa which had 3.04, followed by Fukushima with 4.55, Ibaraki with 4.56, Yamagata with 4.80, Akita with 4.92, Gumma with 4.96 and Tochigi with 4.96.

As to the distribution of medical practitioners between urban and rural districts, there were 12.54 practitioners per 10,000 of population in the urban districts while the corresponding ratio was 4.98 for rural districts.

Dental Surgeons The total number of licences issued to dental surgeons in 1937 was 1,132, being a decrease of 63 when compared with the preceding year. In the following table is given the number of persons to whom the licences were issued in 1937, classified and compared with the preceding year's figures :

	1937	Compared with preceding year
Completed course in Government or approved private dental colleges	992	97 (decr.)
Completed course in foreign schools (including those who passed examination)	6	—
Passed examination	134	34 (incr.)
Total	1,132	63 (decr.)

The total number of dental surgeons at the end of 1937 was 22,072 (besides three foreigners), showing an increase over the preceding year of 1,005 (number of foreigners remained stationary); the following table gives the number classified and in percentage (the percentages for the preceding four years are also given for comparison):

	At the end of 1937	Percentage 1937	1936	1935	1934	1933
Completed course in Government or approved private dental colleges	12,231	59.94	57.97	56.00	53.62	50.82
Completed course in foreign schools (including examination)	79	0.36	0.35	0.40	0.41	0.43
Passed examination	8,760	39.69	41.67	43.59	45.95	48.72
In practice from the time before the promulgation of the Law of Dental Surgeons	2	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.02	0.03
Total	22,072	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00

Of the above number those who were actually engaged in practice numbered 20,187 which corresponds to 91.46 per cent of the total number of dental surgeons.

The total number of those dental surgeons who were actually in practice was at the rate of 2.83 per 10,000 of the population, and if we examine the ratio of the dental surgeons in prefectures, we find that the highest ratio was that of Tokyo prefecture with 6.21 per 10,000 inhabitants, followed by Osaka with 3.69, Kanagawa with 3.39 Aichi with 3.33, Fukuoka with 3.24, Kyoto with 3.14 and; the lowest ratio was that of Okinawa which was 0.70, followed by Iwaté with 1.29, Kagoshima with 1.44, Yamagata with 1.53, Toyama with 1.56, and Akita with 1.64.

As to the distribution of dental surgeons in cities and districts of the country the ratio was 4.85 for cities and 1.74 for districts per 10,000 inhabitants.

At the end of 1937, besides the above mentioned number of dental surgeons, there were 86 medical practitioners who specialized in dentistry.

Administrative Penalties upon Dental Surgeons In 1937, there were 8 dental surgeons upon whom administrative penalties were inflicted, and the penalties were the following :

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Suspension of dental practice for	
2 months	1 persons
1 month	6 persons

(There was no case of licence cancelled).

Pharmacists The total number of pharmacists' licences issued in 1937 was 1,853, showing an increase when compared with the preceding year, of 208 licences. In the following table is given the number of persons to whom licences were issued in 1937, classified and compared with the preceding year's figures :

	1937	Compared with preceding year
Graduates of universities	52	34 (incr.)
Completed course in Government or public colleges of pharmacology	*483	117 („)
Completed course in approved private school of pharmacology	1,269	78 („)
Completed course in foreign school (including examination)	3	— (—)
Passed examination	46	21 (decr.)
Total	1,853	208 (incr.)

Note:—*Including the graduates from pharmacological departments attached to government or public medical universities.

The total number of pharmacists at the end of 1937 was 28,156 (besides 1 foreigner), showing an increase, compared with the preceding year's figures, of 1,424 (the number of foreigners remained stationary) ; and the following table gives the number classified and in percentage (the percentages for the preceding four years are also given for comparison) :

	No. at the end of 1937	Percentage 1937	1936	1935	1934	1933
Graduated from universities	363	1.29	1.26	1.22	1.23	1.32
Completed course in government, or public or private (designated) colleges of pharmacology	*17,212	61.13	58.71	56.34	53.26	50.02
Completed course in foreign school (including examinations)	33	33	0.12	0.13	0.13	0.14
Passed examination (including examination under former regulations)	10,548	37.46	39.91	42.31	45.38	48.52
Total	28,156	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00

Note:—*indicates graduates from pharmacological departments of the government or public medical colleges or from the pharmacological departments attached to the government or public medical universities.

Of these pharmacists, (1) the number of practising pharmacists (those who were engaged in the dispensing of medicines in the pharmacy, those who were engaged in the sale of medicines and those who were engaged in the manufacture of medicines) was 18,214 (2) the number of those who being employed by hospitals or other dispensaries, were engaged in the dispensing of medicines was 3,152 and (3) those who were exclusively engaged in the sale of patent medicines numbered 1,-712. Those coming under (1) correspond to 64.49 per cent of the total number of pharmacists while (2) and (3) represented 11.19 and 6.08 per cent respectively.

Pharmacies and Traders in Medicines Pharmacies. The number of pharmacies at the end of 1937 was 13,066, of which 12,759 were run by pharmacists and 307 by non-pharmacists, showing an increase, when compared with the preceding year, of 331 pharmacies run by the pharmacist and 90 pharmacies managed by non-pharmacists.

Traders in Medicines. The total number of persons engaged in the sale of medicines at the end of 1937 was 30,-922, showing an increase of 284 persons over the preceding year ; among them, the qualified pharmacists who were engaged in the sale of medicines without

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opening pharmacies numbered 735 and druggists 30,187. Of these druggists those who were qualified to deal in designated medicines numbered 4,326, of which those employing pharmacists were 2,338, those coming under the provisions of Art. XXXVII, Item 4 of the "Regulations for the Trade in Medicines and the Handling Thereof" were 79 and those coming under the second clause of the supplementary provisions of the same regulations were 1,909.

Medicine-Manufacturers. The total number of medicine-manufacturers at the end of 1937 was 4,074, being a decrease of 144 over the preceding year. Of these manufactures 1,123 were pharmacists, 1,300 those who employ pharmacists, and 1,651 neither pharmacists nor those employing pharmacists.

Midwives The total number of midwives at the end of 1937 was 61,732 (besides two foreigners), showing an increase of 765 (no change in the number of foreigners) over the preceding year; they may be classified into 5,740 persons who completed the course in designated schools or training institutes, 53,091 who passed the examination, and 2,493 who have been in practice from time prior to the operation of the Midwives Regulations, and 407 who practise in limited districts.

Distribution of Midwives The total number of midwives was at the ratio of 8.66 per 10,000 inhabitants, being a decrease of 0.02 from the preceding year; as to the distribution of midwives between urban and rural districts of the country, the ratio was 11.01 in the urban districts and 7.39 in the rural districts per 10,000 inhabitants, showing, when compared with the ratio in the preceding year, a decrease of 0.37 in the urban districts and an increase of 0.08 in the rural districts.

Nurses The total number at the end of 1937 of nurses who had obtained licence from the prefectural offices was 124,402 (of which 4,553 were under-nurses) showing an increase of 10,415 over the preceding year (the number of under-nurses increased by 709). The ratio of the above total number to 10,000 of population was 17.46, showing an increase of 1.24 over the corresponding figures of the preceding year.

The number of male nurses at the end of 1937 to whom licences had been issued by the prefectural offices was 295, showing an increase of 50 over the figures of the preceding year.

Acupuncture, Moxicautery, and Shampooing The following table gives the number of persons engaged in acupuncture, moxicautery, and shampooing whose licences had been issued by the prefectural offices at the end of 1937.

	Not Blind			Blind		
	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total
Acupuncture	2,597	575	3,172	1,381	315	1,696
	*16,429	*3,003	*19,432	*10,213	*2,228	*12,441
Moxicautery	3,179	866	4,045	675	165	840
	*16,436	*3,157	*19,593	*7,565	*1,577	*9,142
Shampooing	6,507	3,810	10,317	14,596	9,087	23,683
	*13,336	*4,979	*18,315	*22,541	*10,852	*33,393
Acupuncture and Moxicautery	7,555	1,364	8,919	1,346	264	1,610
Acupuncture and Shampooing	1,127	242	1,369	2,401	617	3,018
Moxicautery and Shampooing	552	105	657	459	116	575
Acupuncture, Moxicautery and Shampooing	5,150	822	5,972	5,085	1,032	6,117
Total	26,667	7,784	34,451	25,943	11,596	37,539

Judo treatment for contusion 2,155 (for the whole country) including 6 women.

Note:—Figures marked with * includes those persons who carry out additional calling than that given in the heading.

Public Hospitals (Charity Hospitals, Tuberculosis Hospitals, Insane Asylums, Leprosaria, Infectious Diseases Hospitals, and Hospitals for Prostitutes excluded). At the end of 1937 there were 125 public hospitals, showing an increase of 10 hospitals over the preceding year.

Accommodation for patients	In cities	In towns	In villages	Total
More than 10	11	18	7	36
,, 30	9	10	1	20
,, 50	16	14	—	30
,, 100	37	2	—	39
Total	73	44	8	125

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In the following table are given the capacity for admitting patients and the number of patients admitted in 1937 to these hospitals :

Patient Admitting Capacity	11,548
Of the above Capacity:	
For infectious diseases	802
„ tuberculosis	327
Number of Patients:	
Remaining from the preceding year	4,937
Admitted this year	119,512
Discharged	108,771
Died in hospital	9,747
At the end of the year	5,931
Aggregate number of in-patients treated each day	2,832,178
Average capacity per hospital	92.38
Average number of in-patients per hospital	995.59
Average number of days a patient stayed in hospital	22.76

Private Hospitals (Charity Hospitals, Tuberculosis Hospitals, Insane Asylums and Leprosaria excluded). The total number of private hospitals at the end of 1937 was 2,907 (of which 95 had been established by the public juridical persons and 8 by foreigners), which when compared with the figures for the preceding year, shows an increase of 20 hospitals.

The following table gives the number of these hospitals in urban and rural districts according to their capacity of admitting patients :

	Cities	Towns	Villages	Total
With capacity for more than 10	1,387	593	187	2,167
„ „ „ „ „ 30	263	117	37	417
„ „ „ „ „ 50	135	47	26	208
„ „ „ „ „ 100	95	15	5	115
Total	1,880	772	255	2,907

In the following table are given the number of private hospitals classified according to the diseases they treat :

	Cities	Towns	Villages	Total
General	849	583	183	1,615
Medicine	207	63	21	291
Surgery	213	40	16	269
Paediatrics	63	4	—	67
Ophthalmology	111	43	25	179
Obstetrics and Gynaecology	206	49	15	270
Dermatology and Venereal and Genito-urinary Diseases	77	3	2	82
Otorhinolaryngology	93	12	3	108
Dental surgery	1	—	—	1
Others	5	—	—	5
Total	1,825	797	265	2,887

In the following table are given the figures in connection with capacity of admitting patients and the number of patients etc. in the private hospitals :

Capacity	85,501
Of the above:	
For Infectious Diseases	4,550
„ Tuberculosis	3,040
Number of In-patients:	
Remaining from the preceding year	32,594
Admitted in 1936	672,742
Left the Hospital	634,535
Died in Hospital	38,828
At the end of 1936	31,973
Aggregate number of In-patients treated each day	12,532,114
Average capacity per hospital	29.41
Average number of in-patients per hospital	242.63
Average number of days in hospital of a patient	17.77

Charity Hospitals (Tuberculosis Hospitals, Leprosaria and Insane Asylums excluded). The total number of public and private charity hospitals at the end of 1937 was 46, of which 11 were public and 35 private hospitals, showing, compared with the preceding year, an increase of 1 public hospital and 8 private hospitals.

The following table gives the capa-

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city and the number of patients who entered them in 1937.

Admitting Capacity	7,314
Number of In-patients:	
Remaining from the preceding year	2,787
	*133
Average capacity per hospital	80.74
Average number of in-patients per hospital	824.11
Average number of days in hospital of a patient	31.74
Admitted in 1937	29,604
	*5,385
Left the Hospital	25,708
	*5,059
Died in Hospital	3,866
	*266
At the end of 1937	2,817
	*193
Aggregate number of In-patients treated each day	1,124,787
	*78,490
Percentage of paying patients	14.56%

Note:—*indicates the number of paying patients.

Insane Asylums The total number of public and private insane asylums at the end of 1937 was 151, consisting of 12 public and 139 private asylums, showing an increase over the preceding year of one public and four private asylums.

The following table gives their admitting capacity and the number of patients who entered them in 1937.

Admitting capacity	21,325
Number of In-patients:	
Remaining from the preceding year	2,307
	*13,752
Admitted in 1937	1,720
	*1,588
Left the Asylum	9,927
	*7,617
Died in Asylum	1,617
	*1,588
At the end of 1937	9,927
	*7,617
Aggregate number of In-patients treated each day	3,237,544
	*3,137,413
Average capacity per Asylum	141.23
Average number of in-patients per Asylum	244.44
Average number of days in Asylum of a patient	172.71
Percentage of paying patients	62.20%

*indicates the number of paying patients.

Tuberculosis Hospitals The number of government, public and private tuberculosis hospitals at the end of 1937 were one Governmental, 30 public and 85 private hospitals, (four of which had been established by foreigners), showing an increase of one government, three public and two private hospitals compared with preceding year.

The followng table gives the admitting capacity and the number of patients who entered them in 1937.

Admitting Capacity	5,887
Number of In-patients:	
Remaining from the preceding year	6,104
	*11
Admitted in 1937	1,536
	*5
Left the Hospital	679
	*2
Died in Hospital	412
	*1
At the end of 1937	6,549
	*13
Aggregate number of In-patients treated each day	2,345,683
	*4,103
Average capacity per hospital	392.47
Average number of in-patients per hospital	510.40
Average number of days in hospital of a patient	306.92
Percentage of paying patients	0.21%

*indicates the number of paying patients.

Leprosaria The total number of the Government, public and private leprosaria at the end of 1937 was 15 (one of which had been established by foreigners), consisting of four Government, four public and seven private leprosaria. If we examine those leprosaria according to locality, we find that three were in Kumamoto, two each in Gumma and Tokyo prefectures and one each in Aomori, Yamanashi, Shizuoka, Okayama, Kagawa, Fukuoka, Kagoshima and Okinawa prefectures. The following table gives the admitting capacity and the number of patients who entered them in 1937.

Admitting Capacity	5,887
Number of In-patients:	
Remaining from the preceding year	6,104
	*11
Admitted in 1937	1,536
	*5
Left the Leprosarium	679
	*2

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Died in Leprosarium	412
	*1
At the end of 1937	6,549
	*13
Aggregate number of In-patients treated each day	2,345,633
	*4,103
Average capacity per leprosarium	392.47
Average number of in-patients per leprosarium	510.40
Average number of days in leprosarium of a patient	306.92
Percentage of paying patients	0.21%

*indicates the number of patients who bear the whole or a part of their expenses.

The following are the figures concerning the national leprosaria of "Nagashima Aiseien," "Kuryu Rakusenen," "Hoshizuka Keiaien" and "Miyako-Ryoyojo":

	Nagashima Aiseien	Kuryu Rakusenen	Hoshizuka Keiaien	Miyako Ryoyojo
Capacity of admitting patients	1,200	300	300	100
Number of In-patients:				
Remaining from the preceding year	1,212	351	413	161
Admitted in 1937	353	144	150	81
Discharged	147	41	86	14
Died	80	21	33	11
At the end of 1937	1,338	433	444	217
Aggregate number of in-patients treated each day	464,330	150,682	153,121	68,912
Average number of days a patient stayed in leprosarium	296.70	304.41	271.97	284.76

Hospitals for Prostitutes At the end of 1937 there were 117 hospitals for prostitutes and the total capacity for them was 4,933 (of which 14 were the infectious diseases rooms). Compared with the preceding year, there was a decrease of 3 in the number of hospitals and of 133 in admitting capacity. The number of patients who had remained over from the preceding year in the hospitals was 1,362 and those who entered them in 1937, 53,622 making a total of 54,984 (of which 378 were clandestine prostitutes admitted under the provisions of Art. III of the Administrative Execution Law).

The following table gives important ratios respecting facts connected with the above-mentioned hospitals for prostitutes:

Average capacity per hospital	42.16 patients
Average number of patients admitted per hospital	469.95 "
Average number of days a patient remained in hospital	17.51 days
Average number of days a clandestine prostitute remained in hospital	26.74 "

Infectious Diseases Hospitals, Isolation Wards, and Isolation Houses (Established under the provision of the Law for the Prevention of Infectious Diseases). The total number of infectious diseases hospitals at the end of 1937 was 1,010, (a decrease of 30 hospitals from the preceding year), consisting of 119 established by cities, 726 by towns, villages and other similar public corporations, and 165 established by town or village associations or other similar associations. The admitting capacity of these hospitals was 23,255 in total (a decrease of 128 from the preceding year), making an average of 23.02 per hospital (an increase of 0.54).

The isolation wards at the end of the same year numbered 7,044, (a decrease of 203 from the preceding year) consisting of 63 established by cities, 6,560 by towns, villages or similar public corporations, and 421 by the town or village associations or similar associations: and the admitting capacity in these isolation wards was 69,246 in total, (a decrease of 1,125 on the preceding year, the average per ward coming to 9.83 (an increase of 0.12).

The total number of isolation houses at the end of 1937 was 66, (a decrease of 3 from the preceding year) of which 8 were those established by cities, 56 by towns, villages or similar public corporations, 2 by the town or village associations or similar associations. The estimated total capacity of these isolation houses was 1,699 (a decrease of 59 from the preceding year) the average capacity per house coming to 25.74 per-

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sons (an increase of 0.26).

At the end of 1937, there were 47 disinfecting stations (established under the provision of the Law for the Prevention of Infectious Diseases), showing no change in their number with that of the preceding year.

Medicines The total number of persons who have reported in 1937 to the respective prefectural offices of the manufacture, importation and sale of medicines and preparations not to be found in any pharmacopoeia was 687 and the number of medicines reported 2,630, showing, compared with the preceding year, an increase of 15 persons and a decrease of 340 medicines.

In the tours of inspection made during 1937, 19,954 places (a decrease of 2,208 when compared with the preceding year) were visited; and the following table gives the places visited and the results of the inspection:

	No. of places visited	No. of places visited per 100 places to be visited	No. of deleterious medicines discovered per 100 places visited		No. of violators of the regulations punished per 100 places visited
			No. of places	No. of medicines	
Pharmacists { with pharmacy	3,821	29.95	25.75	49.46	1.15
Pharmacists { others	72	4.31	20.83	37.50	—
Non-pharmacists	47	15.31	19.15	36.17	2.13
Druggists	4,847	16.50	6.18	21.46	0.95
Medicine-manufacturers	505	13.48	9.70	13.27	0.40
Hospitals	734	20.15	32.70	68.26	0.54
Medical practitioners	6,958	18.90	36.98	73.64	0.45
Dental surgeons	2,608	13.31	18.71	26.88	0.50
Veterinary surgeons	362	7.72	18.78	35.91	1.55
Total	19,954	17.72	24.41	47.59	0.72

Patent Medicines The total number of patent medicine traders at the end of 1937 was 43,427, showing an increase of 684 compared with the figures of the preceding year. Of this total number, 12,617 were pharmacists, 3,370 medical practitioners and veterinary surgeons, 3,010 those persons who employ pharmacists, 16,784 those persons who come under Art. XXIV of the Patent Medicine Regulations and 7,570 those who come under Art. XXV of the same law, while there were 73 who were engaged exclusively in the importation and sale of patent medicines.

At the end of 1937 the total number of patent medicines for which permission for manufacture or importation was given was 387,510 (of which 171 were imported), showing an increase of 10,507 when compared with the figures of the preceding year, (permissions for importation decreased by 22).

Patent medicines manufactured or imported in 1937 amounted to ¥108,150,609 (of which ¥670,002 represents foreign imports and the territories), showing an increase of ¥13,613,817 which compared with the preceding year (the amount of importation increased by ¥102,426), and if we compare the amount of the manufacture and importation combined to the population in that year the ratio is ¥1.52 per capita, being an increase of 17 sen compared with the preceding year.

DEATHS BY CAUSES, 1937

Japan Proper

Causes of Deaths	Number		Proportion per 1.000 Deaths	
	1936	1937	1936	1937
1. Typhoid fever and Paratyphoid (Typhoid fever)	7,148 6,871	7,388 7,124	5.8 5.6	6.1 5.9
2. Eruptive typhus	3	1	0.0	0.0

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Causes of Deaths	Number		Proportion per 1,000 Deaths	
	1936	1937	1936	1937
3. Smallpox	20	8	0.0	0.0
4. Measles	5,264	10,389	4.3	9.0
5. Scarlet fever	467	454	0.4	0.4
6. Whooping cough	9,751	10,985	7.9	9.1
7. Diphtheria	4,332	4,253	3.5	3.5
8. Influenza	8,670	2,991	7.0	2.5
9. Dysentery and ekiri	16,721	19,726	13.6	16.3
(Dysentery)	3,594	4,694	2.9	3.9
10. Bubonic Plague	—	—	—	—
11. Tuberculosis, lungs and respiratory organs	107,157	104,982	87.1	86.9
12. Tuberculosis, other organs	38,003	39,638	30.9	32.8
13. Syphilis	5,536	5,241	4.5	4.3
14. Purulent infectious septicemia	9,433	9,500	7.7	7.9
15. Malaria	76	65	0.1	0.1
16. Intestinal Worms	2,047	2,255	1.7	1.9
17. Other epidemics and entozoic worms	9,909	10,110	8.0	8.4
18. Cancer and other malignant tumours	49,212	50,648	40.0	41.9
19. Other tumours	2,878	2,932	2.3	2.4
20. Acute articular rheumatism	616	655	0.5	0.5
21. Chronic rheumatism and gout	1,195	1,093	1.0	0.9
22. Diabetes mellitus	2,629	2,812	2.1	2.3
23. Vitamin deficiency	11,513	11,041	9.4	9.1
(Beriberi)	11,097	10,627	9.0	8.8
24. Disease of thyroid gland	433	414	0.3	0.3
25. Other whole body diseases	2,072	2,534	1.7	2.1
26. Anæmia	787	801	0.6	0.7
27. Blood diseases	2,150	2,103	1.8	1.7
28. Alcoholism	286	271	0.2	0.2
29. Other chronic poisoning	113	110	0.1	0.1
30. Meningitis	36,905	36,188	30.0	30.0
31. Myelitis	1,024	1,016	0.8	0.8
32. Cerebral Hœmorrhage, embolism and thrombosis	118,152	118,761	96.0	98.3
33. Paralysed dementia	2,420	2,716	2.0	2.2
34. Dementia prœcox and other mental diseases	3,413	3,447	2.8	2.8
35. Epilepsy	1,103	1,076	0.9	0.9
36. Other diseases of the nervous system	13,263	13,167	10.8	10.9
37. Diseases of eyes, ears, etc.	572	568	0.4	0.5
38. Pericarditis	761	710	0.6	0.7
39. Acute endocarditis	725	648	0.6	0.5
40. Chronic endocarditis, valvular disease	22,949	22,897	18.7	19.0
41. Diseases of heart sinews	2,879	2,872	2.3	2.4
42. Diseases of the coronary arteries and stricture of the heart	5,251	5,425	4.3	4.5
43. Other heart diseases	10,345	10,270	8.4	8.5
44. Aneurism	422	467	0.3	0.4
45. Arterio-sclerosis and gangrene	5,174	4,966	4.2	4.1
46. Other diseases of circulation organs	1,173	1,086	1.0	0.9
47. Bronchitis	26,120	24,030	21.2	19.9
(Acute bronchitis)	5,302	5,198	4.3	4.3
48. Pneumonia	112,204	108,256	91.2	89.6
49. Pleurisy	18,036	18,842	14.7	15.6
50. Other diseases of the respiratory organs	15,830	14,226	12.9	11.8
51. Ulcer of the stomach or duodenum	11,977	12,322	9.7	10.2
52. Diarrhœa and enteritis (under 2 years)	70,539	66,698	57.3	55.2
53. Diarrhœa, enteritis and ulcer of the entrails (above 2 years)	50,594	53,293	41.1	44.1
54. Appendicitis	2,553	2,695	2.1	2.2
55. Hernia and intestinal obstruction	5,618	5,417	4.6	4.5

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Causes of Deaths	Number		Proportion per 1,000 Deaths	
	1936	1937	1936	1937
56. Cirrhosis of the liver	4,887	4,912	4.0	4.1
57. Other diseases of the liver and gall-duct	8,134	8,445	6.6	7.0
58. Other diseases of the digestive organs	39,175	39,607	31.9	32.8
59. Nephritis	57,771	56,285	47.0	46.6
60. Other diseases of the kidney, and the ureter	3,258	3,339	2.7	2.8
61. Urinary calculus	173	182	0.1	0.1
62. Diseases of the bladder	1,187	1,121	1.0	0.9
63. Diseases of the urethra	163	146	0.1	0.1
64. Diseases of the prostrate	87	95	0.1	0.1
65. Diseases of the genitals	673	692	0.5	0.6
66. Accidents of pregnant women	569	507	0.5	0.4
67. Hœmorrhage at childbirth	1,241	1,268	1.0	1.0
68. Puerperal fever	1,314	1,307	1.1	1.1
69. Puerperal sepsis and toxemias of pregnancy	1,633	1,654	1.3	1.4
70. Other puerperal diseases	627	708	0.5	0.6
71. Diseases of the skin and connective tissue	3,350	3,358	2.7	2.8
72. Diseases of bones and motor organs	2,260	2,136	1.8	1.8
73. Congenital malformation	4,308	4,295	3.5	3.6
74. Congenital debility (under 1 year)	67,986	63,387	55.3	52.5
75. Premature parturition	6,328	5,929	5.1	4.9
76. Accidents of childbirth	407	441	0.3	0.4
77. Diseases peculiar to early infancy	10,526	9,645	8.6	8.0
78. Senility	91,936	84,766	74.7	70.2
79. Suicide	15,423	14,295	12.5	11.8
80. Killed	468	450	0.4	0.4
81. Accidental death	*29,974	30,011	24.4	24.8
82. Other violent death	106	84	0.1	0.1
83. Death in battle	—	—	—	—
84. Capital punishment	26	26	0.0	0.0
85. Doubtful diseases and causes	*37,865	32,849	30.8	27.2
Total	*1,230,278	1,207,899	1,000.0	1,000.0

Note : The figures marked with asterisk include both sexes which are indistinctive.

DEATHS CLASSIFIED BY AGE AND CAUSES, 1937

Japan Proper

The cause of death	Total	0-4					
		Total	0	1	2	3	4
Total	1,207,899	386,506	230,701	72,991	38,995	26,005	17,854
Infectious and parasitic diseases	228,486	56,109	20,725	12,440	9,422	7,676	5,846
Cancer and other malignant tumours	53,580	381	145	70	71	57	38
Rheumatic diseases, diseases due to deficiency of vitamin, Diseases of thyroid and parathyroid glands, and other constitutional diseases	18,549	8,404	6,244	751	580	475	354
Diseases of the blood and blood forming organs	2,904	648	299	146	64	70	69
Alcoholism and other chronic poisoning	381	14	5	4	2	2	1
Diseases of the nervous system and sense organs	176,939	27,770	12,299	5,634	4,209	3,242	2,386
Diseases of the circulatory system	49,341	1,630	727	355	194	172	182
Diseases of the respiratory system	165,354	85,250	51,133	20,884	7,349	3,615	2,269
Diseases of the digestive system	193,389	96,664	43,074	27,828	13,189	7,902	4,671
Diseases of urinary and genital organs	61,860	5,847	1,796	953	1,180	1,111	807
Diseases of pregnancy and childbirth	5,444	—	—	—	—	—	—

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The cause of death	Total	Total	0-4				
			0	1	2	3	4
Diseases of the skin and cellular tissue	3,358	1,517	1,210	209	59	31	8
Diseases of the bones and organs of locomotion	2,136	406	252	63	31	23	37
Congenital Malformations	4,295	4,000	3,487	293	111	66	43
Diseases peculiar to early infancy	79,402	79,402	79,402	—	—	—	—
Senility	84,766	—	—	—	—	—	—
Suicide, violence, accidents and others	44,866	7,356	1,327	2,153	1,869	1,149	858
Cause of death not specified or ill defined	32,849	11,108	8,576	1,208	625	414	285

The cause of death	5-9	10-14	15-19	20-24	15-29
Total	35,367	25,280	56,686	59,173	46,939
Infectious and parasitic diseases	11,377	10,741	32,251	32,556	23,215
Cancer and other malignant tumours	152	152	192	313	603
Rheumatic diseases, diseases due to deficiency of vitamin, diseases of thyroid and parathyroid glands, and other constitutional diseases	474	419	1,096	989	724
Diseases of the blood and blood forming organs	208	175	168	166	175
Alcoholism and other chronic poisoning	3	1	4	17	29
Diseases of the nervous system and sense organs	5,093	2,687	3,031	2,720	2,646
Diseases of the circulatory system	813	1,078	1,423	1,426	1,539
Diseases of the respiratory system	4,408	2,923	6,341	6,507	5,142
Diseases of the digestive system	6,730	3,731	5,807	5,322	4,507
Diseases of urinary and genital organs	2,163	1,230	1,503	1,910	1,861
Diseases of pregnancy and childbirth	—	—	182	945	1,208
Diseases of the skin and cellular tissue	74	36	87	107	94
Diseases of the bones and organs of locomotion	181	202	124	144	116
Congenital Malformations	102	69	53	24	12
Diseases peculiar to early infancy	—	—	—	—	—
Senility	—	—	—	—	—
Suicide, violence, accidents and others	2,865	1,290	3,645	4,860	3,794
Cause of death not specified or ill defined	724	546	779	1,167	1,274

The cause of death	30-34	35-39	40-44	45-49	50-54	55-59
Total	35,441	34,693	33,155	37,006	46,081	59,764
Infectious and parasitic diseases	14,417	10,683	7,775	6,648	5,926	5,598
Cancer and other malignant tumours	1,149	2,091	2,998	4,598	6,317	8,537
Rheumatic diseases, diseases due to deficiency of vitamin, diseases of thyroid and parathyroid glands, and other constitutional diseases	565	579	531	564	706	845
Diseases of the blood and blood forming organs	168	192	168	156	173	152
Alcoholism and other chronic poisoning	22	34	48	35	45	49
Diseases of the nervous system and sense organs	2,803	3,860	5,107	7,297	11,012	15,796
Diseases of the circulatory system	1,459	1,946	2,125	2,711	3,739	4,982
Diseases of the respiratory system	3,750	3,494	3,250	3,632	4,467	6,179
Diseases of the digestive system	3,764	3,970	4,228	4,839	6,286	8,535
Diseases of urinary and genital organs	1,925	2,304	2,343	2,659	3,415	4,676
Diseases of pregnancy and childbirth	1,143	1,250	640	75	1	
Diseases of the skin and cellular tissue	100	121	130	148	153	175
Diseases of the bones and organs of locomotion	87	106	81	100	96	103
Congenital Malformations	6	3	4	6	2	4
Senility	—	—	—	—	—	—
Suicide, violence, accidents and others	2,856	2,572	2,231	2,102	2,028	2,052
Cause of death not specified or ill defined	1,227	1,488	1,496	1,436	1,715	2,084

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The cause of death	60–64	65–69	70–79	80–89	90 and above	Doubtful
Total	70,403	70,046	138,048	67,399	5,838	74
Infectious and parasitic diseases	4,415	2,950	3,082	704	39	5
Cancer and other malignant tumours	9,228	7,397	8,137	1,308	27	—
Rheumatic diseases, diseases due to deficiency of vitamin, diseases of thyroid and parathyroid glands, and other constitutional diseases	925	721	859	141	5	2
Diseases of the blood and blood forming organs	153	99	84	17	2	—
Alcoholism and other chronic poisoning	38	19	22	1	—	—
Diseases of the nervous system and sense organs	20,328	20,901	35,041	10,385	452	8
Diseases of the circulatory system	6,184	5,911	9,388	2,827	160	—
Diseases of the respiratory system	7,276	7,060	11,751	3,715	205	4
Diseases of the digestive system	9,290	8,548	14,898	5,873	396	1
Diseases of urinary and genital organs	5,984	6,437	12,497	4,794	309	3
Diseases of pregnancy and childbirth						
Diseases of the skin and cellular tissue	179	141	227	68	1	—
Diseases of the bones and organs of locomotion	134	91	126	38	1	—
Congenital Malformations	6	—	4	—	—	—
Senility	2,471	6,476	39,378	35,347	4,092	2
Suicide, violence, accidents and others	1,899	1,608	2,689	930	49	40
Cause of death not specified or ill defined	1,893	1,687	2,865	1,251	100	9

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CHAPTER XXXIII

PROGRESS OF SCIENCE

Geology and Geography

On Some Features of the Meeting of Arcs in the Japanese Archipelago

By Katumi Motizuki

Professor of Geology, Fourth Higher School, Kanazawa. (Communicated by T. Tsujimura.)

Introductory The Japanese festoon islands, lying between the continent of Asia and the Pacific Ocean, consist of several arcs. They are divided into the following:

(1) The Taiwan (Formosa) arc which continues from Taiwan southward.

(2) The Koreo-Ryukyu arc consisting of the Ryukyu Islands, Kyushu, and Korea.

(3) The Honshu arc: Kyushu, Honshu proper, Hokkaido, and Sakhalin.

(4) The Chishima (Kurile) arc: Hokkaido, the Chishima Islands, and Russian Kamtchatka.

(5) The Shichito-Mariana arc: the Shichito, Bonin, and Mariana Islands.

A short explanation about some of them is thought to be necessary. Korea has so far generally been excepted from the continuation of the Ryukyu arc, but the form of Korea is undoubtedly due to the younger orogenic movement that established the gigantic Koreo-Ryukyu arc. The Honshu arc has been usually treated as two arcs from the geological point of view: the South-western Japan and the North-eastern Japan. The present arc, however, has a very regular outline, the focus of which lies off the coast of the neighbourhood of Vladivostok; and the Hokkaido-Sakhalin system corresponds to a tangent extending northward from this arc. To bisect such an arc seems to us unnatural, at least morphologically speaking.

It is certain that these arcs were finished by the younger orogenic movements, the remnant of which is manifested to us in the earthquakes and volcanic phenomena of the present time. B. Koto gave the name "peri-Tung-hai (East China Sea) Movement" to the one which caused the Koreo-Ryukyu arc); the writer will use for the other arcs the following names: the "peri-Japan-Sea movement" for the Honshu arc, the "peri-Ochotsk movement" for the Chishima arc, and the "peri-Philippine-Sea movement" for the Shichito-Mariana arc.

Linking and Crossing of the Arcs The mode of connection in these arcs is not so simple. The connection of the Ryukyu and Honshu arcs has been recognized as linking or Flankenkettung. About the relation between the Honshu and Shichito-Mariana arcs, there has so far been no fixed opinion.

The middle portion of Honshu, corresponding to the boundary between the North-eastern and the South-western Japan, which have respectively different geological characters, was formerly the subject of vigorous controversy; E. Naumann notices that this part is occupied by a great depression grosser Graben der Bruchregion or "Fossa magna," and T. Harada recognizes that the two wings of Honshu arc meeting there in syntaxis. Lately S. Tokuda, laying stress upon the diagonal elevations en échelon, explained the interference of the peri-Philippine-Sea (Tokuda's South-Japan-Sea) orogenic movement with the old body of the Honshu arc.

The peri-Philippine-Sea movement which caused the Shichito-Mariana arc with a pretty échelon structure, made on Honshu a zone of elevation composed of mountains en échelon, as already found by S. Tokuda: viz. the zone made up of the Izu peninsula, the mountain ranges of Akaishi, Kiso, and Hida. Most of these have the character of titled blocks with steep fault-scarps facing eastward, which remind us of the physiographical feature of the Korean peninsula. The writer will add the Noto peninsula to the above-mentioned elevations.

Recently there has been discovered a great bank called Yamato (the "Notoid" bank according to B. Koto) off the shore of the Japan Sea. It is almost certain from materials dredged from its bottom that the Yamato bank was an island or great peninsula with Noto-

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like outline during a young geological age—perhaps Pleistocene. The crossing of the Shichito-Mariana and Honshu arcs should be admitted from the established hypothesis that a land existed in the direction which the Shichito-Mariana arc is running. That the zonal structure seen in both wings of the Honshu arc is broken at the central portion of this arc, may be better regarded as the disturbances by the peri-Philippine-Sea movement which crossed the Honshu arc. In the south-western part of the Japan Sea, in clear contrast to its remaining part, the relief of the sea-bottom is complicated because of the prolongation of the peri-Philippine-Sea movement and its approach to the Koreo-Ryukyu arc.

The interesting outline of the Noto peninsula shows us that there two orogenic movements conjugate with one another. The belt of islands off the shore of the Japan Sea, one of the elements of the zonal structure of the two wings of Honshu, viz. Oki, Sado, etc. besides a number of peninsulas such as Oga and Shimane, is the most striking feature of the inner side of Honshu in contrast to the outer. Connecting the elevations caused by the peri-Philippine-Sea movement and the belt of islands off the shore of the Japan Sea, a remarkable peninsula, Noto, came into existence. Towards the end of Noto we see a closer relation to the Honshu arc, speaking morphologically as well as geologically. The control of the peri-Japan-Sea movement in recent ages seems more powerful than that which caused the Shichito-Mariana arc, at least in the inner side of Honshu. And this fact likely explains why the land, which is proved by Yamato bank to have existed, disappeared.

Intimacy and Detachment of the Arcs When an arc meets with another, there can be distinguished several distinct features as to the relation between their limbs. In Hokkaido, the Sakhalin-middle-Hokkaido system of the Honshu arc is intimately joined with the Chishima arc, while the remaining portion of the Honshu arc is so removed from the Sakhalin-middle-Hokkaido system that the middle Hokkaido depression and a great embayment from Cape Erimo to Shiriya lie in between and this island itself shows, as a whole, a peculiar outline. Here the Sakhalin-middle-Hokkaido system and the Chishima arc are to be said "intimate," while north-eastern Honshu along with south-western Hokkaido is "detached" from this connection.

At the central mountains of Hokkaido where the two arcs join, the geological structure is undoubtedly concordant with the Honshu arc, though S. Tokuda recognized the penetration of the Chishima arc therein. In such a case the Honshu arc is called "dominant," the Chishima arc "recessive," from a structural point of view.

In Kyushu where the Honshu arc and the Koreo-Ryukyu arc meet together, the Ryukyu archipelago and the Honshu arc are intimate, while Korea is so completely detached that if frequently has no been treated as the elongation of the Ryukyu-Kyushu system. Generally speaking, the structure of Kyushu is concordant with the Honshu arc and discordant with the Koreo-Ryukyu arc, although the Ryukyu volcanic zone clearly penetrates Kyushu, and besides, there is found a "back-bending" of the structural trend-line as noticed by S. Tokuda. In this connection the Honshu arc is dominant and the Koreo-Ryukyu arc recessive.

The structure of Korea is under the control of the so-called Sinian and Liaotong trend—the former N.N.E. to S.S.W., the latter from East to West. Nevertheless, the outline of the peninsula shows the Korean trend, namely from North to South. It is said that the Sinian and Liaotong trend-lines were caused by an orogeny earlier than that which formed the Koreo-Ryukyu arc. The peninsula, upheaved as a great titled block by the latter orogeny, was torn possibly from peneplain, and turned the scarp of splinter-fault eastward. While thus a long peninsula came into being, the Kyushu-Ryukyu system, the remaining portion of this arc, linked intimately to the Honshu arc on one side, and fractures, now filled by the basaltic effusion, were formed between Kyushu and Korea. Even in the interior of Korea the outflow of the basalt took place along the so-called Chikugarei rift valley.

At the meeting of the Honshu and Shichito-Mariana arcs in the middle portion of the former, the relation is more complicated, and this is ascribable perhaps to the fact that the case is not a simple linking but the crossing of the two arcs as already mentioned. Moreover, it is thought that the old Honshu arc acted more resistantly against the oblique stress than in the other cases. The disturbed structure of middle Honshu seems to us more likely concordant with the Shichito-Mariana arc, and therefore the Shichito-Mariana arc is here to be called "dominant" and

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Honshu arc "recessive."

It is unquestionable that the volcanic activities are vigorous where two arcs meet in a linking or crossing manner; namely, the volcanoes in Kyushu, middle Honshu, and Hokkaido. And we have the greatest number of earthquake epicenters in the sea-bottom lying in the outer corners of linkings or crossings; viz. in the vicinity of Cape Erimo of Hokkaido, the vicinity of Tokyo, and Iyonada. These three districts are known also as localities where gravity indicates anomalies.

Shadow of Linkings or Crossings The districts where volcanism is active are all facing the Pacific Ocean in an open manner, and without exception stand closely by very deep trenches; viz. the Chishima Islands, north-eastern Honshu, the Ryukyu Islands, the Shichito Islands, and the Mariana Islands. On the other hand, in Korea, which corresponds to the position of a shadow of linkings, the volcanic activity was insignificant in younger geological ages, and together with Sakhalin there have been very few epicenters of earthquakes and no active volcanoes. In the Honshu arc, south-western Honshu presents a low degree of the activities mentioned above. It is most clearly evident in the distribution of active volcanoes. These facts show that this portion of Honshu corresponds to a kind of shadow of crossing.

The contrast of shadow to the open portion is also distinct in Kamtchatka where a volcanic chain turns suddenly toward the Aleutian Islands. That Korea and Sakhalin, though they present arcuate forms, are generally treated as if they did not belong to the Circum-Pacific Orogenic Zone, shows nothing but the intensely detached and completely shaded portion of the Japanese arcuate mountains.

The specific character of the Circum-Pacific Region is running from the Aleutian Islands through Kamtchatka, the Chishima Islands, and north-eastern Honshu toward the Shichito-Mariana arc. This fact also has been proved by the petrographical studies of the effusive rocks. Secondarily, the endogenous actions again become powerful in Kyushu and the Ryukyu Islands. There is no doubt that the Philippine Sea bounded by the Shichito-Mariana arc is different from the true North Pacific Ocean as regards several physical properties. The former must likely have features of a marginal sea and the latter a true oceanic character.

The Cenozoic History of Western Hokkaido, with Special Reference to the Periods of Volcanism

By Takumi Nagao

(English). [Proc. Fifth Pacific Sci. Congr., Canada (1934), pp. 2461-2465.] Western Hokkaido differs stratigraphically from the main part of the island in the absence of the Mesozoic and Palaeogene formations. The Palaeozoic sedimentaries and granitic rocks are overlain by the Neogene and later sediments which are, however quite extensive. The table given in page 53 shows the stratigraphic succession, crustal movement and volcanism in the region.

The Kunnui, Yakumo and Kuromatsunai groups are folded and upturned by the pre-Setana disturbance and the Setana covers these groups as well as the basement complex. Late Tertiary is the time of orogenesis and volcanism

	Ages	Formations	Crustal movements
Quaternary	Alluvium	Terrace and river deposits	Higher terraces / Lower terraces
		unconformity	
	Diluvium	Makkaribets bed	
		unconformity	
		Rusutsu bed	Depression of Lake Tôya, and Volcano Bay, and probably Lake Shikotan
		Kombu bed	
		unconformity	Post-Setana disturbance
Tertiary	Upper Pleiocene	Setana group	
		unconformity	Pre-Setana Disturbance
	Pleiocene	Kuromatsumai group	
		unconformity?	
	Miocene or Pleiocene	Yakumo group	
		unconformity?	
	Miocene	Kunnui group	

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	Ages	Volcanic material		Volcanism
Quaternary	Alluvium	Ash, pumice	Two-pyroxene andesite	Komagatake volcano
		Ash, pumice	Two-pyroxene andesite	Usu volcano
	Diluvium	Ash, pumice	Two-pyroxene quartz andesite	Tarumae volc.
		Ash, pumice	Trachytic andesite	Ezofuji volc.
				Shiribets
				Kombu
Tertiary	Upper Pleiocene	Tuff	Flows and agglomerates of trachytic andesite and two-pyroxene andesite	Volcanic eruption
	Pleiocene	Tuff	Flows and agglomerates of two-pyroxene andesite and augite andesite	Volcanic eruption
	Miocene or Pleiocene		Flow and agglomerate of augiteandesite	Submarine eruption
	Miocene	Tuff, tuff-breccia	Sheets, flows, and agglomerates of liparite and dolerite, etc.	Submarine eruption

which were succeeded by subareal denudation. There are preserved numerous extensive flat summits which attain several hundred metres above the sea.

T. Kobayashi

The Geologic Structure of Southwestern Japan and its Mesozoic Palaeogeography (Part 6)

By Teiichi Kobayashi and Yanosuke Otuka

(Japanese). [Jour. Geol. Soc. Japan, Vol. 44 (1937), pp. 822-836). The Chapter (12) is captioned as a glance at the deformation of the fundamental geologic structure completed by the Mesozoic disturbances. The origin of the median dislocation line and its development are discussed from various attitudes. Yabe once claimed that the line had first come to existence sometime between the end of Cretaceous and beginning of Tertiary period. Repeated researches in various areas in Japan, however, brought out the fact that the discordance between late Cretaceous and Palaeogene formations is not so considerable enough to imply such a disturbance. On the other hand it is ascertained that the tectonic line is covered by the Upper and Middle Cretaceous formations in Onogawa basin. Therefore the origin of the tectonic line should date back before Middle Cretaceous. On the contrary these are several evidences showing that the line has not existed before the Sakawa orogenesis. According it may be concluded that the tectonic line has first brought to birth in the deformation phase of Sakawa orogenic movement.

Several tectonic students maintained that the two orogenic zones of different history had been fused along this tectonic line. Kobayashi reached the attention upon the distribution of the Ryoke injection-gneiss in the inner side and the Sambagawa-Mikabu metamorphic rocks in the outer, both of which together reveal a complete lenticular shape in their distribution which is cut by the median dislocation line. Accordingly he insists that the two may represent the core of the Sakawa Orogen, and that the Ryoke is the pliomagmatic zone and the Sambagawa-Mikabu the miomagmatic one of the Sakawa Orogen.

Since the two zones of the Sakawa Orogen had been bisected by the dislocation in the deformation phase of the Sakawa orogenic movement and the median dislocation line brought to existence there, the line was deformed at least twice. The first deformation of the line took place in the interval between depositions of the Palaeogene of the Amakusa islands and the Miocene of Mt. Ishizuchi and the second one occurred after the deposition of the Ishizuchi Miocene.

As a result of these deformations the tectonic line becomes to take a somewhat sigmoidal curvature, strongly convex in the eastern half and gently concave in the western. Furthermore, the line has displaced by several flexures and faults as indicated by Hinaku, Onogawa and other lines, and thus the median dislocation line has taken such an echelon structure as one can see at present.

Past Glaciers and the Present Topography of the Japanese Alps

By Gakuro Imamura

(English). [Sci. Rep. Tokyo Bunrika Daigaku, Sec. C, Vol. 2, No. 7 (1937), pp. 1-61, 19 pls., 10 tab., 26 figs.]. The glaciation of Japan in the near past has

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been a moot question among our geologists and geomorphologists. The author made the topographical observations in the Northern, Central and Southern Japanese Alps and gathered the evidences showing the past glaciation. They are described and discussed in two chapters, Descriptive and Systematic. The forms of cirques in Japan differ entirely from cirques in other parts of the world from the beginning. The gradient of the climatic snow-line of the Japanese Alps in the past measures $3\sim5\times10^{-3}$.

As to the climatic condition in the glacial period the author points out that a) the annual range of climatic elements (snowfall, evaporation, temperature, etc.) was greater formerly than it is to-day, b) the temperature was slightly lower than it is to-day, c) the amount of snow-line depression was rather small, its form irregular, its nature unstable, and its gradient steeper, and d) the influence of the winter monosoons was at least potent then as it is to-day.

Finally he concludes that detailed studies of the Japanese Alps have led to the conclusion that some of the prominent peaks were really glaciated in the latest geological age, although the numerous nivigational topographies resembling glacial forms puzzled the observer not a little. The peculiar distributions and characteristic forms of glacial topography have necessitated slight modifications in the height, gradient, and nature of the Quarternary climatic snow-line, and have led him to propose a working hypothesis in regard to climatic conditions during the Ice Age of Japan.

T. Kobayashi

Plants of the Japanese Islands extinguished in the latest Geological Age

By Seido Endo

(Japanese). [Botany & Zoology, Vol. 2, No. 9 (1934), pp. 1519-1532]. The following ten species of plants have practically died out in the Japanese islands exclusive of Taiwan with the end of Tertiary period, but are still living now in the mountainous region of Southwestern China, Southeastern Europe, Asia Minor or the United States of America.

T. Kobayashi

Species	Fossil locality	Distribution
1. Sequoia sempervirens Endl.	Sendai & its environs. Aizu Basin, Fukushima Pref.	Western Coast of U.S.A.
2. Taxodium distichum Rich.	Mogi, Prov. Hizen. Near Kobe.	Southeastern part of U.S.A.
3. Glyptostrobus pensilis K. Koch.	Sendai & its environs.	S.W. mountains of China.
4. Juglans cinerea L.	Hanamaki, Prov. Rikuchu. Aizu Basin, near Sendai	Eastern part of U.S.A.
5. Carpinus betulus L.	Taguchi-mura, Prov. Shinano.	Southeastern part of Europe
6. Ostrya knowltonii Coville.	"	Western mountains of U.S.A. (Arizona)
7. Fagus americana Sweet	Sendai & its environs Mogi, Amakusa islands etc.	Eastern part of U.S.A.
8. Liquidambar formosana Hance.	Mogi, Prov. Hizen. Taguchi, Uchiyama, Prov. Shinano	Southwestern part of China Taiwan.
9. Celtis occidentalis L.	Mogi, Prov. Hizen.	East part of U.S.A.
10. Planera aquatica Gmel.	Various districts in Japan.	Eastern part of U.S.A.

Vegetation of the Japanese Islands in the latest Geological Age

By Seido Endo

(Japanese). [Botany & Zoology, Vol. 3, No. 11 (1935), pp. 1955-1961]. Nine Japanese floras in different formations of the Cenozoic group include genera which are not inhabited in the Japanese islands (exclusive of Taiwan) at present, but all of them are still living in certain parts of the world. The number of the extinct genera (B), that is, its percentage (C) in the total number of genera in the flora (A), increases according to the age of the flora as tabulated below.

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Fossil locality	A	B	C	Geological Age
Shiobara, Prov. Shimozuke	58	0	0	Pleistocene
Uchiyama, Prov. Shinano	30	1	3	Uppermost Pliocene
Mogi, Prov. Hizen	46	3	6	Upper Pliocene
Nenoshiraishi, Prov. Rikuzen	32	6	19	Lower Pliocene or Upper Miocene
Hiramaki, Prov. Mino	23	5	22	Miocene
Kokuni, Prov. Uzen	54	14	26	Lower Miocene
Kannonzawa, Prov. Echigo	37	9	24	Lower Miocene
Kita-aigi, Prov. Shinano	21	6	29	Oligocene?
Due, North Karaft	27	9	33	Oligocene
Estoru, South Karaft	20	7	35	Oligocene
Woodwardia sandstone, Prov. Ishikari	44	19	48	Upper Eocene

The Shiobara flora resembles the present flora in Central Hokkaido in the general aspect; Liquidambar is the only extinct genus in the Uchiyama flora which, however, is common in the Japanese fossil floras from Eocene to Pliocene; 3 extinct genera in the Mogi flora are still living in Southwestern China and the United States; the floral aspect of Nenoshiraishi is rather different from the recent flora of Japan in the inclusions of Sequoia, Taxodium, Glyptostrobus, Sassafras, Catalpa and Liriodendron which are living in Southwestern China and the United States.

Well preserved seeds of Liquidambar formosa are very common at Hiramaki. The flora of this locality may be contemporaneous with the Shirakawa flora found at Okuhata and Shirakawa pass, west of Kobe.

Bauhinia, Cercis, Comptonia, Laurus, and Protea are extinct members in the Kokuni flora. This as well as the Kannonzawa flora, both of lower Miocene age, indicate the warm climate.

The Kita-aegi flora contains Populus, Platanus and Sequoia which are common in the Palaeogene flora of Japan, but its exact age cannot be definitely determined.

The above mentioned Neogene floras contain some genera which are extinct in Japan but living in foreign countries. However the ratio of such genera to the total number of the genera in each flora does not exceed 30 percent. The ratio, however, attains to 33 percent in the so-called Due flora and to 35 percent in the Estoru. Taxodium, Sequoia, Buettneria, Liquidombar, Carpa and Nelumo are abundant in them.

In the flora of the Woodwardia sandstone the ratio is in fact 30 percent. Furthermore it is remarkable that this flora includes such tropical or subtropical elements as Sabal, Asplenium, Aspidium, Denstaedtia, Grewia, Nelumbo, Ficus, Musa, Liquidambar, Cinnamomum, Palirus and Buettneria.

T. Kobayashi

Botany

Miscellaneous Notes on the East-Asiatic Uredinales with Special Reference to the Japanese Species—Notes on the Japanese Species of Uromyces

By Naohide Hiratsuka

(Japanese). (Jour. Japan. Bot. 13. 1937, 587-594, 729-747).

In the first of the two papers above mentioned, 11 species of Uromyces, 14 of Puccinia, 1 from each of the genera Hemileia, Malampsora, Chnoospora, Phakospora, Barcleyella are enumerated with their localities, etc.

In the second the history of investigation of Uromyces in Japan is described, and 73 species which were hitherto recognized in Japan are enumerated. A table indicating their distribution in the world is given.

On a large-grained Sterile Strain of Rice-plant and the Inheritance of Its Chimera

By Fuyuwo Kagawa

(Proc. Crop. Sc. Soc. Japan 9, 1937, 319-340, 2 text-figs. and 8 tables).

In the autumn 1934 six completely sterile rice-plants bearing large grains have appeared among the strain known by the Japanese name "Urasan". The author has isolated carefully several tillers of each mutant stock, and cultivated them in pots separately in a glass-house. In the spring and autumn

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of the next year (1935), though generally they have shown the mutant character few of them were wholly identical to the original normal "Urasan" strain. Since all of them have been derived from the original mutant stock in the vegetative way (tilering) the production of normal strain denotes that in a certain portion of the mutant body the character of the normal strain has appeared in the chimerical way. It is to be noticed that though the plants showing the mutant character above quoted remained quite unchanged in the next year, many of them have borne besides sterile large grains few normal fertile ones, thus making such plants semi-sterile instead of completely sterile.

All normal plants just cited were submitted to natural pollination, and the offspring of the next generation were examined. The offspring produced by each of them were either all normal or in the ratio of 3 normal: 1 sterile. If we denote the normal plant by AA and the mutant by aa, the parents of such offspring should be either AA or Aa. Some normal plants were found to produce besides the normals a very few steriles, for instance, 712 normals and 8 steriles. The author thinks that in this case the number of steriles is too small for considering the parent stock as Aa, and consequently he is led to the hypothesis that this should be due to the occurrence of some few mutations A—a in the AA-stock.

Ecological Studies of the Vegetation of the Abukuma River Basin

By Kyozi Naohara

(Japanese with English résumé). (Ecolog. Studies 2, 1936, 180-191, 306-318; 3, 1937, 35-46, 12 text-figs. and 13 tables).

Abukuma is one of the great rivers in Northern Japan Proper. The destructive action of inundations occurs in its river basin usually once per year. The author distinguishes there three vegetation zones, viz. unstable, semi-stable and stable. The unstable zone, on account of inundations just mentioned, remains quite bare for the greater part of each year, though in the year, when the inundation had not occurred or when only a slight destruction had taken place, few plants may grow there (for instance, some species of Chenopodium, Polygonum, Cassia, Microlespedeza). The adjoining semi-sterile zone which is less disturbed by the inundation than the unstable is characterized by the occurrence of some sand-resisting plants, as Carex pumila and Imperata cylindrica var. Koenigii, which form a sand plant community. Sand and humus piled up there by the flood lead to the further invasion of some other plants, which gradually build up a proper river bed plant community in the stable zone, where Zoysia japonica grows vigorously, and becomes finally the dominant plant. The mode of plant succession just spoken was further proven by the author by means of the scores of permanent chart quadrates and belt transects marked there. During this process of succession the contents of fine sand and igneous loss increase considerably, the pH of soil becomes lower, the Ca-content decreases, phosphat and nitrate increase, especially the latter, when leguminous plants will grow there.

Notes of the Algal Flora of Manchoukuo I–IV

By B. V. Skvortzov

(With Japanese résumé by K. Okada). (Bot. Mag. Tokyo 51, 1937, 627-635, 677-688, 738-742, 783-791, 826-826, 9 text-figs.).

The first part refers to the midsummer phytoplankton of a marshy river branch in the Sungari plain near Harbin. Flagellatae 2 genera and 8 forms, Protococcales 5 genera and 12 forms, Desmidiaceae 3 genera and 4 forms, Diatomaceae 17 genera and 51 forms, Cyanophyceae 9 genera. Among 89 algae in all about 25% are new varieties and species, and many are those newly found in these regions. Trachelomonas scabra known hitherto from Australia and Venezuela, Nitschia holsatica known from Europe, and N. regula known from Tibet and Central Asia are cited as the most interesting records. All species are described.

The second part contains a list of algae from a single growth of Spirogyra collected near Harbin. In mucilaginous masses of Spirogyra 30 different algae were recognized, of which most are diatoms. The following new species are recorded as the most interesting forms: Stigeoclonium spirogyrae sp. nov., Tribonema tetrachlora, Oscillatoria Kavalchookiana and Navicula harbinensis. The description of all species follows.

The Entrance and Migration of Bacterium Solanacearum Smith in Tobacco Plants

By Wang Gee Vong

(Japanese with English résumé). (Ann. Phytopathol. Soc. Japan 7, 1937, 14-23, I pl. and 6 text-figs).

Inoculation experiments of Bacterium

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solanacearum on tobacco plants executed by the author have shown that the infection take place through the wounds, never through stomata or water-pores. Stigma was infected, even not wounded. The above experiments were made with bacteria cultured on potato agar or decoction. Those cultured on milk were found even to be able to infect unwounded roots, being more virulent than those cultured on potato agar or decoction. In the infection of stem and leaves the bacteria entering them through the wounds occupy the xylem-ducts, and then grow outwards towards the surrounding tissues which are damaged severely. Bacteria are often seen in the cells of pich and cortex. Bacteria occupying the xylem were found to migrate a much greater distance downwards than upwards. The rate of migration is dependent on the temperature, being greatest at 40°C and smallest at 15°.

Physiological Studies on the Growth of the Paddy Rice Plant in Peat Culture, with Special Reference to the Peat Conditions and the Nitrogen Source

By Sennosuké Yamaguchi

(Jour. Fac. Sc. Hokkaido Imp. Univ. Ser. V.,4, 1937, 143-175).

Studies on the growth of paddy rice plants were carried out by the method of pot culture with peat, clayey loam, and coarse sand soils and their mixtures, using urea, urine, ammonium sulphate and sodium sulphate as nitrogen source. The following facts were ascertained. (1) The growth of rice plants depends upon the change of hydrogen ion concentration of the medium and upon the buffer capacity of the soil. (2) The buffer capacity of peat, clayey loam and coarse sand was largest in the case of the alkali titration; that of coarse sand was smallest and that of clayey loam showed a degree intermediate between them. (3) The local difference of pH-value according to the depth in the pot was most remarkable in clayey loam, smallest in peat, and in coarse sand it was similar to peat. (4) The hydrogen ion concentration was lowered by mulching of coarse sand or clayey loam on the one hand, and by manuring of urea, urine or sodium nitrate on the other. Such reaction change favours good growth of paddy rice plants, except the application of NaNo . (5) The bad growth of paddy rice plants in the higher acidic region in the peat or peat extract culture may be partly due to the harmful effects of humic acids in the molecular form or of organic substances in an active form, the amount of which depends mainly upon the hydrogen ion concentration of the culture solution.

On the Gametophytes of Some Japanese Species of Laminaria II

By Tiyoiti Kanda

(Sc. Papers Inst. Algol. Res., Fac. Sc., Hokkaido Imp. Univ. 2, 1938, 87-111, 2 pls. and 24 text-fig. groups).

The life history of Laminaria Yendoana, cichorioides, yezoensis, Kjellmanniella crassifolia and Chorda Filum, was traced by performing the culture. The alternation of generations—asexual zoospores male and female gametophytes—as well as the development of young sporophytes were thus ascertained. These processes are similar in all forms above indicated. The zoospores and the male gametophytes lack the eye-spot, except in the last of the species above cited. In all species of Laminaria examined by the author the oogonium consists of one or few cells, and the egg-cell is pressed out from the oogonium before fertilization. The male gametophytes are multi-celled, and each antheridium developed from a terminal cell of the thallus produces each one antherozoid.

The Species of Liagora from Japan

By Yukio Yamada

(Sc. Papers Inst. Algol. Res., Fac. Sc., Hokkaido Imp. Univ. 2, 1938, 1-34, 15 pls. and 22 text-figs.).

First of all, some short remarks are made on the anatomical details of the genus Liagora. The assimilatory filament in this genus is distinguished into two different types, the first being seen simply in the section Farinosae, and the second in all other forms. Two distinct types are also seen in spermatangia. In the one type they are produced around the ultimate cell of the assimilatory filament and form densely packed head-like clusters; this type is seen in those species with the assimilatory filaments belonging to the Farinosae-type (cf. above). In the second type the spermatangia are produced either on the ultimate or penultimate cell of the assimilatory filament in nearly corymbose manner. The carpogonial branches are also of two types. In the one they are evidently lateral on one cell of the assimilatory filament, while in the other they are lateral, subterminal or terminal. After fertilization the cystocarp is divided into two cells, usually by means of a horizontal cell-

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wall, but sometimes by a longitudinal one.

An analytical key to the Japanese species of Liagora is given. Each species is described and illustrated. The following species are contained in this paper: Liagora orientalis Agardh, L. caenomyce Decaisne, L. robusta sp. nov., L. Boergesenii sp. nov., L. Setchelli sp. nov., L. japonica sp. nov., L. Segawai sp. nov., L. ceranoides Lamouroux, a pulverulenta (Agardh) comb. nov., b leprosa (Agardh) comb. nov., L. decussata Montage, L. farinosa Lamouroux, f. pinnatiramosa f. nov., L. pinnata Harv., L. clavata sp. nov., L. mucocissima sp. nov., L. formosana sp. nov.

Zoology

Graded Response of the Muscle of Japanese Giant Crab for Direct Stimulation

By Takeo Kamada and Haruo Kinosita

[Proc. Imp. Acad. of Japan, 13, No. 9 (1937), 1 tab. (374-377).]—On the motor nerve of the dactylopodite flexor of Macrocheira kaempferi two pairs of Ag-AgCl electrodes were set. By these electrodes the nerve was stimulated with 50 cycle current. The situation of the distal pair of the electrodes was settled at one place, but the other pair of the electrodes was sometimes translocated. The muscle was tetanized by the stimuli from the proximal electrodes, and then the second extra stimulus was applied by the distal electrodes. The latent time of that second stimulation was then determined. This value becomes larger according to the increase of the distance between the two pairs of the electrodes. From this result the authors discussed the possibility of occurrence of the difference in muscular contraction by the train of impulses developed in one and the same nerve fibre but of different discharging frequency.

K. Inoue

Preliminary Note on Experiments of Ooplasm Transfusion of Silk-worm-egg with Special Reference to the Development of Embryo

By Yositiro Umeya

[Proc. Imp. Acad., 13, No. 9 (1937), 378-380, 2 figs., 1 tab.]—The author is of the opinion that the development of wintering eggs might be forced to be retarded due to the insolubility of yolk, although the embryo itself is in the state ready for development. To establish his opinion, the author tried to exchange the ooplasm reciprocally between the wintering eggs and non-wintering ones. A small hole of about 0.2 mm in diameter was made in the centre of the egg, and then some ooplasm (with yolk) of about 20% of the volume of the egg was sucked out by means of a capillary tube, taking care not to injure the embryo. As soon as this operation was done successfully, reciprocal transfusion of removed ooplasm was made. The embryo in the wintering egg could develop when a proper quantity of ooplasm including soluble yolk from the non-wintering egg is introduced. But by transfusion of some ooplasm containing insoluble yolk from the wintering egg into the non-wintering egg the development of the embryo in the latter could not be checked. This latter case was explained in many ways from the author's stand point.

K. Inoue

On the Developmental Characteristics of the Silkworm Embryo

By Yositiro Umeya

[Proc. Imp. Acad., 14, No. 4 (1938), 141-144, 3 figs., 2 tabs.]—The rate of early development of the embryo, that is from the wintering stage to the elongated stage occupying about one-third the entire embryonic period, varies not only with the race of the silkworm, but with the season in which the eggs are laid. On the contrary the rate of later development, namely, from the elongated stage to the time of hatching, which takes up about two-thirds the entire embryonic period does not differ very much by such factors. The above mentioned phenomena were ascertained by the author experimentally. It ts interesting that the more retarded the development of the embryo in the earlier stage, the more accelerated it is in the later stage, resulting that the total period of embryonic development under constant temperature becomes almost the same, notwithstanding the season in which the egg are laid. The author regards this phenomena from the view point of the organism as a whole.

K. Inoue

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Sex-modification in a Semidifferentiated Salamander, Hynobius retardatus, Resulting from Implantation of Testis and Hypophysis

By Kin-ichiro Hanaoka

[Proc. Imp. Acad., 14, No. 4 (1938), 145-148, 3 figs.]—1) Implantation of adult hypophysis into larval salamander. In the normal development the testis begins to differentiate once in the female direction and reaches young ovarian stages, then the differentiation starts to male direction shortly before the metamorphosis. In the grafted larva the testis differentiates from the beginning into male direction as in sexually differentiated amphibians. The development of ovary was not affected by implantation. 2) Implantation of testis and hypophysis. The testis of the grafted host was slightly advanced for their age, but no further differentiation of testis occured at the stage of metamorphosis. Profound modification of sex, however, was found in the development of ovary.

K. Inoue

Observation on 'Thermo-Current' in Nerve

By Seiichi Okabé

[Jap. Jour. Med. Sci., III. Biophys., 3 (1935), 167-176, 2 figs., 2 tabs.]—The author studies the thermocurrent of the sciatic nerve of the toad. Its result confirmed the study of Varzâr. The only difference is that the nerve gives quiet consistent response up to 27°C, the warmer region takes invariably positive sign against colder portion. An optimal temperature is about 23°-24°C. It is remarkable that the thermo-current does not respond promptly to the change of temperature. This is made clear especially in the case of cooling.

K. Inoue

On the Difference of the CO^2-output of the Frog Tissue between Different Sexes

By Tyuziro Seto

(Japanese.) [Nihon Seiri. Z., 1, No. 6 (1937), 376, 2 tabs.]—The CO^2-output of the male muscle and other tissues is greater than that of the female. The male muscle contains larger amount of water than the female. The muscle immersed in half concentrated Ringer's solution gives out smaller amount of CO^2 per minute than the muscle in twice concentrated Ringer's solution. Measurement of CO^2 was performed by the Parker's method.

K. Inoue

A Contribution to the Knowledge of the Braconid Fauna of the Empire of Japan (Hymenoptera)

By Chihisa Watanabe

[Jour. Facul. Agr., Hokkaido Imp. Univ., 42, pt. 1 (1937), 1-188, 5 pls.]—In this paper 240 species have been arranged under 9 subfamilies. Of them 42 species are new to the fauna of the Empire of Japan and the following 30 are described as new to science: Bracon yakui, B. nipponensis, Spathius japonicus, Rhogas daisetsuzanus, R. oyeyamensis, R. lymantriae, R. Wadai, R. drymoniae, R. microculatus, R. sapporensis, Chelonus tosensis, C. moriokensis, Ascogaster epinotiae, Phanerotoma producta, Earinus jezoensis, Braunsia postfurcalis, B. matsumurai, B. antefurcalis, Microdus aino, Microtypus takeuchii, Microgaster takeuchii, M. coenonymphae, Microplitis theretrae, Streblocera nigrithoracica, Pygostolus septentrionalis, Leiophron antennalis, L. aino, Cardiochiles japonicus, Macrocentrus gigas and Phaenocarpa jezoensis. General discussion on the parasitism of the family is given and also host list is appended.

S. Kuwayama

Studies on the Post-embryonal Development of Hymenolepis diminuta. Part I. On Hatching of the Eggs of Hymenolepis diminuta

By Norio Narihara

(Japanese with English résumé.) [Taiwan Ig. Kw. Z., 36, No. 4 (1937), 713-731.]—The egg-shell is affected neither by artificial gastric nor intestinal juice when immersed therein up to twenty-five hours at a temperature of 38°C. The eggs which were immersed in the artificial gastric juice for from one to one and half hours and then transferred into the artificial intestinal juice did not show any change of their shell, when examined after 2-46 hours' immersion in the latter juice. The author found, however, that the shells are easily broken and oncosphaerae freed if the eggs thus treated are transferred into a small gum sac containing certain kind of medium and mechanical stimulation was applied by gentle crumpling of the sac with fingers. The eggs hatch out in the body of the intermediate host, Ephestia cautella, in the same manner as in vitro and the free oncosphaerae were frequently found in its parenchymal tissues 5 hours after infecton. Thus it might be concluded that as soon as the intermediate host ingests the eggs,

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the shells are broken by the peistaltic action of the intestine. The oncosphaera on being freed from its shell takes up active, erratic movements which gradually slow down to normal before finally resting in a motionless position.

K. Morishita

Studies on the Tropical Rat Mite. Third Report. Its Biology and Control

By Nanzaburo Ohmori

(Japanese with English résumé.) [Taiwan Ig. Kw. Z., 36, No. 12 (1937), 2589-2608.]—The damage from this mite in Formosa was first reported by Morishita and Ohmori (1931). In the present paper the author described its growth, its blood sucking habits, the condition in which the eggs are layed, its span of life, its development in human habitats and the nature of its hosts. For its control he recommended the fumigation with the insecticide which consists of 20 or 25 parts of kerosene and 80 or 75 parts of petrol with or without 10 gm naphthalene.

K. Morishita

Physics

High Frequency Characteristics of High Resistances

By Takeo Akahira and Masao Kamazawa

(Japanese). [Bul. Inst.. Phys. Chem. Res., 16 (1937) 1393-1408]. Authors investigated the behaviour of high resistance at high frequencies which consists of conducting layer deposited and cut in a spiral form on porcelain tube or rod. The equivalent circuit of a high resistance can be represented by the two components, the resistance and the capacitance connected in parallel, and the magnitudes of these two components change with the frequency. The thickness of the conducting layer is usually so small that the increase of resistance due to the skin effect is out of question even at the very high frequency. The inductive reactance of such a resistance is also negligible compared with its direct-current resistance even at the frequency of 100 megacycles per second. When the resistance is prepared by a deposit on porcelain tube, also having similar deposit on the inside of the tube, which may be disconnected from that on the outside, this inner deposit becomes effective at the higher frequencies through the capacities between the both side layers and decreases the resistance remarkably. With regards to the resistance without inner deposit the decrease of equivalent resistance at a high frequency is probably attributable to the stray capacity, which is naturally resulted from such a complicated electric field near terminals. In order to remove this stray capacity, in other words, to make the electric field uniform two parallel plate electrodes are used as the terminals. And thus, the high resistances with excellent characteristics have been obtained, for instance a resistance of 2 megohms which shows no change of resistance at 10 megacycles per second.

Authors

A New Attachment Theory of The Ionosphere

By T. Tukada

[Rep. Rad. Res. Japan, 7 (1937), 121-144, with 4 fig.]. It is theoretically shown that electrons in the ionosphere disappear mainly by attachement to molecules or neutral atoms instead of by recombination. The negative ions produced by electron attachment are shown to eject electrons as a result of the photoelectric effect of sunlight. These disclosures have eliminated the various faults existing in the concepts of the past attachment theory and have made possible the explanation of phenomena that could not be explained by the recombination theory. It has also become possible to explain the seasonal variations of the F region without resorting to the assumption of such great differences of temperature as are necessary in the recombination theory. A part of the discussion deals with the atomic oxygen content of the upper atmosphere and also touches upon the ionization of the E, F^1, and F^2 regions. The value of the conclusions based on this new attachment theory, however, can only be established after further experimentation.

Author.

Comparison of Field Intensities of Short Waves Receives Simultaneously from European Stations at Two Different Points in Japan

By Takesi Amisima

[Rep. Rad. Res. Japan, 7 (1937), 75-89, wih 18 fig.]. In the present paper,

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the writers deal with the results of extensive measurements that were carried out in Japan with the object of comparing the field intensions of short waves simultaneously received from European Stations at two separated sites in Japan during the period from January to August, 1935. The short waves were specially transmitted from Europe for the purpose of these measurements. The receiving sites were separated only 440 km from each other, the one being in the suburb of the city of Akashi some 50 km west of Osaka, and the other near the Fukuoka Receiving Station of the Japan Wireless Telegraph Company Ltd., about 25 km north-west of Tokyo. The waves received at these two sites may, therefore, be supposed to have propagated along virtually the same path, although those received at Fukuoka took a path slightly more northern than those received at Akashi, assuming that all waves propagate along a great circle path as usually accepted. A method of measurement practically unaffected by differences in local conditions peculiar to these sites was adopted for the investigation. The following are some of the most important conclusions from the results of these measurements: 1. Considerable differences were found between the signal intersities received at these sites, notwithstanding the very slight difference in the two wave paths. 2. An additional increase in attenuation in bd was observed in the waves from Dorchester, England, to Fukuoka on magnetically disturbed days, which was roughly twice as large as that in the case of waves from Dorchester to Akashi. Judging from the geographical distribution of auroral displays on the wave path, it does not seem a very difficult matter to estimate this attention. 3. The variation in signal intensities on the Dorchester-Akashi route was much less than that on the Dorchester-Fukuoka route, although it was observed to be much more than that observed on wave paths through lower latitudes. Sometimes an abrupt increase in signal intensity of about 25 ab, lasting only a few minutes on the Dorchester-Fukuoka route.

Author

Intercomparison of Frequency Standards by means of Modulation Emission—Eighth Report of The Sub-Committee for Frequency Standards

By Ryotaro Mitsuda and Keikitiro Tani

[Rep. Rad. Res. Japan, 7 (1937), 17-20, with 2 fig.]. The present paper is a report of test results, obtained in the latest comparison (the eighth one of this kind) of the frequency standards maintained independently at the Electrotechnical Laboratory, the Naval Technical Research-Department, the Military Scientific Laboratory, and the Iwatsuki Radio Receiving Station, all in Japan. The comparisons were made during the period from November 18 to 20, 1936, by simultaneously measuring the modulation frequency of a radio wave emitted from the Kemigawa Transmitting Station. The values of modulation frequency measures by each laboratory agreed well within a maximum difference of 3 parts in ten million.

Authors

Photoradio Development in Japan

By Daitaro Arakawa, Atsushi Kimpara and Takesi Amisima

[Rep. Rad. Res. Japan, 7 (1937), 207-213 with 9 fig.]. This paper briefly describes the recent developments in picture transmission by wireless in Japan. Preliminary experiments were carried out at first between Taiwan (Formosa) and Tokyo, a distance of 2000 km. The advantages and disadvantages of time and amplitude modulation were compared in detail, and critical, quantitative studies interference, atmospherics, and fading (especially selective fading). During the Olympiad in the summer of 1936, a long distance transmission experiment was performed between Berlin and Tokyo, and fair results were obtained, notwithstanding the unfavourable radio transmission paths lying near the north pole. Since then efforts were made to improve the screen frequency synchronising mechanism, high-frequency keying device, and to ascertain the most suitable screen frequency, etc. In the beginning of 1937, other experiments were conducted between London and Tokyo, and between San Francisco and Tokyo. The latter experiment brought about somewhat improved results.

Authors

New Automatic Telegraph Transmitters

By A. Kuroda and S. Iwai

[Res. Electrotech. Lab., 409 (1937), 1-28, with 17 fig.]. It has been well known that the various disadvantages of automatic telegraph transmitters in the past, such as the instability of adjustment, chatter-

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ing of the transfer contacts, arcing, etc., have been largely due to the type of construction of the transfer contacts. With the aim of eliminating these disadvantages and at the same time obtaining high-speed transmission, an automatic transmitter employing a rotating drum type of contact was constructed for test purposes. A spring contact was arranged to slide over a rotating drum which contained both mark and space contacts, and the point of contact was shifted in accordance with the letters sent. By this means, the rebound due to the striking of contacts was eliminated, and hence chattering was prevented. The elimination of rebound also obviated the need for adjusting the pressure of the jockey in accordance with the communication speed. Since a spring contact needed only to be strong enough to maintain contact with either the mark or space contact, there was little variation of adjustment, and the apparatus could be operated continuously over long periods of time. Besides the above apparatus, another type of automatic transmitter was constructed with the object of conserving paper slips and unifying the perforator. This transmitter employed a slip perforated by the reversal code and was used in the transmission of Morse code. Since one of the most important factors in his special type of transmitter is the mechanism of controlling the travel of the paper slip for the transmission of a dash, a differential driving gear was employed as means of control, and the rotating drum described above was utilized for the transfer contact. This report give a detailed description of the construction, operation, and behaviour of these two experimental transmitters; and for reference, the various types of automatic transmitters used heretofore have been briefly outlined at the end of the report.

Authors

Astronomy and Geophysics

Geoid and Crustal Deformation in the Kwanto District

By Yukio Kawabata

[Geoph. Mag., 10 (1936), 89-110.]. Through the revision of the precise levels after the great Kwanto earthquake of 1923, were worked out the vertical displacements of banch-marks that had been previously laid down there. Certain statistical correlations were noticed, that would suggest that change of geoid occurred at the same time, but its absolute values could not be determined. To ascertain the meaning of these changes, a rough examination was made of the extent to which isostatic compensation had been attained in these region, the result thus obtained affording a suggestion that the theory of isostasy holds even in Japan, but in a very different manner as compared with that obtained elsewhere. At any rate, in Kwanto and vicinity, the depth of compensation seems as a whole to be very shallow, especially in the western part of the area, including the Izu Peninsula and Suruga Bay, the depth being very shallow as compared with the eastern part that faces to the Pacific.

K. Omae

Sudden Rise of Air-Temperature near Ground During Night at the Basin of Kyoto

By Tatutosi Takahasi

[Meteorological Notes No. 1. Met. Res. Inst., Imp. Univ. of Kyoto, July, 1936] (Japanese.) Three examples of sharp rises of temperature at low level but not at high level are illustrated and explained by autographic records as the consequence of sudden displacements of surface cold air accumulated near the ground. The first example, which occured at the passage of a warm front and which shows a sharp rise 5°C and how the ordinary warm front is modified by the preexistence of cold air lake, is illustrated by temperature-height curves. The distribution of sudden rises which is mainly horizontal, is illustrated by the second example which took place at the passage of the trough line of a cyclone; and the third example is selected to show a different type which appeard during an anticyclonic cold clear night. Some statistical results are appended at the end of this paper.

T. Namekawa

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Vibrations of the Keep of Nagoya Castle due to Earthquake and Wind Pressure

By T. Saita

(Japanese.) [Bull. Earthq. Res. Inst., 16 (1938), 145-154.] In our country great and tall wooden buildings are those of Buddhist and castle, namely, a five-storied pagoda, the great gate of a Buddhist temple and a keep. These buildings are well spoken of a safety against earthquake shocks while other low buildings are almost demolished. These is no investigations for these buildings.

The writer is at present engaged in observing the vibrations of a pagoda in Tokyo and its results are not yet ready for publication. In this paper are given the results of observations which have been done by the writer in the first place for the vibrations of the famous keep of Nagoya castle during earthquake and wind blows. From the observations the writer found that the acceleration at the upper floor of the keep is about 1/3 of the ground and decrease of acceleration at upper floor depends on the keep and that of its ground.

The writer believes that the above statements are applicable to the fact the pagoda and other tall buildings are well proof against earthquakes.

Author

General View of Hot-springs in Beppu City, I. and II.

By Beppu Geophysical Institute.

(Japanese.) [Tikyubuturi (Geophysics) 1 (1937), 20-27; 267-284.]

1. The sources of hot baths in the City of Beppu are 12 natural springs and about 800 boring wells. Investigation of the circumstances and conditions of each individual well in the city were carried out by members of the Beppu Geophysical Institute first in 1924, and again in 1933. The general results of the investigations are described. (Most of the wells are of the depth of 40-60 metres. Wells are being deeper year by year.)

2. The temperature and the flow were measured on about 700 wells in September and October in 1924, and in July and August in 1933. Mean values of temperature and flow are 53°.38C and 13.724 L/min in 1924 and 54°.06C and 17.263 L/min in 1933.

3. Chemical analysis of mineral water from 107 wells shows that there is no great difference in their contents. The temperature, the flow and mean values are as follows.

Max. temp.	Max. flow	Temp. of max.	Flow frequency	Total flow in the city
68.6°C	851.57L/m	57°	8-12 L/m	16.32×10^3m³/day
71.5	847.62	57	8-12	18.79 „

	Total ppt.	SiO_2	$Fe^{...}$	$Al^{...}$	$Ca^{..}$	$Mg^{..}$	$K^{.}$	$Na^{.}$	Cl'	SO''_4	HCO'_3	CO_2
In gr./L.	1.035	0.1816	.0031	.0024	.0742	.0393	0.179	.1772	.2411	.0584	.5085	.2358
In ton/day In whole city	19.68	3.450	.059	.045	1.410	.747	.340	3.365	4.580	1.214	9.665	.449

The springs in the whole city produce 2.7×10^{11} cal of heat and 7,200 tons of precipitation in a year.

4. Annual variations and secular variations of the temperature and the flow of springs in Beppu are concluded from the examination of the data of continuous observations on 63 wells for a year and on 8 wells for 10 years, with tables showing the mean values for each month of all wells. Annual variations of flow are distinct: a maximum value in September and a minimum in April. The temperature of spring water remains almost constant, the amplitude of the annual variation does not exceed 2°C. Variations of the temperature and the flow indicate a slight positive correlation as a whole, but this does not hold for individual wells.

The amounts of secular variations are far greater than the amplitude of annual variations. Mean annual values for 8 wells are as follows.

Year	1925	1926	1927	1928	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935	Mean
Temp.	53.4	53.0	55.8	55.7	55.5	55.3	No Obs.	53.3	52.7	52.6	52.9	54.0
Flow	15.39	12.39	12.68	13.36	12.82	11.74	No Obs.	10.96	9.01	9.29	11.75	11.94

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5. The structure of the ground under the city of Beppu is discussed on the basis of soil samples from 25 boring wells distributed in the city. It is realized that the ground is composed of many strata of various sorts of sand, pebbles and clay soils of alluvial deposit, containing between them rich mineral water. The most remarkable feature is that a dense group of impervious layers of the thickness of nearly 100 metres extends under the lower part of the city. The upper layer of this group lies at the depth of about 50 metres in the middle part of the city and it slopes from the SW to the NE-direction. The hot spring water flows out from layers of various depths through boring wells.

M. Hasegawa

Report of the Expedition Sent from the Department of Astronomy in the Tokyo Imperial University for the Observation of the Total Solar Eclipse of June 19, 1936

By Yusuke Hagihara, Masaki Kaburaki and Kuniji Sato

[Ann. Tokyo Astr, Obs. 2nd Sex. 1 (1938), 91-150, with 3 plates.] The first aim was to study the light distribution over the corona by the light of the photographic region and also of the visible region. The second aim was to get some slitless spectrograms of the corona and of the chromosphere. The third aim was to take the photographs of the Sun in its partial phase.

On account of the unfavorable weather condition the second aim was in failure. Twenty-two photographs of the Sun in its partial phase were taken and were handed to the Tokyo Astronomical Observatory for the reduction.

Several photographs of the corona were taken through a yellow filter with a Merz's 7-inch visual telescope in equatorial mounting. The density over the three plates were measured, together with the intensity-scales taken by the light of a Hefner lamp. The isophotes for the corona were drawn. The intensity-decrement along the streamers was shown to vary in the inverse 5.5-th power of the distance from the centre of the Sun's disc.

With a Dallmeyer 8-inch photographic camera in equatorial mounting three photographs of the outer corona were taken. At the same time several intensity-scales were obtained by the light of the corona itself with a special apparatus designed on purpose for it. The reduction of the plates was carried out by inventing a special method which we call the chain method. Corrections for sky-light and for fogging were applied. Isophotes were drawn and the intensity-decrement along the streamers were shown to vary in the inverse 3.5-th power of the distance from the centre of the Sun's disc.

With the special apparatus just mentioned several intensity-scales were taken by the light of the full Moon with the same exposure time as for the intensity-scales taken by the corona. The luminosities of the corona and of the full Moon were compared by the chain method. It was found that the luminosity of the corona was 2.3 times as bright as that of the full Moon.

The distribution of the intensity of halation due to the photographic images of some simplified forms, such as in the form of a pin-hole, in the form of a straight line and in the form of a circular ring, was studies by laboratory experiment. The result was applied for eliminating the effect of halation in the coronal photometry. The true distribution of the relative intensity was shown to be derived from the apparent distribution by means of a Fredholm's linear integral equation.

The effect of sky-scattering for the celestial bodies in the forms of a circular ring and of a circular disc was computed theoretically. This result for the circular disc was applied for determining the coefficient of sky-scattering from a photograph of the full Moon taken by screening the Moon's image on the plate. Then the effect of sky-scattering on the distribution of the intensity of the corona was removed likewise by solving a Fredholm's integral equation.

From the intensity-distribution over the Moon's disc on our eclipse-plates the amount of the reflected light from the Earth was determined and it was seen to be in second with Danjon's estimate of the luminosity of the new Moon.

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Part II. Photometry of Corona in the Visible Region. M. Kaburaki.

Part III. Effects of Halation and of Sky-Scattering on the Coronal Photometry. (in preparation), Y. Hagihara and K. Saito

Y. Hagihara

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On the Results of Re-examinations of the Spectrogram Obtained at the Hokkaido Eclipse of June 19, 1936

By Rikichi Sekiguchi

[Tokyo Astr. Bull., Nos. 280-282, (1938).]. This is a short note mainly dealing with the reality of the nebular lines λ6 548 and λ6 583 (NII forbidden lines) found by the author at the mentioned occasion, and drawing attention to the multiple structures of the red lines λ6 374 and λ6 776. The author emphasizes the possible relationship of those nebular lines to the disturbed region of the Sun's marginal part as manifested by the groups of flocculi and faculae. As a result of cautious survey of the red part of the spectrum the author found a number of unknown emission lines, being confirmed by microphotometric traces. Their approximative wave length are: 6 767 (violet component of λ6 776), 6 535, 6 528 6 502, 6 449 6 416, 6 381 (red component of λ6 374), 6 374, 6 364, 6 360, 6 316, 6 299, 6 262. The line λ6 364, the violet components of λ6 374, and the line λ6 299 are respectively so closely situated by the well known nebular lines, λ6 364 and λ6 302 (identified by Bowen by to OI forbidden lines). The author is tempted to identify them each other. Also the identity of the line λ6 381 to the line λ6 381 to the line λ6 378.81 found by Adams and Joy in the spectrum of RS Ophiuchi is suggested. The line λ6 528 is very near to SiI-forbidden line 6 526,88 predicted by Fowler. λ6 316 and λ6 449 also seem to be related to the predicted forbbiden KV-lines 6 316.6 and 6 446.5 respectively.

Author.

Determination of Longitude and Latitude of Some Stations in the Western Japan Sea District of Honshu

By Masahisa Torao

(Japanese.) [Tokyo Astr. Obs. Rep., 5 (1938), 219-227.]. This is the continuation of the series of astronomical position determination of the first class geodetic points within our area, that have been planned by the Geodetic Committee of Japan. In the summer of 1937 the author made an expedition to the mentioned district to carry out the observations with the Bamberg transit instrument of 70 mm aperture and a pair of chronometers. For the longitude work, the time determinations were made by the transit observations of stars with the nonpersonal registering micrometer and the comparisons of chronometers by registering the wireless time signals from the JJC station. The latitudes were determined by Talcott method with the star pairs selected from Boss P.G.C. After full investigations of errors of various sources the final results came out as given in the table, in which are appended the results of geodetic determinations together with the deviation of plumb-line.

Stations	L_a	L_σ	ψ_a	φ_σ	Deviations of Plumb Line ξ	η
(1)	8h56m59s.802	1s.048	35°31′24″.00	4″.87	+19″.13	−15″.21
(2)	8 51 55 .069	56 .007	35 30 37 .67	22 .70	−14 .97	−11 .46
(3)	8 48 56 .289	57 .594	34 59 8 .16	51 .68	−16 .48	−16 .04

Engineering

Some Problems in Increasing the Extraction of Oil

By Tatsuo Otagawa and Shogoro Kimura

[Journal of Mining Institute of Japan, Vol. 52, 612 (1936), 203-222.]—This paper describes certain fundamental relations governing the rate of flow of oil from a reservoir from the point of view of production engineering, formulating certain guilding principles for their possible application to various methods of oil extraction in the field.

Oil sands in strata are subjected to compression due to folding of the formation, and also by gas, and by both hydrostatic and rock pressures. By studying the effects of pressure on the porosity and coefficient of permeability of sand in a 5,000 atm. pressure apparatus, it is concluded that the reduction in porosity resulted in more compact arrangement of grains and the collapse of particles, which cannot materially hinder the accumulation of oil. However, this condition increases extraordinary the resistance to flow, thus rapidly diminishing the productivity of wells.

The efficient withdrawal of oil from a reservoir involves many engineering factors, such as:

(1) Increasing the head causes the

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flow through sand (utilization and maintenance of reservoir energy, repressuring and water flooding).

(2) Diminishing the distance through which the oil flows (spacing of well, and underground mining).

(3) Increasing the coefficient of permeability (cleaning and shooting the well, and diminishing the viscosity, specific gravity, and surface tension of the oil).

The author emphasise that the technique for oil production is well established through investigating the law of oil drainage through sand, and express the belief that there must be a substantial reward for increased efficiency, with a recognition of the importance of sand studies and permeability determinations in the field.

Authors

On a Method of Producing Good Protective Films on Mg Alloys

By Seiji Goto and Hirosi Asada

(Japanese) [Tetsu-to-Hagane, 22 (1936), 798-800, with figs. and photos.]—Cd-Zn-Mg alloys, containing a large amount of manganese, are fairly resistable, such as AZG or AZF, to a 3% salt solution. If however, these alloys are heated to about 200°C in air after machining, their surfaces are convered with a certain film which is much more resistable as described below.

The average loss in weight from a sample containing Cd 4%, Zn 3%, Mn 1.8% and Mg 91.2%, heated to about 200°C, is 0.9% of its initial weight of 35 gm (test piece for tension test), when immersed in a 3% solution of common salt for 28 days. Its strength also declined from 23 kg/mm² to 19 kg/mm². The corrosion that occurred in two or three pits were caused by defects in the film, i.e. pitting corrosion.

In the case of the unheated sample, in which the loss in weight was 1.3% and the reduction in strength 7 kg/mm², there was a general corrosion around the surface.

For studying the effects of Cd and Zn on this resistable film, Cd-Mn-Mg and Zn-Mn-Mg alloys in various proportions were prepared. Each of them were heated to 150, 200, 250, and 300°C and comparisons made of their corrodibility, qualitatively, with the unheated specimens after immersion in a 3% salt solution.

From the results they conclude that with Zn up to 2%, no harm is done to the surface film, while Cd up to 6% aids in the formation of film, and the more manganese it contains, the more anticorrosive becomes the film. About 200°C is the best temperature for heating to produce this film.

Authors

Irreversibility of Gas Absorption in Various Kinds of Iron

By Keizo Iwase, Masaji Fukushima and Saburo Mitsui

(Japanese.) [Tetsu-to-Hagane, 22 (1936), 770-773, with figs.]—Gas absorption experiments were carried out with various kinds of iron and its alloys in order to study the effect of impurities and heat treatment. The experiments showed that virgin iron, when it contains no other metallic element, behaves toward gas reversibly, while impure iron behaves irreversibly. That is, pure iron absorbs the same quantity of gas whether it is once heated in the gas or not, while impure iron absorbs the gas in less amount when it is once heated in the gas as compared with virgin iron.

Authors

On a New Method of Calculating Secondary Stresses in the Frame of a Bridge Truss, and Some Characteristics of Such Trusses

By Hukuhei Takabeya and Tadaaki Sakai

(Japanese). [Jour. Civ. Eng. Soc., Japan Vol. 23, No. 3 (March, 1937), p. 251-267, with figs.]

The Distribution of Stresses around a Circular Tunnel with Lining

By Bennosuke Tanimoto

(Japanese). [Jour. Civ. Eng. Soc., Japan, Vol. 23, No. 4, (April, 1937), p. 357-379, with figs.]—As an example of the problem of gravity stress, the author succeeded in solving the distribution of stress around a horizontal circular tunnel in a gravitating elastic solid having a lining of uniform thickness, using Airy's stress-function. Supposing that the displacement is a plane strain, the forms of the stress and that of the displacement, which are obtained by adequate integration of the stress in polar coordinates, are sufficient for the boundary conditions, one of which is at the inner and outer circular boundaries, and the other at infinity. For convenience of calculation, assuming that the surcharge is sufficiently large, the effect of the top surface is neglected. In numerical examples, assuming that the surroundings consist of earth and the lining of concrete, the max. hoop-stress

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in concrete is about 50 kg/sq. cm.; in which the surcharge is 15 m, the inner radius of the tunnel 5 m, and the thickness of the lining 40 cm.

Author

On the Properties of Manchoukuo Tars, Heavy Oil, Middle Oil and Cut-Back Tars Prepared with Heavy Oil and Residual Tars as Road Making Materials

By Eizo Nishikawa and Yosio Yamashita

(Japanese). [Report of the Research Office of Public Works, Dept. of the Home Affairs, Japan, No. 39, (Nov., 1937), p. 131-163.]—The chemical and physical properties of Manchoukuo tars, heavy oil, and middle oil were tested as road making material, and it was found that heavy oil was best suited for cut-back oil. Twenty-eight samples of cut-back tars were prepared with heavy oil and residual tars that were made from raw tar by distillation up to various temperatures, such as 235°, 250°, 270°, 300°C. All the cut-back tars were again tested for its properties as road making material. The distillation temperatures and the proportions of the oil and residual tars for making suitable road tars, and complying with the specifications for hot-application tars of grades D, E, F, and G, were determined. The specifications will be found in Office Report No. 25. The results are summarized in a diagram showing the relation of the distillation temperature and heavy oil percentage to the grade of the road tar.

Authors

The Effect of Knots on the Compressive Strength of Wood

By Toru Mori

(Japanese). [T. I. J. A. No. 5, 1937.] — The mechanical properties of knotty wood used in building constructions, bridges, etc. have not been studied to the same extent as those of clear wood, although the former is more important than the latter. For this reason, the author has made some experimental researches on kotty wood, of which this paper is the first report. It deals with the effect of knots on the compressive strength parallel to the grain.

(1) The kind of knot, whether sound knot, loose knot, etc. has a far-reaching effect, but sound knots which checks in them are similar to those without checks.

(2) The difference owing to the particular species of the wood (two species were tested) is not clear.

(3) The strength of a short column having a knot on its centre line can be obtained by the following formula, if provided the strength of the clear wood is known:

$$y=1-(1-y_1)/x,$$

where y is the ratio of knotty-wood-strength to clear-wood-strength,
x is the ratio of column-breadth to knot-breadth,
y^1 is a constant depending upon the knot-quality.

The values of y^1 are as follows:

Author

Kind of knot	y_1
Sound	0.6~0.5
Semi-sound	0.5~0.2
Loose	0.2~0.1
Decayed	0.1~ 0
Holes	0

A Study of Wood Rot by Artificial Culture of the Fungus

By Saburo Soshiroda

(Japanese). [T. I. J. A., No. 4, 1937.] — With a view to obtaining reliable data on wood-rot affecting Japanese timber most used in building construction, the hyphae of Poria vaporaria Pers, which is regarded as doing the worst damage to wood, was cultivated artificially, and a variety of pasteurized wood test-pieces was inoculated with the mycelium. The test pieces were gently placed in test tubes, at constant temperature, and left in the tubes for 3 or 6 months, after which they were removed, and the altered weight and strength due to the rot carefully compared, as follows:

(1) Comparison of the percentage of loss in weight and strength due to the effect of rot on the heart and sap wood.

(2) The percentage of loss in weight of the test pieces owing to rot for every month during the 6 months.

(3) Comparison of percentage of loss in weight and strength due to the effect of rot of the wood of various water content.

(4) Comparison of percentage of loss in weight and strength due to the rot in wood from various localities.

Author

On the Contraction of Concrete (continued)

By Kazuo Ono

(Japanese). [T. I. J. A., No. 5, 1937.] —Part 1. Observations on Concrete Structures. (2)

In a reinforced concrete structure in

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Tokyo, cracks in the concrete floor, caused by shrinkage of the concrete were observed. The concrete of the affected part consisted of Velocement (rapid high strengthening portland cement) and Asano portland cement: the former used in the wet consistency and the latter in both dry and wet consistency. The concrete was from 7 to 14 months old. It was found that the concrete of wet consistency had contracted into a stronger mass than that of dry consistency. The effects of the two cements on concrete shrinkage were not clearly distinguishable.

Part 2. Researches in the Laboratory. (2)

In the laboratory, measurements were made of the shrinkage of the Tamagawa-sand-cement-mortars, made from 4 cements (2 portland-cements and 2 rapid high strengthening portland-cements) by means of a water-cement ratio of 0.65 and a mixture of cement 1 and Tamagawa sand 3.3, (which gives to each mortar about the same consistency, that is, a flow of 200%). The size of the test specimens was $4\times4\times20$ cm and there were 4 curing conditions in water namely 0 days, 1, 3, and 7 days.

The results of the tests were as follows:

(1) The characteristics of the time-shrinkage curves of the four cement-mortar specimen were about the same.

(2) It did not at all follow that, because a rapid high strengthening cement was used, the mortar was necessarily quick shrinking.

(3) Shrinkage of mortar is retarded by water curing, but if the time of curing is less than 7 days, the mortar, when brought into contact with the air, contracts with almost the same shrinkage as that of the test piece that has not been cured in water.

Author

The Influence of Ground Elasticity on the Vibration of Buildings

By Ryo Tanabashi

(Japanese). [T. I. J. A., No. 5, 1937.] —The mode and period of the horizontal vibration of buildings depend not only on the flexibility of the building frame but also on the elasticity of the ground on which the building stands.

The author solved the problem mathematically on the assumption that the building frames are rectangular, uniformly rigid, and further that, besides the deformation of the frame, the building as a whole is liable to incline with respect to the ground.

Although the period of the first mode of free vibration is considerably prolonged by the elasticity of the ground, those of higher modes are only slightly affected by ground elasticity. An elastic ground adds to the safety of the frame from earthquake shocks, especially when the period of the first free vibration of the building is longer than the predominating vibration period of the ground, thus adding to the aseismic property of the building.

Author

Distribution of Horizontal Forces to each Frame of a Building

By Ryo Tanabashi and Masanobu Itomi

(Japanese). [T. I. J. A., No. 6, 1937.] —The theoretical distribution of horizontal forces caused by wind pressure or earthquake shock to each frame of a building becomes a very complex problem when some of the frames are rigidly joined rectangular frames and the others are braced portals. The author solved the case rigidly, and also the case when the bed of the building is elastic and rigid girders connect the footing of each frame.

The result shows that the distributing factors cannot be determined without such analyses, and that the factors vary widely with the elasticity of the ground and the rigidity of the girders connecting the footings.

Author's

The Effect of Ground on the Aerodynamic Characteristics of a Wing

By Ichiro Tani

(Japanese). [J. Soc. Aero. Sci. Nippon, Vol. 3, No. 26 (1937), p. 659-674, with figs. and tables.] — This paper deals with the effect of ground on the aerodynamic characteristics of a monoplane wing. In the first part of the paper theoretical calculation are worked out, taking into account the finite dimensions of the chord and the thickness of the wing. The results of calculations are then reduced to a simple form, readily available for use. The second part of the paper gives the results of wing model experiments that were carried out in the 2 m wind tunnel of the Aeronautical Research Institute, Tokyo Imperial University. For moderate values of the lift coefficient, the calculated effects of ground agree very well with the experiments.

The changes in the drag coefficient c_x, the coefficient of pitching moment about the leading edge c_m, and the angle of attack α due to the ground effect at a

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certain value of lift coefficient c_z may be summarised as follows: c_x is reduced for all values of c_z, c_m is reduced and α is increased for small values of c_z, and c_n is increased and α is reduced for moderately large values of c_z. The maximum lift is somewhat reduced when the distance of the wing above the ground is of moderate value, while it is increased when the distance becomes extraordinary small.

Author.

On the Flow Around the Propeller

By Sanji Kawada

(Japanese). [J. Soc. Aero. Sci. Nippon, Vol. 4, No. 27 (1937), p. 767-773, with figs.]—The potential problem relating to the flow induced by a finite number of helical vortices is investigated, and a stream function anologous to two dimensional or three dimensional flow with axial symmetry is shown.

Theoretical stream lines were drawn from this stream function and compared with the stream lines obtained experimentally by various methods.

Author

On a Simplified Method of Calculating Propeller Performances and Some of the Results Obtained

By Matao Sanuki

(Japanese). [J. Soc. Aero. Sci. Nippon, Vol. 4, No. 28 (1937), p. 851-864, with figs. and tables.] — Several simplifications of the method proposed by Prof. Moriya are shown, the induction factors being given in Table 2-4 for ready use, some of the difficulties likely to be encountered in evaluating the graphical integration are solved.

As examples, calculations are shown for propellers of pitch-diameter ratios 1 and 1.5, propellers of uniform circulation, propellers in a non-uniform stream, and for propellers of various degrees of strength.

Author

A Special Aging Phenomenon in Alloy Steel

By Keiichi Ota

(Japanese). [Tetsu-to-Hagane, Vol. 23, No. 4 (1937), p. 354-359, with Figs., Photos and Tables.] — The elongation and reduction in area of a tensile specimen freshly taken from a large alloy steel forging was found to increase strikingly as observed from a specimen that was tested after a few days, without any change in the tensile strength, but with marked change in the fracture.

This aging phenomenon appeared more distinctly in the tension test than in the impact test. By heating the specimen, even at 100°C., a marked effect was caused. With increase in cross-section of the specimen, it was found necessary to heat it for a longer time, proportional to the cross-sectional area, in order to eliminate perfectly the aging phenomenon. The elongation and reduction of area in the steel in the cast condition rise and almost attain the values for the forged condition, provided that the time and temperature of heating are sufficient. This aging phenomenon appeared conspicuously in the form of flakes in the steel forging. Both before and after aging of the specimen, there was considerable difference in the hydrogen content. By heating the aged specimen in hydrogen gas for 1 hour at 500°C., the mechanical properties, the hydrogen content, and the appearance of the fracture in the specimen were restored to their original states.

Fundamental Studies of Si-Mn Steel as Spring Steels

By Yoshimasa Kojima

(Japanese). [Tetsu-to-Hagane, Vol. 23, No. 4 (1937), p. 774-786, with Figs., Photos and Tables.]—Si-Mn steel, containing 0.5% C, 2% Si, and 1% Mn were selected as standard, and the effects of the elements Cr, Ni, Mo, V, Co, and W upon the properties of this steel were examined.

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CHAPTER XXXIV

PRESS AND PUBLICATIONS

Press

Early History

Yomiuri Even in Old Japan some form of public announcement was issued from time to time, like the Acta Diurna of the era of the Roman Empire, but perhaps the present subject may appropriately be begun with the Yomiuri, the oldest semblance of the newspaper, which name can be literally translated "reading aloud and selling." The Yomiuri sheets were so named because the venders read aloud the contents of the newspaper on the street while soliciting buyers. The Yomiuri sheets were essentially the Flugblatt of the Middle Ages of Europe. They consisted of single printed sheets, or pamphlets of several pages, recording the latest events of the period. Even in those days the progress of wood-block prints permitted the appearance of illustrations in the sheets. In many cases the illustrations were the outstanding feature, and the descriptive matter was of secondary importance. In this respect the Yomiuri differed from the Flugblatt of Europe.

Its Publishers Old records are lacking to identify the publishers of the Yomiuri, but it appears that the publishers of newspapers, or rather equivalents to newspapers, in the earlier part of the Tokugawa period (about 250 years before the Restoration of Meiji, 1868) were men of little fame and honour. Even at the end of the Tokugawa period it appears that the publishers of the Yomiuri were men of so lowly positions that they were not permitted to enter the society of even woodblock printers. It is, however, considered likely that this early form of newspaper failed to make any progress owing to government pressure. The Yomiuri carried contents that were often inflammatory and distasteful to the government. Suspension of publication was ordered so frequently that no decent publishers dared to take it up as an enterprise. Only men of low repute engaged in the business often against the law.

Printing of the Yomiuri sheets was done by wood-block prints. The contents of the Yomiuri sheets can generally be divided into two, prose and poetry. This distinction, it appears, existed from the early part of the Tokugawa period. In the era of Genroku (1688–1704) the hawkers sold their sheets on the street either calling the attention of prospective buyers by singing, with or without the accompaniment of the samisen, or merely reading aloud the contents. At the end of the Tokugawa period sheets were sold with the sellers singing popular ballads.

Its Contents A perusal of those Yomiuri sheets still extant shows that at the outset of the development the chief interest of the sheets lay in the illustrations. What are believed to be the oldest Yomiuri have illustrations of the Battle of the Osaka Natsu-no-jin in May in the first year of the era of Genna (1615), accompanied by descriptive matter. Judging from the frequent issuance of suppression or suspension orders, Yomiuri sheets appear to have been published and sold in abundance during the eras of Empo (1673–81), Jokyo (1684–88) and Genroku (1688–1704). In Western Japan, with Osaka as the centre, there is evidence of the popularity of erotic contents in Yomiuri sheets, featuring such stuff as stories of double suicides. Since the vendetta of the famous Forty-seven Ronin, vendetta stories formed the chief subject of interest and after the era of Genroku, subjects of natural calamities were featured. In the eras of Bunka (1804–18) and Bunsei (1818–30) the enforcement of justice and morality undertaken by the Shogunate government, stressing the protection of right and chastisement of wrong, was reflected in the stories featured in the Yomiuri sheets of those days, even in the accounts of natural calamities and those of sex relations. Because the stories were written by men of low repute, the contents of the Yomiuri sheets in many cases were repellent in tone. Immediately before and after the Restoration of Meiji, accounts of the civil disturbances were written, but by this time the number of Yomiuri sheets had considerably decreased owing to the appearance of

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newspapers in the more correct sense of the term.

Fusétsugaki Another equivalent of the modern newspaper, in addition to the Yomiuri, was a periodical named "Fusétsugaki" or Book of Reports, which carried foreign intelligence. These books were of two kinds, one with Dutch and one with Chinese reports. After the third Tokugawa Shogun adopted the policy of seclusion, it was only China and the Netherlands which had intercourse with Japan. Captain "Yanyos" (Jan Josten) of Holland, after Japan's adoption of the seclusion policy, presented annually a book descriptive of foreign affairs to the Shogunate government. It was the Oranda Fusétsugaki, or Book of Dutch Reports. The Chinese government in those days presented to the Shogunate government of Japan Chinese intelligence after the manner of the Dutchmen. Information obtained thus was placed in the hands of the Prime Minister and kept confidential, but after the American "black ships" came to knock at the door of Japan, permission was granted to make copies of those books for public circulation. The presentation of Dutch documents continued until the era of Ansei (1854–60), but as the country was opened to foreign intercourse this custom was discontinued at the request of the Dutch government, which instead of the customary annual volume presented Dutch newspapers to the Japanese government. It is considered certain that the newspapers thus presented to Japan were copies of the Javasche Courant, organ of the Government of Batavia.

Precursor of Modern Paper When the provincial clans requested that the Dutch Book of Reports be made public, the Shogunate government's Yosho Shirabésho, or Bureau for the Study of Western Learning, agreed and planned to publish it. This plan did not materialize, as the Dutch government then replaced the book with newspapers, but instead, the bureau translated the newspapers into Japanese and published them for general circulation. This was the precursor of the modern newspaper in Japan. Not content with this Dutch newspaper, the Shogunate government continued to translate and publish other newspapers from Holland and imported Chinese-language newspapers published by white Christian evangelists in Hong Kong, Shanghai and other places, and had them not only translated and annotated but printed and bound into books and entrusted Hyoshiro Yorodzuya, a book purveyor to the Shogunate government, with the public sale of these books. In general printing wooden types were used. For printing these Chinese newspapers imposition was adopted and for this purpose the Shogunate government had to establish a special department for type foundry. This enterprise was a reflection of the out-and-out principle the Shogunate government adopted for opening the country to foreign intercourse. Those books were chiefly published during the era of Bunkyu (1861–64). Hence they were popularly called Bunkyu Shimbun (newspaper).

Papers in Yokohama In the meantime, anti-foreign sentiment was gaining force in this country and after the era of Bunkyu this interfered with the translation and publication of foreign newspapers. Foreign residents of Yokohama, however, translated foreign-language newspapers and published then in Japanese and they were patronized by those who favoured opening the country to foreign intercourse. Men on the staff of the Bureau for the Study of Foreign Learning had an eye on foreign affairs and established a new institution for the purpose of translating into Japanese articles dealing with Japan which appeared in the English-language newspapers in Yokohama, such as the Japan Commercial News and Japan Times. Those translations were not printed but written by scribes and circulated among interested persons. The years during which this was done extended from 1863 to 1865. Foreign residents of Yokohama also published three Japanese-language newspapers, Kaigai Shimbun (Foreign Newspaper), Bankoku Shimbun (International Newspaper) and Rondon Shimbun (London Newspaper). Of these three, the Bankoku Shimbun had in its contents not only foreign intelligence but news of Yokohama and comment on the English-language newspapers of Yokohama; it introduced ideas of British civilization and carried many advertisements. This journal was edited ably in a characteristic style and published monthly. From this time general progress in newspaper-making was noticeable.

Foreign Language Papers The first foreign-language newspaper published in Japan was the Nagasaki Shipping List and Advertiser issued for the first time in the year 1861 by a resident Britisher, Mr. Hanseard. It was a weekly. The publisher soon moved to Yokohama, where he continued his publication under the name of The Japan Herald, the first issue of which was brought out in December of the same year. He

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employed Mr. Black, another Britisher, then a resident of the port city, as editor-in-chief. The example set by the Japan Herald was soon followed by the appearance of the Japan Commercial News in 1863, a weekly published by a Portuguese. In October of the same year, the Japan Herald, in addition to the weekly, started a daily newspaper which featured advertisements. In the year 1865 the Commercial News was discontinued and Mr. Rickerby, a banker, bought the newspaper equipment and started the Japan Times in September of the year. In 1867 Mr. Black had a dispute with the new owner of the Japan Herald, and, leaving the paper, he issued the Japan Gazette, an evening paper. The popularity of the Japan Gazette overwhelmed the Japan Times and the latter lost much patronage and finally had to discontinue publication. The disappearance of the Japan Times, however, was followed by the launching of the Japan Mail. In addition to these newspapers, there was another English-language newspaper, having the name of the Japan Express, published by an American, whose first issue appeared in 1866. The copies of this newspaper were hand-written, carved in wood blocks, and printed. While the name of the publisher and the period of publication are unknown, it is recorded in a diplomatic document in the possession of the French government that this journal represented the American interests. In addition to these papers, there were also a French newspaper, L'Echo du Japon, in the era of Kéio (1865–68), an English magazine of caricature, the Japan Punch, which was published continuously for 20 years from the era of Bunkyu (1861–64), and a French magazine of caricature entitled Tobayé. These publications stimulated directly or indirectly the birth of the Japanese modern newspapers.

The Restoration Demand for foreign intelligence was the principal factor in the birth of newspapers in the East as in the West. In Japan, too, newspapers of the earlier periods carried much foreign news, but when there were big developments like civil disturbances they played up internal affairs. The Restoration of Meiji in 1868 afforded the press of Japan much scope for development. Newspaper editors in Yédo, the present Tokyo, were excellent scholars and their papers were much superior to those edited in the provinces. One of the papers in Yédo already advocated parliamentary politics as early as this period. Newspapers published by those holding the "Emperor-centric" policy were filled with articles which merely reflected on the intelligence of the editors themselves. They only advocated the "Emperor-centric" policy and did not propose any advanced ideas about reforms. Newspapers affiliated with the Shogunate government enjoyed much larger circulation than their competitors and it is stated that one of them had a circulation of 3,000.

The Press Law

The press law in Japan was enforced by the Government for the first time in February, 1869. This was the signal for several new newspapers to spring up. The Government, however, interfered so much with the press that sales of newspapers were much hindered and the healthy progress of the press was checked. While the business side of the press was dull, editing itself attained notable progress. Political news had become unusually constructive and efforts were made to establish a new civilization and propagate new and advanced ideas among the people.

Modern Papers

The Yokohama Mainichi The first true Japanese daily newspaper appeared in December, 1870, with the publication of the Yokohama Mainichi Shimbun. Not only was this newspaper a daily but it consisted of a single foreign-style paper sheet with printing done with lead types. In outside appearance it had the semblance of the modern newspaper. Although its contents were much inferior to those of the newspapers that were founded later in Tokyo, it resembled English-language newspapers in that it carried many advertisements.

More Papers Born The year 1872 saw several more dailies born, newspapers which were more perfect in appearance and reading matter than their predecessors. Those newspapers included the Tokyo Nichi Nichi Shimbun, Yubin Hochi Shimbun, and the Nisshin Shinjishi, the last being edited under the supervision of Mr. Black, formerly editor of the Japan Herald. The Nichi Nichi and Hochi remain to this day but the Shinjishi had to change hands in 1875 when the Government, in an effort to bring pressure to bear upon democratic newspapers, controlled the activities of foreigners in newspapers. The change of ownership brought decadance to the journal and the paper was discontinued shortly afterwards.

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Government and Press

Era of Terrorism An era of terrorism dawned upon Japan's journalism in 1875 when the government, dissatisfied with the way in which the press in general stirred up the discontented elements of the people, revised the press law with the avowed purpose of curbing the influence of the newspapers. Severe punishment was provided for violation of the press law. Journalists writing articles censuring the government were fined or imprisoned. Indeed, this was the first time journalists in Japan were exposed to punishment. Not content with this cruel legislation, the government in July, 1877, invested the Home Minister with power to suppress newspapers or delay their publication, and he was thus free to bring pressure to bear upon them as he saw fit. This objectionable law worked havoc with the press, whose progress was much hampered thereby.

The era in which newspapers served as political party organs began in 1881. Two years before that time the movement in favour of instituting the Diet was launched by the late Taisuké Itagaki and others.

Revised Press Law The government's desperate policy of oppression toward the liberals of the period, which resulted in the prohibition of the formation of political associations and the oppression of newspapers and magazines, came to a definite halt on December 26, 1887, with the enforcement of a new government decree. Two days later a revised press law was issued, considerably modifying the strict control of the press, which had had the effect of almost exterminating all the free political organs of the country. The new press law was drafted on the basis of the principle of "freedom of the press," recognized in the Japanese Constitution which was to be promulgated shortly. The new press law was received by journalistic circles with much satisfaction. Indeed, the modified press law marks a turning point in the history of the development of the modern newspaper in this country.

Whereas under the old law a prospective publisher had to apply for a permit to start a newspaper, by the new regulations he had only to notify the authorities of his intention to issue a journal. The prefectural governor was robbed of his power to suppress newspapers or confiscate the newspaper plants and only the Home Minister was given such power. Unreserved criticism for public good was admitted, and compared with the despotic rule that had prevailed before, newspaper management under the new law became markedly free.

Emergence of Independent Dailies

The approaching promulgation of the Constitution, coupled with the removal of the ban on the formation of political associations and the growing political enthusiasm among the people, revived political newspapers. In the meantime, the Diet was instituted and the majority of the best-known editors of influential newspapers were elected to the legislature. As a natural consequence, the newspapers of these editors became their political tools and alienated public sympathy. Their popularity showed a decided tendency to wane.

The Kokumin and Yorozu While the political organs were thus losing influence, a strictly politically-independent newspaper which refused to cater for the popular taste of the people but which assumed an attitude to instruct the public was founded and caught the fancy of the intellectuals of the day. Its editing, however, was on the old lines and this newspaper never became popular. In the year 1890 Mr. Iichiro Tokutomi founded the Kokumin Shimbun, a popular newspaper. This journal enjoyed the support of the masses and soon other papers more or less imitated the style of editing inaugurated by the Kokumin. In 1892 the late Mr. Shuroku Kuroiwa founded the Yorozu Choho, which added to the Kokumin's style of editing a strong spice of sensationalism, devoting much of its space to the publication of detective and love stories. The Yorozu invaded the fields of the Miyako Shimbun, Yamato Shimbun and other newspapers then having the largest circulation. Thus, the promulgation of the Constitution served to bring about marked progress in the development of the modern newspaper in this country.

Chinese War and the Press The Sino-Japanese War (1894–5) caused severe competition in news reporting. The Osaka Asahi Shimbun, by introducing new features in covering war news, greatly increased the number of its subscribers. In Tokyo the Chuo Shimbun, closely affiliated with the military, was conspicuous for its activities in the issuance of extras and consequently gained an enlarged circulation. Other papers also sent war correspondents and featured news from the front. The Yorozu then was the most popular newspaper, having a circulation of 50,000. In point of circulation the newspapers of that time were in the follow-

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ing order: The Yorozu Choho, Kokumin Shimbun, Tokyo Asahi Shimbun, Miyako Shimbun, Nihon Shimbun, Chuo Shimbun, Tokyo Nichi Nichi Shimbun, Jiji Shimpo, Mainichi Shimbun, Yubin Hochi Shimbun and Yamato Shimbun. The war was also responsible for the appearance of influential provincial newspapers, including the Fukuoka Nichi Nichi Shimbun in Kyushu, the Shin Aichi in Nagoya, the Kahoku Shimpo in Sendai and the Hokkai Times in Hokkaido.

After the Russian War

Catering to the Public Following the Sino-Japanese War the majority of the newspapers in Tokyo adopted an impartial attitude toward politics and concentrated their efforts in popularizing pages. To advance their sales they resorted to means which often savoured of vulgarism and received public criticism. The city of Osaka witnessed a duel between the Asahi and the Mainichi not only in business but in news gathering. In the meantime, the Russo-Japanese War (1904–5) occurred to start keen competition in war coverage. The Asahi both in Tokyo and Osaka, the Osaka Mainichi and the Jiji Shimpo competed severely in the matter of extras and increased their circulation. At the end of the war the peace treaty was signed at Portsmouth, but the peace terms were found unsatisfactory and stoutly opposed by all the newspapers of Tokyo and Osaka, with the exception of the Kokumin and the Chuo, both of Tokyo, the political organs of the then Government. Anti-peace mass meetings were held in Tokyo and Osaka, and in Tokyo the participants in the mass meeting, incited by inflammatory articles in one or two newspapers, turned into a mob and attacked the building of the Kokumin Shimbun. To suppress the mob the government had to proclaim martial law. The government simultaneously issued an urgent Imperial Ordinance and suspended the publication of the newspapers for certain periods which incited the public to violence. During one month shortly after the enforcement of the Imperial Ordinance the Yorozu, the Niroku, the Miyako, the Nihon, the Jimmin, the Asahi of Tokyo and Osaka, and other papers were suspended. Of these papers, the Niroku and the Osaka Asahi suffered suspension twice in a month.

Equilibrium of Influence The panic in the newspaper world thus brought about upset the equilibrium of influence. The Kokumin was robbed of much circulation; so was the Chuo. The Yorozu, with a special appeal to the youth of Japan, increased its circulation markedly. In Osaka the Mainichi took advantage of the suspension of publication which the Asahi suffered and invaded its unfortunate yet heretofore superior competitor's field, with the result that finally their influence in business and other respects became about even.

Motion Picture Utilized Several changes for the better were effected following the Russo-Japanese War, and it is noteworthy that the changes effected were all concerned with newspaper enterprises. The Kokumin, which had suffered a dwindling popularity since the paper became the object of public censure by supporting the government that signed a "humiliating peace treaty," issued provincial editions, an example which was soon followed by other newspapers. Shortly afterward the Hochi attained success by issuing an evening edition. This ambitious enterprise was also followed by several other competitors. As regards the contents of newspapers, the Yorodzu reported all sorts of sports and amusements; the Asahi bringhtened its pages with articles from the pen of famous men of letters like the late Soseki Natsumé, and the Hochi established a precedent by carrying a novel in serial form that suited home reading. On the business side, the Hochi took the initiative in establishing provincial branches. The Yamato promoted an exhibition and began a motion picture demonstration show throughout the country.

That these enterprises attained favourable results soon showed in the increased number of circulation. According to reports considered reliable, the Osaka Asahi topped the list with 350,000. The Osaka Mainichi came next with 300,000, and the other papers came in the following order: the Hochi, 200,000; the Yorodzu, the Kokumin and the Yamato each 150,000; the Tokyo Asahi, 80,000, and the others 30,000 or 40,000 each.

In the Taisho Era

Expansion of the Business One notable advance made by the press of Japan during the Taisho Era was the remarkable expansion of newspaper business. All first-class journals erected imposing structures for their offices and installed expensive high-speed presses. By the end of the era all the leading newspapers in Tokyo and Osaka had become public corporations wih their capitalizations above the ¥1,000,000 mark. The earthquake and fire of 1923 reduced

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to ashes the majority of the newspapers in Tokyo, except the Hochi, Nichi Nichi and Miyako. Of the unfortunate sufferers, those financially well off got to a good start and soon recovered their former positions, but those less financially favoured failed to raise their heads again and had to be content with insignificant showings. At present the Osaka Asahi and Osaka Mainichi possess more than 1,000,000 subscribers each, and big papers in Tokyo have subscribers approaching the above figure. It is not an exaggeration to say that the achievements made by the press of Japan after the dawn of the era of Showa (1926–) are a high-water mark of Japan's modern culture.

Present-Day Newspapers

Of numerous papers, the Asahi and the Mainichi are the most widely circulated and the most popular with our intellectuals. Both of these papers have their main offices in Osaka. They also have a large office each in Tokyo, one being called the Tokyo Asahi and the other the Tokyo Nichi Nichi. Recently the Yomiuri has come to run a close second in the race for press leadership. Not only are these papers widely read in the larger cities, but they also vie with one another in outrivalling the minor local press in provincial cities and towns by issuing their own local editions which possess the features of the local press in addition to the features essentially their own.

The more influential dailies in Tokyo and Osaka pay special attention to international news, that is, to cables from abroad. They are eager to get foreign news as speedily as possible. Japan's largest news agency, the Domei Tsushin Sha, has been and is obtaining a great deal of news from abroad in concert with the world's influential news agencies. Not to be behind, the Asahi, the Mainichi, the Yomiuri and other large papers all have their own special correspondents stationed in the principal cities of the world. So complete is its network of communications that our press, coupled with the spread of radio and periodicals, has done much to augment knowledge of international affairs on the part of the nation at large.

The reason why the Asahi and the Mainichi have attained the present prosperity may be found in their critical attitude towards the successive powers that be, as well as in the speed and accuracy with which they furnish news to the readers. This has been particularly so with the Asahi, with the result that it has received strong support from the nation's intellectuals. Since the Manchurian incident, however, there has been much change in the attitude of editorial writers of our dailies. Just as the press in other countries has lately been compelled to alter its functions, so in recent years our influential dailies, the Asahi, the Mainichi, the Yomiuri, etc., have come to find it necessary to modify their tone owing to the great change that has taken place in the political situation. In the main, the tendency is now for the press to support the Government's policy. It must not be supposed that the Japanese press is controlled by law. Still, one can easily imagine that a considerable change has been made in the functions of the Japanese press, whose duty it is to guide public opinion aright, simply as a result of editorial appraisal of the limits within which freedom can be exercised safely and profitably.

Activities in 1937 Since the outbreak of the present hostilities between Japan and China, conditions, political, economic and what not, in this country have greatly changed. It is natural that the press should also be influenced by the change and be run in accordance with the spirit of the times. The birth of the Domei Tsushinsha, the organization of the Koho Kyokai in Manchoukuo, the organization of the Information Committee, the enforcement of the law controlling seditious literature, the organization of the Cabinet Information Bureau and the invocation of Article 27 of the Press Law (governing the control of information regarding military secrets) have not only circumscribed the freedom of the press in giving information, but evidently are manifestations of the Government's intentions to mobilize the press for the good of the country.

The times being such, the editorial policy of the newspapers have come, consciously or unconsciously, to cooperate with the Governmental policies and great efforts have been made to give fresh informations on the progress of warfare in China, sending many correspondents to the front where not a few of them sacrificed their lives. By the good use of cinema leading papers are satisfying people with shows of living pictures of battles.

Government's Journalistic Role The spirit of the times was carried forward a step further when with the development of the China situation the Government has successfully launched upon a journalistic career. The Shuho (Weekly), the Shashin Shuho (Photo-

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graphic Weekly) and the Zaisei (Finances) are representative magazines published by the Government. The Shuho, a supplement of the Official Gazette, is edited and published by the Information Bureau of the Cabinet. It is sold at 5 sen a copy. Official weekly though it is, the Shuho is far from being ideally edited, but in circulation it is so successful that it is now estimated at 350,000. Its cheap price and authenticity evidently account for the success of the Shuho. The weekly's rationalized salesmanship has also done a great deal for building up its great circulation. The weekly is sold systematically and efficiently through the bookstores and news stands where the Official Gazette is on sale. A similar sales campaign is adopted for all other official magazines, which, therefore, are conducted on a paying basis. Shashin Shuho which is only three months old at the present writing (April, 1938) is claimed to boast of a circulation of 150,000 copies.

Number of Newspapers

The number of daily newspapers in Japan proper in December, 1937 was 1,208. In addition, there were on the same day 609 newspapers issued 4 times or more a month and 5,980 newspapers issued 3 times or less a month. All these 7,797 papers come under the category of "newspapers" and are so treated by the Government. The newspapers classified according to prefectures follow :

Prefecture	Daily Papers	Issued 4 times or more a Month	Others and Total
Tokyo	254	120	1,920
Kyoto	31	10	322
Osaka	95	62	745
Kanagawa	19	11	133
Hyogo	48	32	347
Nagasaki	10	8	75
Niigata	23	26	143
Saitama	7	3	52
Gumma	14	8	68
Chiba	14	5	71
Ibaraki	19	6	84
Tochigi	15	11	67
Nara	9	2	81
Mié	16	8	96
Aichi	74	25	496
Shizuoka	62	2	173
Yamanashi	8	4	27
Shiga	18	4	85
Gifu	12	2	73
Nagano	40	9	328
Miyagi	15	5	63
Fukushima	38	4	107
Iwaté	14	3	50
Aomori	12	20	73
Yamagata	12	8	57
Akita	7	20	60
Fukui	14	9	72
Ishikawa	10	11	61
Toyama	7	8	79
Tottori	3	3	38
Shimané	2	3	34
Okayama	10	4	83
Hiroshima	17	12	116
Yamaguchi	17	20	115
Wakayama	19	10	71
Tokushima	4	—	23
Kagawa	3	3	49
Ehimé	20	10	155
Kochi	4	4	45
Fukuoka	56	33	340
Oita	32	3	93
Saga	6	8	54
Kumamoto	7	5	58
Miyazaki	13	5	53
Kagoshima	6	2	65
Okinawa	6	7	25
Hokkaido	76	31	372
Total	1,208	609	7,797

Note: Besides there are 5,471 papers and periodicals without guarantee money, of which 214 are daily papers.

Mainly in Tokyo and Osaka The majority of leading newspapers are published in Tokyo and Osaka. This is because Tokyo is the capital of the Empire and Osaka is the centre of social and economic life in West Japan. The combined number of daily newspapers in the two largest cities is 30 per cent of all and their combined circulation covers almost all parts of this country. Large daily papers have their own provincial editions of more than 20 kinds. The spheres of provincial editions are divided between the large papers of Tokyo and Osaka. Tokyo papers publish provincial editions for Eastern Japan, Hokkaido and Saghalien, while Osaka papers issue those for Western Japan, Shikoku, Kyushu, Korea and Formosa. These provincial editions eat into the business spheres of country papers. Recently, Tokyo and Osaka papers have been issuing Manchurian editions. Next to these cities in the number of their papers come Aichi (Nagoya), Hokkaido, Kyoto, Hyogo (Kobé), Fukuoka and Nagano prefectures, reflecting the extent of cultural development of those localities. Okinawa prefecture (Loochoos) issues only 16, the smallest number of all, and 19 are issued in Tokushima prefecture in Shikoku.

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Increase or Decrease The following table gives the number of newspapers which increased or decreased each year, from 1926 to 1937:

	Sum Total	With Guarantee Money				Without Guarantee Money			
		Total	Daily	4 Times or more Monthly	3 Times or Less Monthly	Total	Daily	4 Times or More Monthly	3 Times or Less Monthly
1926	7,600	5,089	861	344	3,884	2,511	174	165	2,172
1927	8,350	5,438	916	380	4,142	2,912	177	170	2,565
1928	8,445	5,482	966	399	4,117	2,963	184	178	2,601
1929	9,191	5,917	1,020	417	4,480	3,274	201	193	2,880
1930	10,130	5,995	1,031	428	4,536	4,135	184	221	3,730
1931	10,666	6,290	1,083	476	4,731	4,376	197	247	3,932
1932	11,118	6,301	1,124	463	4,714	4,817	206	241	4,370
1933	11,860	6,678	1,179	461	5,038	5,182	210	261	4,711
1934	12,166	7,081	1,219	470	5,392	5,084	215	258	4,611
1935	12,101	7,180	1,222	506	5,452	4,921	219	295	4,407
1936	12,820	7,531	1,226	564	5,741	5,289	209	498	4,582
1937	13,268	7,797	1,208	609	5,980	5,471	214	574	4,683

Circulation

Circulation Unpublished The circulation of daily newspapers in Japan ranges from about 4,000 to about 1,500,000. Japanese newspapers never make public their exact circulation. For this reason, it is impossible to get the exact figures of circulation of each or any. What is believed to be comparatively correct of the daily circulation of more than 1,100 newspapers is an estimate of about 19,000,000, and in 1937 the average monthly consumption of paper by all newspapers amounted to over 800,000,000 lbs. The number of households in Japan is over 17,500,000. Newspapers are far more widely read in cities than in provinces and they are read more in commercial and industrial districts than in agricultural districts. Tokyo has the largest number of daily newspapers, and the more powerful ones are a well-defined force in society. Among them are the Tokyo Asahi Shimbun, the Tokyo Nichi Nichi Shimbun, the Yomiuri Shimbun, the Hochi Shimbun, the Miyako Shimbun, the Kokumin Shimbun and the Chugai Shogyo Shimpo. The first-mentioned two papers are predominant, having an overwhelming influence in newspaper circles. As organizations for news reporting these two giant papers rank among the world's largest newspapers.

Osaka City has a relatively small number of daily papers, 86 in all, but, as regards circulation, the Osaka Asahi Shimbun, which is the head office of the Tokyo Asahi Shimbun, and the Osaka Mainichi Shimbun, which controls the Tokyo Nichi Nichi Shimbun, predominate all, and their circulation is said to be nearly the same. The two papers have practically the whole of Western Japan under their control, and their influence is felt stronger in Kyushu districts by the publication of the "Kyushu Asahi" and the "Western Mainichi" commenced in February, 1935.

Estimated Circulation Estimated circulation of leading dailies in Japan is as follows:

Tokyo	
Tokyo Asahi Shimbun	1,100,000
Tokyo Nichi Nichi Shimbun	1,000,000
Yomiuri Shimbun	1,000,000
Chugai Shogyo Shimpo	150,000
Kokumin Shimbun	150,000
Hochi Shimbun	300,000
Osaka	
Osaka Asahi Shimbun	1,300,000
Osaka Mainichi Shimbun	1,200,000
Leading Provincial Paper	
Shin-aichi, Nagoya	200,000
Fukuoka Nichi Nichi, Fukuoka	180,000
Hokkai Times, Sapporo	100,000
Kahoku Shimpo, Sendai	100,000

Subscriptions Subscription fees of Japanese daily papers in large cities range from ¥1.00 to ¥1.50. Airplanes are used for transportation between Osaka and Fukuoka, but in most cases it is done by trains and electric cars.

English-Language Papers English-language daily papers in Japan proper and colonies are as follows: The Japan Advertiser (American), The Japan Times (Japanese owned), both in Tokyo; the Osaka Mainichi English Edition (controlled by the Osaka Mainichi Shimbun); the Japan Chronicle (British), in Kobé;

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the Seoul Press (Japanese), in Keijo; and the Manchuria Daily News (Japanese), Dairen.

News Agencies

The long contemplated merger of the Shimbun Rengo Tsushin Sha (later Doméi Tsushin Sha) and the Nippon Dempo Tsushin Sha has been finally realized on June 1, 1936, the new agency assuming the name of the Dōméi Tsushin Sha. The Dōméi Tsushin Sha consists of over 200 Japanese daily newspapers as members and its directorate is organized by representatives of larger dailies and the Broadcasting Corporation of Japan. It maintains close relations with the A. P., U. P., Stefani, Reuter, D. N. B., and Havas, which have their branch offices in Japan in the Dōméi Building. Branch offices are located in Washington, New York, San Francisco, Los Angeles, London, Berlin, Paris, Moscow, Bangkok, Manila, Batavia, Singapore, Shanghai, Nanking, Hong Kong, and other important cities in China. The Nippon Dempo remains as a purely advertizing service agent after the merger.

LEADING NEWSPAPERS AND THEIR PRESIDENTS

	Capitalization	Presidents or Representatives
Tokyo		
Tokyo Nichi Nichi Shimbun	¥10,000,000	Shingoro Takaishi
Tokyo Asahi Shimbun	10,000,000	Séiichi Uéno
Hochi Shimbun	1,100,000	Keikichi Tanomogi
Yomiuri Shimbun	Private	Matsutaro Shoriki
Chugai Shogyo Shimpo	2,000,000	Tokichi Tanaka
Miyako Shimbun	3,000,000	Eisuké Fukuda
Yamato Shimbun	Private	Fumio Iwata
Kokumin Shimbun	3,000,000	Hitoshi Tanaka
Chuo Shimbun	200,000	Katsuzo Horikawa
Niroku Shimpo	100,000	Yonékichi Matsumoto
Yorozu Choho	Private	Zenji Haségawa
Tokyo Maiyu Shimbun	320,000	Masajiro Kimura
Tokyo Yukan Shimpo	Private	Tétsuya Nakajima
Japan Advertiser	170,000	B. W. Fleisher
Japan Times	350,000	Hitoshi Ashida
Osaka		
Osaka Asahi Shimbun	10,000,000	Séiichi Uéno
Osaka Mainichi Shimbun	10,000,000	Shingoro Takaishi
Osaka Jiji Shimpo	300,000	Nobuyoshi Shindo
Other Prefectures		
Fukushima Minyu Shimbun (Fukushima)	330,600	Kiroku Sugaya
Kahoku Shimpo (Miyagi)	Private	Jiro Ichiriki
Iwaté Nippo (Iwaté)	80,000	—
Akita Sakigaké Shimpo (Akita)	300,000	Kokyo Inoué
Niigata Shimbun (Niigata)	200,000	Sukésaku Yamada
Shinano Mainichi Shimbun (Nagano)	300,000	Takeo Kosaka
Shinaichi (Aichi)	1,500,000	Ukichi Oshima
Nagoya Shimbun (Aichi)	1,050,000	Ippéi Mori
Shizuoka Minyu Shimbun (Shizuoka)	20,000	Mitsunosuké Oishi
Gifu Nichi Nichi Shimbun (Gifu)	Private	Ai Takahashi
Isé Shimbun (Mié)	300,000	Munéshigé Matsumoto
Hokkoku Shimbun (Ishikawa)	200,000	Masataké Hayashi
Koshu Nichi Nichi Shimbun (Shiga)	Private	Iwaishi Hattori
Kyoto Hinodé Shimbun (Kyoto)	500,000	Séinosuké Gokawa
Kyoto Nichi Nichi Shimbun (Kyoto)	Private	Hisano Yamané
Kobé Shimbun (Hyogo)	450,000	Nobuyoshi Kondo
Kobé Yushin Nippo (Hyogo)	160,000	Yoshisuké Kato
Japan Chronicle (Hyogo)	Private	Douglas George Young
Chugoku Nichi Nichi Shimbun (Hyogo)	200,000	Takéo Ségawa
Tokushima Nichi Nichi Shimpo (Tokushima)	95,000	Hajimé Matushima
Sanin Nichi Nichi Shimbun (Tottori)	250,000	Eijiro Miyoshi
Godo Shimbun (Okayama)	480,000	Saichi Okamoto

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Increase or Decrease The following table gives the number of newspapers which increased or decreased each year, from 1928 to 1937:

		With Guarantee Money				Without Guarantee Money			
	Sum Total	Total	Daily	4 Times or more Monthly	3 Times or Less Monthly	Total	Daily	4 Times or More Monthly	3 Times or Less Monthly
1926	7,600	5,089	861	344	3,884	2,511	174	165	2,172
1927	8,350	5,438	916	380	4,142	2,912	177	170	2,565
1928	8,445	5,482	966	399	4,117	2,963	184	178	2,601
1929	9,191	5,917	1,020	417	4,480	3,274	201	193	2,880
1930	10,130	5,995	1,031	428	4,536	4,135	184	221	3,730
1931	10,666	6,290	1,083	476	4,731	4,376	197	247	3,932
1932	11,118	6,301	1,124	463	4,714	4,817	206	241	4,370
1933	11,860	6,678	1,179	461	5,038	5,182	210	261	4,711
1934	12,166	7,081	1,219	470	5,392	5,084	215	258	4,611
1935	12,101	7,180	1,222	506	5,452	4,921	219	295	4,407
1936	12,820	7,531	1,226	564	5,741	5,289	209	498	4,582
1937	13,268	7,797	1,208	609	5,980	5,471	214	574	4,683

Circulation

Circulation Unpublished The circulation of daily newspapers in Japan ranges from about 4,000 to about 1,500,000. Japanese newspapers never make public their exact circulation. For this reason, it is impossible to get the exact figures of circulation of each or any. What is believed to be comparatively correct of the daily circulation of more than 1,100 newspapers is an estimate of about 19,000,000, and in 1937 the average monthly consumption of paper by all newspapers amounted to over 800,000,000 lbs. The number of households in Japan is over 17,500,000. Newspapers are far more widely read in cities than in provinces and they are read more in commercial and industrial districts than in agricultural districts. Tokyo has the largest number of daily newspapers, and the more powerful ones are a well-defined force in society. Among them are the Tokyo Asahi Shimbun, the Tokyo Nichi Nichi Shimbun, the Yomiuri Shimbun, the Hochi Shimbun, the Miyako Shimbun, the Kokumin Shimbun and the Chugai Shogyo Shimpo. The first-mentioned two papers are predominant, having an overwhelming influence in newspaper circles. As organizations for news reporting these two giant papers rank among the world's largest newspapers.

Osaka City has a relatively small number of daily papers, 86 in all, but, as regards circulation, the Osaka Asahi Shimbun, which is the head office of the Tokyo Asahi Shimbun, and the Osaka Mainichi Shimbun, which controls the Tokyo Nichi Nichi Shimbun, predominate all, and their circulation is said to be nearly the same. The two papers have practically the whole of Western Japan under their control, and their influence is felt stronger in Kyushu districts by the publication of the "Kyushu Asahi" and the "Western Mainichi" commenced in February, 1935.

Estimated Circulation Estimated circulation of leading dailies in Japan is as follows:

Tokyo	
Tokyo Asahi Shimbun	1,100,000
Tokyo Nichi Nichi Shimbun	1,000,000
Yomiuri Shimbun	1,000,000
Chugai Shogyo Shimpo	150,000
Kokumin Shimbun	150,000
Hochi Shimbun	300,000
Osaka	
Osaka Asahi Shimbun	1,300,000
Osaka Mainichi Shimbun	1,200,000
Leading Provincial Paper	
Shin-aichi, Nagoya	200,000
Fukuoka Nichi Nichi, Fukuoka	180,000
Hokkai Times, Sapporo	100,000
Kahoku Shimpo, Sendai	100,000

Subscriptions Subscription fees of Japanese daily papers in large cities range from ¥1.00 to ¥1.50. Airplanes are used for transportation between Osaka and Fukuoka, but in most cases it is done by trains and electric cars.

English-Language Papers English-language daily papers in Japan proper and colonies are as follows: The Japan Advertiser (American), The Japan Times (Japanese owned), both in Tokyo; the Osaka Mainichi English Edition (controlled by the Osaka Mainichi Shimbun); the Japan Chronicle (British), in Kobé;

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the Seoul Press (Japanese), in Keijo; and the Manchuria Daily News (Japanese), Dairen.

News Agencies

The long contemplated merger of the Shimbun Rengo Tsushin Sha (later Doméi Tsushin Sha) and the Nippon Dempo Tsushin Sha has been finally realized on June 1, 1936, the new agency assuming the name of the Dōméi Tsushin Sha. The Dōméi Tsushin Sha consists of over 200 Japanese daily newspapers as members and its directorate is organized by representatives of larger dailies and the Broadcasting Corporation of Japan. It maintains close relations with the A. P., U. P., Stefani, Reuter, D. N. B., and Havas, which have their branch offices in Japan in the Dōméi Building. Branch offices are located in Washington, New York, San Francisco, Los Angeles, London, Berlin, Paris, Moscow, Bangkok, Manila, Batavia, Singapore, Shanghai, Nanking, Hong Kong, and other important cities in China. The Nippon Dempo remains as a purely advertizing service agent after the merger.

LEADING NEWSPAPERS AND THEIR PRESIDENTS

	Capitalization	Presidents or Representatives
Tokyo		
Tokyo Nichi Nichi Shimbun	¥10,000,000	Shingoro Takaishi
Tokyo Asahi Shimbun	10,000,000	Séiichi Uéno
Hochi Shimbun	1,100,000	Keikichi Tanomogi
Yomiuri Shimbun	Private	Matsutaro Shoriki
Chugai Shogyo Shimpo	2,000,000	Tokichi Tanaka
Miyako Shimbun	3,000,000	Eisuké Fukuda
Yamato Shimbun	Private	Fumio Iwata
Kokumin Shimbun	3,000,000	Hitoshi Tanaka
Chuo Shimbun	200,000	Katsuzo Horikawa
Niroku Shimpo	100,000	Yonékichi Matsumoto
Yorozu Choho	Private	Zenji Haségawa
Tokyo Maiyu Shimbun	320,000	Masajiro Kimura
Tokyo Yukan Shimpo	Private	Tétsuya Nakajima
Japan Advertiser	170,000	B. W. Fleisher
Japan Times	350,000	Hitoshi Ashida
Osaka		
Osaka Asahi Shimbun	10,000,000	Séiichi Uéno
Osaka Mainichi Shimbun	10,000,000	Shingoro Takaishi
Osaka Jiji Shimpo	300,000	Nobuyoshi Shindo
Other Prefectures		
Fukushima Minyu Shimbun (Fukushima)	330,600	Kiroku Sugaya
Kahoku Shimpo (Miyagi)	Private	Jiro Ichiriki
Iwaté Nippo (Iwaté)	80,000	—
Akita Sakigaké Shimpo (Akita)	300,000	Kokyo Inoué
Niigata Shimbun (Niigata)	200,000	Sukésaku Yamada
Shinano Mainichi Shimbun (Nagano)	300,000	Takeo Kosaka
Shinaichi (Aichi)	1,500,000	Ukichi Oshima
Nagoya Shimbun (Aichi)	1,050,000	Ippéi Mori
Shizuoka Minyu Shimbun (Shizuoka)	20,000	Mitsunosuké Oishi
Gifu Nichi Nichi Shimbun (Gifu)	Private	Ai Takahashi
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Sanin Nichi Nichi Shimbun (Tottori)	250,000	Eijiro Miyoshi
Godo Shimbun (Okayama)	480,000	Saichi Okamoto

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Other Prefectures	Capitalization	Presidents or Representatives
Chugoku Shimbun (Hiroshima)	300,000	Sanéichi Yamamoto
Kwammon Nichi Nichi Shimbun (Yamaguchi)	Private	Tétsunosuké Suémitsu
Fukuoka Nichi Nichi Shimbun (Fukuoka)	900,000	Shingo Nagaé
Kyushu Nippo (Fukuoka)	600,000	Seigo Nakano
Nagasaki Nichi Nichi Shimbun (Nagasaki)	200,000	Kozo Makiyama
Kyushu Shimbun (Kumamoto)	300,000	Daishiro Takagi
Kagoshima Shimbun (Kagoshima)	500,000	Sanéyoshi Kodama
Hokkai Times (Sapporo, Hokkaido)	800,000	Yoshio Abé
Otaru Shimbun (Otaru, Hokkaido)	540,000	Usaburo Chizaki
Hakodaté Nichi Nichi Shimbun (Hakodaté, Hokkaido)	Private	Kanzaburo Sato
Taihoku Shimpo(Odomari, Karafuto)	200,000	Toshihachi Hemmi
Taiwan Nichi Nichi Shimpo (Formosa)	1,000,000	Toru Kawamura
Kéijo Nippo (Korea)	500,000	Sukeichi Taguchi
Manshu Nichi Nichi Shimbun (Dairen)	750,000	Yoshimaro Murata
Manchuria Daily News (Dairen)	100,000	Tanéhidé Kojō
Hoten Mainichi Shimbun (Mukden)	300,000	Kotoko Matsumiya
Shenking Jihpao (Mukden)	350.000	Yasuzo Soméya
Manshu Shimbun (Hsinking)	700,000(M.Y)	Hidekichi Wada
Mansen Nippo (Hsinking)	300,000	Yōséki Ri
Harbin Nichi Nichi Shimbun (Harbin)	200,000	Kenkichi Sagaé

Newspaper Organizations

The Japan Newspaper Association (Nippon Shimbun Kyokai) This consists of daily newspapers, news agencies and advertising agencies under Japanese management; it was founded in 1913. His Imperial Highness Prince Naruhiko Higashikuni has been honorary president of this association since 1926. Count Kéigo Kiyoura, former Premier, is president and Mr. Hoshio Mitsunaga, president of Nippon Dempo, is director-in-chief. It has among its honorary members noted persons such as Mr. Iichiro Tokutomi, Mr. Yukio Ozaki, Mr. Séiichi Uéno, Dr. Yujiro Miyaké, Dr. Minoru Oka, Mr. Ukichi Oshima and Mr. Takéshi Azuma. The association membership includes almost all the Japanese daily newspapers. The Shunjukai is a social club of newspaper editors, magazine writers and correspondents. It was organized in 1908 and has among its members leading newspapermen and magazine writers of Tokyo. The Nijuichinichikai is composed of high editorial staff members of daily newspapers. It was established in 1926. Its members are editorial directors, managers, news editors and other men of important positions in the editorial service of influential papers. The Shimbunkisha Club (Newspapermen's Association) consists of newspapermen and news agency reporters mostly connected with the business of the Imperial Diet. The Federation of Newspapermen and News Agency Reporters was organized in 1931. It consists of 46 newspapermen and news agency reporters' clubs which are connected with various governmental institutions and economic and financial bodies. Leading newspaper and news agency reporters' clubs are as follows:

Naikaku Kisha Kai	Connected with the Cabinet
Kasumi Club	Foreign Office
Yamashita Club	Séiyukai
Sakurada Club	Minséito
Shinto Kisha Kai	Kokumindoméi
Rōdō Kisha Kai	Proletarian Parties
Kunai Kisha Kai	Imperial Household Department
Kokuchokai	Navy Ministry
Shinyu Club	Army Ministry
Naiséi Kenkyu Kai	Home Office
Hitotsubashi Club	Ministry of Education
Zaiséi Kenkyu Kai	Ministry of Finance
Kinyu Doshi Kai	Bank of Japan
Noséi Kisha Kai	Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry
Unémé Kai	Ministry of Commerce and Industry
Tokiwa Club	Ministry of Communications

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Kabuto Club
Tétsudo Issin Kai
Hoséi Kenkyu Kai
Tokumu Club
Tokyo Undo Kisha Club
Stock Exchange
State Railways
Ministry of Justice
Ministry of Overseas Affairs
Modern Sports

Newspaper Courses in Universities The Meiji University and Jochi University, Tokyo, opened their newspaper courses in April, 1932. The Newspaper School (Shimbun Gakuin), founded by Mr. Shinjiro Yamané, of the Kokumin Shimbun, sent out its first graduates numbering 40 in December, 1932. The Tokyo Imperial University Journalism Course, established as a section of the Department of Literature was opened in April, 1932. Mr. Hidéo Ōno is in charge of the course. Lecturers include noted newspapermen and magazine proprietors having many years' journalistic experience. The Newspaper Course of the Jochi University was opened in April, 1932. Mr. Ōno is in charge of this course also.

Students' Newspapers At the end of 1932 there were 51 so-called students' newspapers in Japan. These papers are published by universities and schools once a week or once or twice a month. The Téikoku Daigaku Shimbun, issued by the Tokyo Imperial University, is one of the largest of its kind and is issued every Monday. It is an eight-page paper, which was founded in 1920. The Kyoto Imperial University also issues a newspaper of the kind. The Mita Shimbun is issued by the Kéio University and is one of the oldest and most influential of those published by private universities. It was founded in 1917.

Publications

A Historical Summary

The number of books published in Japan prior to 1881 is not accurately known. But judged from the records and catalogues of books now existing, they may be roughly taken as follows :

About 1,800 between the time of founding the country and one year before the time when the Shogunate Government was established at Kamakura.

About 5,000 since the establishment of the Shogunate Government at Kamakura until one year before the time when the Tokugawa Shogunate was established.

About 60,000 between the establishment of the Tokugawa Shogunate and the Meiji Restoration.

About 130,000 between the 1st and the 10th year of Meiji, 33,819 between the 10th and the 13th year of Meiji, and 679,368 between 1881 and 1924. Statistics for latest years follow :

1927	19,967
1928	19,880
1929	21,111
1930	22,476
1931	23,110
1932	22,104
1933	24,025
1934	26,331
1935	30,347
1936	31,994

Publications under the China Affair Since the outbreak of the China Affair, the number of various publications in Japan has tended to decrease. Books and pamphlets have fallen off by a little over six per cent; the number of newspapers and magazines has declined slightly. It is noteworthy, however, that newspapers and magazines which had constantly been increasing in number stopped their advance and that the rate of increase in the number of new magazines published under the Publication Law has dropped conspicuously. This trend must be regarded as due not so much to the China Affair directly as to the high price of paper, which began to rise in the spring of 1937, and to the recent increases in postal charges.

According to statistics compiled by the Home Office upon the basis of publications submitted for censorship, there were published during 1937 no less than 31,064 books and pamphlets (including 332 Government documents), and 30,056 newspapers and magazines (including 1,422 dailies and 18,651 monthlies). These figures are about the same as those for the prior year, showing that the first six months of the conflict in China had no appreciable effect upon the output of the publishing business. Although the total volume has remained about the same, there have been notable changes in the type of literature. Most significant has been the decrease in the number of pamphlets and the increase in books. For a

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time there was actually a deluge of pamphlets, the peak coming in July, 1936, when for the 996 books published there appeared 1,520 pamphlets. But the pamphleteer's popularity has dwindled in recent months, and in October, 1938, there were only 505 such literary efforts as compared with 1,898 books, a decrease of about two-thirds.

Many factors have contributed to this decrease in pamphlets, especially the ten-sen brochures. One factor has been the appearance of the Cabinet Information Bureau's Weekly Report, which has acted as an authoritative substitute for the various brands of news-interpretation pamphlets which held the field in the past. Another important cause has been the liquidation of various problems which had supplied the themes for many a pamphleteer owing to the unification of public opinion during the emergency. But the main reason for this significant decline is the fact that serious-minded readers no longer rely upon such pamphlets as a background for the daily news.

Of the thirty thousand publications turned off the press since the China incident, the largest individual group is represented by textbooks, numbering 3,628. Next comes literature with 3,162 works, followed by 2,229 books on educational subjects, 2,146 devoted to economics, 1,955 to languages, 1,949 to industry, 1,571 to religion, 1,483 to politics, 1,342 to engineering, and 1,237 to military subjects.

Similar trends are also noticeable in magazines. Magazine articles are tending more and more to deal with post-war measures and future national policies instead of being concerned largely with explanatory accounts of current developments. Among the different kinds of magazines, those specializing in economics, religion, education, history, electrical engineering, industries, military affairs, aviation, Japanese and Chinese calligraphy and local affairs have increased since July, 1937.

The fact that such a large number of industrial, engineering, and military works has appeared is a literary phenomenon which can be explained by the productive expansion policy of the Government, a most vivid testimony to the influence of the times. As hostilities continue, this surge of nationalistic ideas is tending to pervade not only the fields of politics and economics but also the cultural fields such as history, religion, philosophy and the arts. There was much talk in 1937 as to what things are and what are not "Japanese." The establishment of a new Japanese culture is the discussion of the hour.

Along the same lines, we have been witnessing a renewed publication of studies in Japanese history, biographies of pioneer patriots and provincial histories, particularly since the outbreak of the China Affair. These attempts are calculated to contribute toward the inauguration of a new Japanese culture through fresh studies of the traditions of Japan.

The increase in publications devoted to eingineering and industry is certain to stimulate scientific progress in this country and to result in the general diffusion of scientific knowledge among Japanese, although the present trend may primarily be a phenomenon attendant on the need of augmenting production to meet the requirements of war. Here, also, may be a part of the new Japanese culture.

The figures on publications for 1937 are as follows:

Imperial Household	45
Religion	502
Philosophy	219
Culture	69
Education	380
Science	10
Young people	5
For children	20
Literature, (foreign languages)	566
Novels	509
National language	20
Dictionaries	115
Foreign languages	127
History, biographies	516
Geography, maps etc.	193
Law	413
Politics, economy and Social science	1,304
Mathematics	34
Engineering	157
Medicine and sanitation	240
Commerce	101
Industry	381
Communication and Transportation	44
Industrial world	258
Military	248
Fine Arts	248
Music, cinema and drama	22
Amusements	9
Sports	33
For women	43
Series	805
Year books, statistics, and reports	252
Miscellaneous	484
Total	8,372

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ing, when they enrich the pages of Japanese periodicals, and are always warmly received by Japan's intellectuals.

Yet another feature of these reviews is the large space devoted to short stories and dramas by coming writers. Each issue contains as a rule three or four such pieces of work, and in the case of a special number anything from five to seven. Short-story writing has been and still is occupying an important place in the literary field in this country. One of the cogent reasons for the healthy growth of this branch of literature in this country may be sought in the great favour shown by magazine editors to young writers able but unknown to fame. It has been the custom ever since the Meiji era for almost all literary efforts by writers, who have since found niches in the temple of fame, to be introduced to the public first through the pages of magazines of a serious type.

As these serious magazines are intended for readers of the highest level of intellect, they naturally have a limited circulation of from 30,000 to 70,000 each. Magazines which have a larger circle of readers are those catering to the tastes of the masses, young and old, and those edited primarily for the fair sex.

Most of our popular magazines intended for amusement are published by the Dai Nippon Yubenkai Kodan Sha, the president of which is Mr. Séiji Noma, known both at home and abroad as a magazine king. This publisher owns nine magazines, all enjoyed with avidity by the millions. Of these the more popular are the King, the Kodan Club, and the Fuji, the first-named being literally the king of Japan's popular magazines. These journals are said to have a circulation of from 300,000 to 400,000. Then there are two or three other magazines, such as the Hinodé and the Hanashi, which, though they are not published by Mr. Noma, boast nearly as many readers. These popular magazines have from 500 to 600 pages each. As might be expected, editors of such magazines are out to put in stories calculated to move the reader to tears or tickle his or her sense of humour. Here is a vast scope for popular writers of tales replete with those deeds of derring-do which reflet the ethos of the feudal days. Sentimental love stories by popular novelists are hailed with great delight. The Edgar Wallaces and Wodehouses of Japan find in these journals a great demand for their thrilling and side-splitting stories.

Keeping pace with these journals in point of popularity are women's magazines. The more popular of these are the Fujin Koron, the Fujin Club, and the Shufu-no-Tomo. They contain, among other things, articles on social problems previously touched upon in newspapers, such as the love affairs concerning film stars, cases of double suicide, scandals of noted ladies and many other sensational topics. Space is not allotted to sensationalism alone. A great deal of space is also devoted to articles on conventional things, such as hints on cookery, sewing and the care of babies—rehashed and repeated year in and year out—as well as romances by popular writers.

Another remarkable thing about all these popular journals is that whenever special numbers are issued, generally three times a year, two or three extra volumes, running up to 200 pages each, are thrown in as a token of gratitude to the reader. This idea of showing generosity was originally hit on by Mr. Noma. The extra volumes thus given into the bargain generally contain articles on the ABC of manual art, or else articles meant purely for amusement. All this goes to show, if nothing else, that publishers of such journals are great consumers of paper.

Of the monthly magazines described above, those of a serious nature generally see the issues of the following month out on or about the 19th of each month, popular magazines much earlier, that is, at the beginning of each month. As soon as they are out a half-page advertisement, showing the contents with subjects and names of writers of feature articles printed in large type, is inserted in turn for two or three days on end in the principal newspapers. There can be no doubt that this sort of advertisement serves as a powerful magnet.

As already stated, there are at present more than 8,500 varieties of monthly journals in Japan. Of these about 800 are on sale in Tokyo. Below are given figures representing some of the principal magazines :

Magazines of a serious nature	250
Magazines for amusements	58
Women's magazines	25
Young men's magazines	95
Juvenile magazines	30

There are practically no weekly periodicals of any importance in Japan. The Asahi, one of the most im-

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portant daily newspapers in this country, once started publishing a weekly of a serious nature, giving news of the previous week lumped together and comments made on the principal international problems, mainly political and economic. The result of this enterprise was not so satisfactory as expected, and the weekly in question degenerated in less than a year into a periodical catering for the amusement of the public. Much the same fate was shared by the weekly undertaken by the Osaka Mainichi, another influential daily. It may be that the very fact that here in Japan the unit of the economic life of the people is the month, and not the week, stands between weeklies and their success.

LIST OF PRINCIPAL PERIODICALS

Politics and literature:
- Chuo Koron (Central Review)
- Kaizo (Reconstruction)
- Nippon Hyoron (Japanese Review)
- Bungéi Shunju (Literary Review)

Politics and law
- Sékai Chishiki (World Knowledge)
- Shakaiséisaku Jiho (Social Policy Review)
- Kokusai Chishiki and Hyoron (International Knowledge)
- Gaiko Jiho (Diplomatic Review)
- Kakushin (Renovation)
- Hogaku Shimpo (Science of Law)

Finance and Economic Magazines:
- Toyo Kéizai Shimpo (Oriental Economic Review)
- Economist
- Diamond
- Kéizai Chishiki (Economic Knowledge)
- Kéizai (Economy)

Popular Magazines:
- King
- Hinodé (Rising Sun)
- Kodan Kurabu (Kodan Story Magazine)
- Gendai (Present Generation)
- All Yomimono (all Stories)
- Hanashi (Story)
- Shinséinen (New Young Generation)
- Tairiku (Continent)

Literary Magazines:
- Bungéi (Literary arts)
- Bungaku (Literature)
- Bungakukai (Literary World)
- Bungakusha (Men of literature)
- Shincho (New Tide)
- Araragi, a waka magazine
- Hototogisu, a haiku magazine
- Butai (Stage)

Woman's Magazines:
- Fujin Koron (Woman's Review)
- Fujin Kurabu (Woman's Club)
- Shufu-no Tomo (Friend of Ladies)
- Fujin-no Tomo (Woman's Friend)

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Keeping pace with these journals in point of popularity are women's magazines. The more popular of these are the Fujin Koron, the Fujin Club, and the Shufu-no-Tomo. They contain, among other things, articles on social problems previously touched upon in newspapers, such as the love affairs concerning film stars, cases of double suicide, scandals of noted ladies and many other sensational topics. Space is not allotted to sensationalism alone. A great deal of space is also devoted to articles on conventional things, such as hints on cookery, sewing and the care of babies—rehashed and repeated year in and year out—as well as romances by popular writers.

Another remarkable thing about all these popular journals is that whenever special numbers are issued, generally three times a year, two or three extra volumes, running up to 200 pages each, are thrown in as a token of gratitude to the reader. This idea of showing generosity was originally hit on by Mr. Noma. The extra volumes thus given into the bargain generally contain articles on the ABC of manual art, or else articles meant purely for amusement. All this goes to show, if nothing else, that publishers of such journals are great consumers of paper.

Of the monthly magazines described above, those of a serious nature generally see the issues of the following month out on or about the 19th of each month, popular magazines much earlier, that is, at the beginning of each month. As soon as they are out a half-page advertisement, showing the contents with subjects and names of writers of feature articles printed in large type, is inserted in turn for two or three days on end in the principal newspapers. There can be no doubt that this sort of advertisement serves as a powerful magnet.

As already stated, there are at present more than 8,500 varieties of monthly journals in Japan. Of these about 800 are on sale in Tokyo. Below are given figures representing some of the principal magazines :

Magazines of a serious nature	250
Magazines for amusements	58
Women's magazines	25
Young men's magazines	95
Juvenile magazines	30

There are practically no weekly periodicals of any importance in Japan. The Asahi, one of the most im-

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portant daily newspapers in this country, once started publishing a weekly of a serious nature, giving news of the previous week lumped together and comments made on the principal international problems, mainly political and economic. The result of this enterprise was not so satisfactory as expected, and the weekly in question degenerated in less than a year into a periodical catering for the amusement of the public. Much the same fate was shared by the weekly undertaken by the Osaka Mainichi, another influential daily. It may be that the very fact that here in Japan the unit of the economic life of the people is the month, and not the week, stands between weeklies and their success.

LIST OF PRINCIPAL PERIODICALS

Politics and literature:
- Chuo Koron (Central Review)
- Kaizo (Reconstruction)
- Nippon Hyoron (Japanese Review)
- Bungéi Shunju (Literary Review)

Politics and law
- Sékai Chishiki (World Knowledge)
- Shakaiséisaku Jiho (Social Policy Review)
- Kokusai Chishiki and Hyoron (International Knowledge)
- Gaiko Jiho (Diplomatic Review)
- Kakushin (Renovation)
- Hogaku Shimpo (Science of Law)

Finance and Economic Magazines:
- Toyo Kéizai Shimpo (Oriental Economic Review)
- Economist
- Diamond
- Kéizai Chishiki (Economic Knowledge)
- Kéizai (Economy)

Popular Magazines:
- King
- Hinodé (Rising Sun)
- Kodan Kurabu (Kodan Story Magazine)
- Gendai (Present Generation)
- All Yomimono (all Stories)
- Hanashi (Story)
- Shinséinen (New Young Generation)
- Tairiku (Continent)

Literary Magazines:
- Bungéi (Literary arts)
- Bungaku (Literature)
- Bungakukai (Literary World)
- Bungakusha (Men of literature)
- Shincho (New Tide)
- Araragi, a waka magazine
- Hototogisu, a haiku magazine
- Butai (Stage)

Woman's Magazines:
- Fujin Koron (Woman's Review)
- Fujin Kurabu (Woman's Club)
- Shufu-no Tomo (Friend of Ladies)
- Fujin-no Tomo (Woman's Friend)

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CHAPTER XXXV

LITERATURE, ARTS AND MUSIC

Literature

History

Yamato Period The history of Japanese literature may be divided, in accordance with the political development of the country, into 6 periods : the Yamato, Héian, Kamakura, Muromachi, Yédo and Tokyo periods. The Yamato period comprises the Kodai (archaic period) and the Nara age that followed. The term, Yamato, is derived from the district of Yamato, Nara prefecture, wherein was the seat of the Imperial capital throughout that age. This nascent age of Japanese literature ended in 781 A. D., with the removal of the Imperial capital to Kyoto, then called Héian, by the Emperor Kammu. It may seem improper to include so long a period under one section, but this early stage of Japanese literary growth can thus conveniently be considered as one concrete age, and be studied as such.

(1) Literary Works. The literary works which reveal the mind of the Yamato period and which are still extant, are : the Kojiki, Nihonshoki, Fudoki, Norito, Senmyo, Mannyoshu, Kaifuso, and Nihonraiki. The principal writers are : Ohno-Yasumaro, Tonérishinno, Yamabé-no-Akahito, Kakinomotono-Hitomaro, Yamanoéno-Okura, Otomono-Yakamochi, Ohmino-Mifuné, besides certain sages of the prehistoric age. The last mentioned, Ohmino-Mifuné, was proficient in Chinese classics and poetry.

(2) Development and Classification. Narrative prose and lyric verse assumed concrete form in this period. From a literary point of view the writings of the period can be divided into two sections : works in descriptive style, of which the Kojiki is the main representative ; and poetry that followed, with the Mannyoshu[1] anthology as the typical poetic composition.

Individual self-consciousness realized meagre general development ; instead, a collective sense controlled society. But ample evidence of a pure national spirit is seen. In the latter part of this period alien ideas were introduced from China and India, but could not find their way deeply into the minds of the people. It is not to be wondered at, therefore, that the literary achievements of this awakening period are instinct with the noble national spirit of loyalty and ancestor-worship, permeated with the national traits of optimism, frankness, and genuine simplicity.

Héian Period The Héian period starts from the year in which the Emperor Kammu removed the Imperial palace to Kyoto, then called Héian, and ends in 1186 when the Shogunate government was established by Yoritomo Minamoto at Kamakura. This second literary period, covering nearly 400 years, following the period of dawn, saw Japanese prose and poetry reach full bloom.

Generally speaking, the literature of the period emerged from a style of clear-cut simplicity to one of elegance and delicacy, all literary productions assuming a mood of refined sentiment. In presentment likewise there appeared the graceful kana syllabary, in keeping with current ideas. This harmonization of content and form in the literature of the Héian period set an example to succeeding generations. The Héian period is thus the golden age of Japanese literary achievement. The

1 Mannyoshu (or Manyoshu). The anthology is considered to be one of the greatest poetical attainments of the nation not only in this period, but all through the history of Japanese literature. Its compiler is unknown. The period in which the poets of the book lived covers 450 years from 313 to 764 A. D., and the range of the social standard of the poets extends to all classes from the Emperor down to the farmer or the hermit. The book contains 4,496 poems, which consist of 262 long poems, 4,172 waka and 62 others. Their themes are taken from human relations, love, lamentation, the four seasons, and natural scenery. They are written in the Yamato dialect with Chinese characters. The eminent anthologists in it are Kakinomotono-Hitomaro of the epic long poems; Yamanouéno-okura of the long lyrics who took his themes from social and economic problems of his day; Yamabéno-akahito, the only nature poet among the group; Ohtomonoyakamochi who is believed by many critics to be the compiler of the book and Nukatano-ohogimi and Sakanoé-iratsumé, who distinctly tower above many poetesses who left beautiful love songs with the anthology to their posterity.

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period may further be subdivided into the following four sections :

Early Héian period (781–884)
Middle Héian period (885–980)
Mature Héian period (981–1064)
Last Héian period (1065–1182)

(1) Early Héian Period. During this period, imported Chinese culture exercised no small influence on the literary circles of the country, resulting in the popularity of Chinese classics and poetry. Among the poetical works are the Ryounshu, Bunkashureishu, Kéikokushu, while among the authors were the Emperor Saga, Kukai, Onono-Takamura, Miyakono-Yoshika, Ōéno-Otondo, Sugawarano-Koréyoshi, Tachibanano-Hirosuké, Sugawarano-Michizané, Fujiwarano-Sukéyo and Miyoshi-Kiyoyuki. With the overwhelming influence wielded by these imitators in the domain of the newly imported Chinese literature, the Japanese waka (31-syllabled poem) was threatened at one time with relegation to obscurity. But the situation was saved through realization of a proposal from Sugawarano-Michizané to discontinue the customary visits of Government envoys to China. In consequence, Chinese literature gradually lost its former influence, and the eminent position once occupied by this alien form of belles-lettres was taken by Japanese poetry. The forerunner of the revived waka verse was the Rokkasen, a collaboration of six representative poets, namely, Ariwarano-Narihira, Ononо-Komachi, Bunyano-Yasuhidé, Kisenhoshi and Otomono-Kuronushi. A further literary achievement of the period is the appearance of works in the Japanese kana syllabary, such as the Takétori-monogatari and the Isé-monogatari.

(2) Middle Héian Period. This is the age of national consciousness when the waka poetry triumphed over Chinese forms, pushing itself forward like a tidal wave. In poetry, works like the Kokin-wakashu and Gosen-wakashu are prominent, while in fiction such works as the Utsubo and Ochikubo and Tosanikki, in Japanese kana syllabary, are representative products.

(3) Mature Héian Period. This is the period in which the literary development of the Héian era attained the highest perfection, creating a golden age of prose. In the field of waka we have such poets as Izumi-shikibu, Akazomé-Émon, Fujiwarano-Kinto, Fujiwara-Sanékata and Noin-hoshi, while in the realm of prose there appeared women novelists, like Murasaki-shikibu and Séisho-nagon, the former being the authoress of the Genji-monogatari,[1] while the latter composed the Makurano-soshi, opening up a literary régime of women, as if flowers of innumerable variety and colours blossomed all at one time.

(4) Last Héian Period. A general survey of the period gives the impression of its being politically transitional from Imperial rule to Shogunate administration. Along with the decline of the Fujiwara family in power, literature also hastened towards decline. And in consequence, in the early part of the period the literary cult turned from novels to historical works, producing the Éiga-monogatari and Okagami. In the realm of poetry also a new tendency was apparent, which gave birth to such noted poets as Toshinari Fujiwara and Saigyo-hoshi ; and at the same time a scientific criticism of poetry was initiated and prevailed under students like Mototoshi Fujiwara, Toshiyori Minamoto, and Kiyosuké Fujiwara.

(5) General Development. The most characteristic feature of the period lies in the movement from impromptu and lyrical poetry to stories and narration which require plots and objectification of things. The instinctive or primitive sentiment of the Mannyoshu precedes the more intellectual Kokinshu ; and the Shikashu that followed is pervaded by more meditative and philosophical reflections. With reference to prose, the myths and legends appearing in the Mannyoshu and Kiki (short for Kojiki and Nihonshoki) underwent mutation and took the form of narrative tales in the Takétori-monogatari and the Isémonogatari. This realistic tendency

1 Genji-monogatari. The author Murasaki-shikibu (975-1031) was born a daughter of Tamétoki Fujiwara, a family of the illustrious Fujiwara clan, and served at Court for some years as lady-in-waiting to the Empress Akiko. She is known as Lady Murasaki, but her personal name is not known. The book is a large one (nearly 1,900 pages in Arthur Waley's English translation), written in pure old Japanese, extremely refined and pregnant, with Japanese character, or kana, sentences, and literary critics agree in the opinion that it belongs to the greatest masterpieces of the novels of the world.

Genji-monogatari means the Tale of Genji, mainly a love story between the hero Genji and several heroines. It is also a most vivid picture of a civilization, nine hundred years ago, probably as refined, though in the central city only, and certainly as colourful, as any the world has ever known. The most striking thing about the book is the impression it creates upon us of its modernity and universality of feeling. It reflects the Oriental characteristics in every line and still shows human nature very much the same as the Occidental.

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not but react on the taste and sentiment of the people, as is evidenced by the two different literary currents that prevailed throughout the period. whereas the so-called aristocratic literature, which dominated those days, stood on a foundation of Bushido and Confucianism, the popular literature strove to create the epicurian's world. Each of these tendencies went on cultivating its own field of influence in its own respective class, yet what most aptly represents the characteristic features of Yedo literature is the stronger public appeal of popular literary works. These intellectual diversions of the common people, unlike the traditional, conservative and retrogressive taste of classical literature, are optimistic, and charged with the spirit of uplift and mirth. But the negative policy of the Tokugawa government proved an impeding factor in the healthful growth of popular literature, resulting in a gradual loss of individuality. In this way authorship gradually kept aloof from essential requirements of progressive art; the most glaring example of this deplorable tendency is clearly noticeable in Bakin's works. (As to the development of literature in Meiji and Taisho eras see the Japan Year Book, 1938-39, p. 839.)

Literature in 1938-39

With the China Incident which broke out in July, 1937, assuming the characteristics of long-term resistance against Japan, under the rash policy of Chiang Kai-shek administration, the Japanese Government was compelled to embark on a policy of long-range campaign. To meet the requirements of a long-range campaign, the Japanese Government enforced far-reaching and increasingly strict control measures, affecting even thought and literature. Under the circumstances, it became an urgent question to thinkers and literary men to determine how they might best conform to the national policy. As days went by, the intellectuals in general began to appreciate the gravity of the situation more and more profoundly. During the latter part of 1938 and the early part of 1939 both thinkers and literary men decided to direct their energies to positively contribute toward the execution of national policy instead of merely conforming to the governmental control. While supporting the national policy from the standpoint of the general situation, the thinkers and literary men alike offered their criticisms regarding the details of the policy.

As an example mention might be made of the theory of "Cooperative Body of East Asia", a term which was coined to express the new order based on the economic and political cooperation among Japan, Manchoukuo and China. This term became popular among thinkers and literary men who gave ideological background and universality to the expression. On the ground that the new order, both political and economic, can be brought about only by the creation of a new culture, discussion centred round the nature of content of the new culture.

Generally speaking, the discussions made in the thought world centred on the view that the ideology which unifies Japan would be the best fitted to unify the Orient. From this viewpoint, what was needed was a shift in application from "Japan" to the "Orient". Simultaneously an extensive research was made into Japanese culture and Japanese idealism.

With regard to literary works, it must be observed that epoch-making works were published one after another. Ashihei Hino, a soldier who participated in actual warfare, rose suddenly into fame by his remarkable work "Barley and Soldiers" which is a record of events in the battle fields. Various literary works, some in the form of records and others as stories, followed in succession and were published in magazines or newspapers in Japan. On the other hand, there was a remarkable rise of peasant literature calling attention to the actual conditions prevailing in the agricultural villages and urging a shift to a more rational system or describing the conditions of Japanese agricultural villages in Manchoukuo. These literary works mostly took the form of long stories, particularly this was the case with regard to the outstanding works.

The tendency of literary works taking the form of long stories had been evident before, but it had been anticipated that the progress of the China Incident would cause the control over the use of paper to be strengthened to such an extent that the newspapers and magazines would be unable to provide enough space for such long stories. Actually, however, the control over the use of paper has not produced such effect upon the publishing world and the reading public has shown a preference to serious literature, which is contributing to the growing tendency toward publication of longer works.

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followed. Herein we notice the beginnings of modern thought, the product of classicism evolving into modernism, and aristocracy into plebeianism. The Muromachi period thus occupies an important position in our literary history, functioning as a bridge that connects the preceding periods with the more illustrious Yédo literature. Another thing worthy of note in this connection is the creation at this time of the Kanazawa Bunko, the Ashikaga-gakko and the Gozen-bungaku, the first two being seats of learning and the last a branch of literature.

Yédo Period The Yédo period begins in 1603 when the Tokugawa Shogunate took up the task of civil government in Yédo, and ends, after 265 years, in 1868, when the Meiji Restoration was accomplished. This forms the most important section in the history of Japanese literature. The Yédo literature succeeded the decadent Muromachi literature and handed on its wealth of achievement to the Meiji period. The remarkable fecundity of this era is to be attributed to various factors, but to none more fundamental than the good government of Iyéyasu Tokugawa, the first Shogun of that line. Realizing the importance of the diffusion of learning for good government, he engaged Confucian scholars, published books, started schools and collected rare literary works. The example thus set by the first Shogun was emulated by the succeeding Shoguns, each striving to open up the way for easier access to knowledge and culture both in town and country, until in the Genroku Era under the rule of the fourth Shogun, Tsunayoshi, national culture reached its highest stage of development. The Yédo period may be divided into the following four sections : centered around Osaka and Kyoto,

1. Period of enlightenment (1603–1680)
2. Period of development (1681–1741) Yédo as the centre,
3. The period of eastward advance of literature (1741–1791)
4. Period of maturity (1791–1868)

(1) Period of Enlightenment. True to its name, this period, following the establishment of the Tokugawa Shogunate in Yédo, saw the collection and publication of ancient books, and annotations thereof, as well as translations of Chinese literature. It is but natural that during this period nothing worthy of note was produced save as foundation work in preparation for what was to come. From another viewpoint this is the age when our traditionally mystic view of art, and our undue belief in tradition, greatly wanes in influence.

(2) Period of Development. A bird's-eye view of the period gives the impression of a rapid development in popular literature, with Osaka and Kyoto as the centre and the Genroku Era as its climax. The origin of this literary movement is traceable to the Mitogaku, which later led to a renaissance of the classics ; we see a revival of haikai verse under Basho, the poet ; and then the appearance of Chikamatsu's joruri. Each made unfettered development within its own sphere of influence. Towards the close of the period, however, these branches of literature lost popularity, until eventually they could scarcely enjoy public recollection.

(3) Eastward Advance of Literature. This is the period when the so-called Kamigata literature of Kyoto and Osaka, began its movement eastward to establish a new literary movement in the city of Yédo, the seat of the Shogun's government. By this time the popular literature founded by Chikamatsu and Saikaku had declined. Buson became the representative haikai poet of the time. Besides haikai, there came into vogue in Yédo various kinds of short poetry, namely, senryu, witty epigrammatic verse ; kyoka, comic verse ; and kyobun, nonsense notes. Also in this period the so-called literature for men of the world cropped up, following the publication of the kibyoshi and sharébon.

(4) Period of Maturity. It was in this period that the construction of the main body of Yédo literature was completed. As a result of the encouragement of learning by the Shogun's highest official, Sadanobu Matsudaira, both art and learning made a remarkable advance, producing a number of artists, and authorities on Japanese and Chinese classics. Parallel with this phenomenal development of classics, popular literature resumed its firm grip on the public. Inasmuch, however, as during the latter half of the period the country was completely upset by troubles both from within and without, most of the literary progress was confined to the early part of the period. Nevertheless, this is known as the period when Yédo literature was crowned with full maturity.

What most characterize Yédo literature are its fecundity in kinds, volume of production and sphere of influence. Not only was it prolific but, all branches of art and learning, from the aristocratic classics down to kyoka, senryu, haikai, joruri (gidayu) and popular novels, showed systematic advancement. The social structure in those days could

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not but react on the taste and sentiment of the people, as is evidenced by the two different literary currents that prevailed throughout the period. whereas the so-called aristocratic literature, which dominated those days, stood on a foundation of Bushido and Confucianism, the popular literature strove to create the epicurian's world. Each of these tendencies went on cultivating its own field of influence in its own respective class, yet what most aptly represents the characteristic features of Yédo literature is the stronger public appeal of popular literary works. These intellectual diversions of the common people, unlike the traditional, conservative and retrogressive taste of classical literature, are optimistic, and charged with the spirit of uplift and mirth. But the negative policy of the Tokugawa government proved an impeding factor in the healthful growth of popular literature, resulting in a gradual loss of individuality. In this way authorship gradually kept aloof from essential requirements of progressive art; the most glaring example of this deplorable tendency is clearly noticeable in Bakin's works. (As to the development of literature in Meiji and Taisho eras see the Japan Year Book, 1938-39, p. 839.)

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feeling of security under the new order. The story centres round the experiences of the village girl.

Both of the above-mentioned works are excellent literary productions but what enhances their value is that they brought into being what is known as "battle-front literature."

September 11 — The rendering into contemporary Japanese of the Genjimonogatari (Tale of Genji), which is reputed to be the cream of the classical literature of Japan, was accomplished by Junichiro Tanizaki, senior member of the literary world in the country, who came out of his rural cottage to Tokyo, carrying with him the historic manuscripts. (The new version of the classical work was later published in January, 1939, by the Chu-o Koron Sha.) The specific merit of the new version lies in the fact that the literary elegance and beauty of the original work were ably reproduced into the contemporary Japanese. Lady Murasaki, that gifted author of the Genjimonogatari had the peculiar gift of expressing so much sentiment in such few words that it always presented the greatest difficulties to the translator. It toook five years for the noted writer to complete the translation.

On the same day, the personnel of the literary party to be dispatched to the battle-front to observe the conditions of the impending fall of Hankow into the hands of Japanese forces was determined. The party was divided into two groups. One of the groups was to join the advancing troops and was composed of Masao Kume, Matsutaro Kawaguchi, Kunio Kishida, Teppei Kataoka, Shiro Ozaki, Kosaku Takii, Uyio Tomizawa, Takao Nakatani, Fumio Niwa, Kyuya Fukuda, Akira Asano, Sonosuke Sato and Fumiko Hayashi. The other group was to join the naval units sailing up the Yangtze River and was composed of Kan Kikuchi, Eiji Yoshikawa, Nobuko Yoshiya, Haruo Sato, Komatsu Kitamura, Heisuke Sugiyama, Masajiro Kojima and Hiroshi Hamamoto. (The party departed for the front within a few days and was followed by another consisting of composers and poets including Yaso Saijo, Takao Saiki, Yuji Kozeki, Nobuo Iida and Shiro Fukai.

September 26 — A German exchange student studying at the literary department of the Tokyo Imperial University, completed a German version of the "Inochi-no-Shoya" (Evening of Life) by Tamio Hojo. The German student, a graduate of the law department of the Munich University, had been in Japan for only 10 months when he was able to converse freely in Japanese language. He had read many literary works including some by Kafu Nagai and Yuzo Yamamoto when he resolved to prepare a German version of the "Inochi-no-Shoya" which is composed of notes by a leper because it moved him most profoundly. The translation was completed in three months and after being corrected by Hiroo Suga of the German-Japanese Cultural Society was decided to be published in the "Nippon," a magazine published in Berlin by the German-Japanese Cultural Society.

September 29—With the assistance of the Italian Government, the first number of the "Itariya" (Italy), a magazine aiming at the exchange of the cultures of Japan and Italy, was published. The publication of the magazine is one of the undertakings of the Itariya-sha, an organization which was formed in Tokyo with the object of exchanging the cultures of Japan and Italy when the Italian goodwill mission visited Japan in the spring of 1938. Premier Mussolini of Italy sent in his autographed photograph in commemoration of the publication of the magazine. The contents of the magazine comprised articles on culture, education, art and other subjects pertaining to the two countries. The cover of the magazine contained a photogravure showing a part of the fresco of Michael Angelo in the Vatican Palace.

October 18—Fumiko Hayashi who, as already stated, had joined the troops advancing on Hankow, was the first Japanese woman to enter the city of Hankow which had fallen into the hands of Japanese forces. For more than a month she had to travel on foot with the advancing soldiers before she reached the principal city in Central China. The news of her valiant adventure aroused great admiration among the people at home in Japan.

October 26 — An "Evening of War Poems" was held in honour of the sick and wounded soldiers under the auspices of the Tokyo Poets' Club.

October 31—Fumiko Hayashi returned to Tokyo from the Hankow battle-front. She recounted the difficulty of accompanying the fighting forces and expressed gratitude to the officers and men and also told of her rejoicings over the entry of the fighting forces into Hankow which she described as a very impressive event. Together with a few other persons who had also accompanied the fighting forces, she attended a lecture meeting and impressed her au-

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dience by recounting her various observations, among which was the narrative of an officer continuing to give command while dying of a serious wound on a transport in which she journeyed.

November 2—With the assistance of the publicity department of the Ministry of the Navy, the second party of literary men was formed to proceed to the battlefront. The party included Shin Hasegawa, Seiji Haji, Burao Nakamura, Saburo Koga and Kunizo Minato, all writers of popular novels; Jiro Sekiguchi and Eijiro Hirose, both playwrights; Aisei Nomura, writer of juvenile novels; Kiyoshi Koishi, photograph artist, and Kijihiko Amano, writer of nursery stories. They decided to depart in four or five days.

About that time, the remaining members of the first party of literary men returned from the battle-front.

November 7—A meeting was held to promote peasant literature, attended by Count Rainei Arima, Minister of Agriculture and Forestry. Among others present at the meeting were Kensaku Shimaki and Den Wada. The consultations centred round the methods for the promotion of peasant literature.

November 25—As a result of the meeting held on November 7, a society for the promotion of peasant litrature was brought into existence. Among those attending the inaugural meeting of the society were Muraji Uchiki, Choku Tokunaga, Chiaki Shimomura, Sachiko Kusumoto, Itaru Nii, Yoshiji Maruyama and Kei Moriyama. For the promotion of its objective the society undertakes to publish books and has instituted a prize for the best work dealing with peasant life and in addition holds lecture meetings from time to time.

December 8—The Kitamura Tokoku prize which was created in commemoration of Tokoku Kitamura, the literary genius of the Meiji period who died young, was decided to be awarded to Yojuro Yasuda for his work entitled "Taikan-Shijin no Goichininsha" (peer of the crowned poets). The prize was thus being awarded for the second time.

Middle Part of December—It was announced that preparations were under way for the publication of a German version of the Mannyoshu (or Manyoshu), an anthology which is generally considered as the greatest of the classical Japanese literary works. The English version of the masterpiece had already been published some time ago. The German version was being prepared with the cooperation of Japanese and German scholars of the Mannyoshu, including Dr. Nobutsuna Sasaki, a poet; Dr. Kinji Kimura, professor of the Tokyo Imperial University, and Dr. Zachert, teacher at the Matsumoto High School. They resolved to select some 4,500 poems from the voluminous original work for translation which is scheduled to be completed in two years.

Dr. Sasaki was appointed to take charge of interpretation of the original while Dr. Zachert was appointed to render it into German, while Dr. Kimura was entrusted with the work of correcting the translation.

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dience by recounting her various observations, among which was the narrative of an officer continuing to give command while dying of a serious wound on a transport in which she journeyed.

November 2—With the assistance of the publicity department of the Ministry of the Navy, the second party of literary men was formed to proceed to the battlefront. The party included Shin Hasegawa, Seiji Haji, Burao Nakamura, Saburo Koga and Kunizo Minato, all writers of popular novels; Jiro Sekiguchi and Eijiro Hirose, both playwrights; Aisei Nomura, writer of juvenile novels; Kiyoshi Koishi, photograph artist, and Kijihiko Amano, writer of nursery stories. They decided to depart in four or five days.

About that time, the remaining members of the first party of literary men returned from the battle-front.

November 7—A meeting was held to promote peasant literature, attended by Count Rainei Arima, Minister of Agriculture and Forestry. Among others present at the meeting were Kensaku Shimaki and Den Wada. The consultations centred round the methods for the promotion of peasant literature.

November 25—As a result of the meeting held on November 7, a society for the promotion of peasant litrature was brought into existence. Among those attending the inaugural meeting of the society were Muraji Uchiki, Choku Tokunaga, Chiaki Shimomura, Sachiko Kusumoto, Itaru Nii, Yoshiji Maruyama and Kei Moriyama. For the promotion of its objective the society undertakes to publish books and has instituted a prize for the best work dealing with peasant life and in addition holds lecture meetings from time to time.

December 8—The Kitamura Tokoku prize which was created in commemoration of Tokoku Kitamura, the literary genius of the Meiji period who died young, was decided to be awarded to Yojuro Yasuda for his work entitled "Taikan-Shijin no Goichininsha" (peer of the crowned poets). The prize was thus being awarded for the second time.

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Promotion of Japanese Literature was decided to be awarded to Shusei Tokuda. The prize consists of a monetary gift and a memento. The Kikuchi Kan prize is awarded to authors of above 46 years of age for an outstanding contribution in literary field within the period of a year preceding the award. The selection of the prize winner is made by authors under 46 years of age.

A new literary prize was created by the Cultural Association of Japan for the purpose of promoting literary works on Japanese culture. The association requested the authorities of the Ministry of War, the Ministry of the Navy, the Ministry of Home Affairs, the Ministry of Overseas Affairs and the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry as well as the leading literary men to recommend names for the award of the prize. The selection committee consists of nine persons including Zenro Nagayo, Hyakuzo Kurota and Saneatsu Mushakoji.

Principal Literary Works Published During Past One Year

Tamio Hojo's "Doke-shibai" (farce), Published in April—This work describes the miserable life of a marxist who has changed his ideas. The story relates his conversation with his junior friend (who was declared a leper when he was hardly 20 and is now an inmate of a leper-asylum). The two drink while chatting and as they become drunk, each sighs over the other's inability to understand his sufferings. The discussion deals with the old and yet always new question: "What is life?" It is a powerful work depicting the instinctive force of life as well as the feeling of powerlessness before nature.

(The author was declared a leper while still very young and, during his life as an inmate of a leper-house, wrote many works including one entitled "Inochi-no-Shoya" (On the Eve of New Life). After the completion of the "Doke-shibai," he died, his disease becoming worse.

Seizaburo Yamada's "Jigo Zange" (Whispered Confession), Published in June—The story describes how the leader of a class war, during his term in prison, changes his mind and becomes an advocate of racial struggle. The frank confession commends itself to the reader.

Einosuke Ito's "Uguisu" (Japanese Nightingale), Published in June—It describes the events which occurred at a police substation in a country district. By observing people coming or taken to the police substation, the author criticizes the pitiable life and the low standard of culture in an out-of-the-way village in Japan. It is interspersed with humourous interludes.

Rintaro Takeda's "Kusa-no-Ashita" (Morning Grass), Published in June—It describes how a young girl working at night in order to make a living leaves for a walk early in the morning, symbolizing her rebirth from corruption. This work aroused great expectations for the author's future works.

Mantaro Kubota's "Hana-biye" (Chilly Flowers), Published in June—This work describes the scenes in the streets of Tokyo, which are a mixture of the time-honoured traditions of the past and the new rhythm and clamour of modern times. With his love for the old traditions the author dreams of the past and sighs for the things that are no more.

Fumiko Hayashi's "Hototogisu" (Cuckoo), Published in June—This work describes the desperate life of a woman whose face is disfigured by a blue mark, thus raising a serious feminine problem.

Takeo Oda's "Hyohaku no Ro Jin" (Wandering Lu Hsun), Published in July—This work is a short story describing the lonely life of Lu Hsun a chinese scholar, during his tenure as professor of the Amoy University. It well illustrates the tragedy of the far-sighted Chinese scholar who felt a stranger in his own land.

Toshiko Sato's "Karifornia Monogatari" (A Californian Tale), Published in July—The story begins with various events which occur in regard to the love and marriage of an American girl of Japanese extraction. The story hints that it may be Japanese rather than foreigners who do not appreciate the position of the so-called second generation.

Kenji Ohye's "Imin-igo" (After Immigration), Published in July—It describes the life of those who have gone to Sao Paulo in Brazil to work in coffee plantations, and tells of how they are hit by a slump in the coffee market and abandon the cultivated areas they used to live in , in order to migrate to the interior. The impellent force of this work lies in the fact that it again calls attention to the voice of the Japanese residents abroad at a time when the entire nation turns its attention to the China affair.

Uyio Tomisawa's "Fufu" (Man and Wife), Published in July—This is a story about the self-sacrificing spirit of

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be roughly classified into human figures, birds and animals, architectural structures, household articles and arms.

Asuka Period As has been stated in the preceding section, for sometime after the foundation of the Empire by the Emperor Jimmu, there was nothing worthy of mention in the realm of art. The Asuka period covers the reign of the Empress Suiko (592–629), when the Imperial palace was in the province of Yamato, Nara prefecture. Already, as early as the time of the Emperor Yuryaku, in the middle of the 5th century, a painter named Isura came over from Chosen, with which country Japan then had frequent intercourse, and through which Chinese civilization had been introduced. Later, during the reign of the Emperor Sushun, towards the end of the 6th century, another painter called Hakka came with carpenters to build temples. But it was not until Shibatatto came over from China, in the reign of the Emperor Keitai (507–531), that Buddhism was introduced into Japan, despite the fact that communication had long before continued with Chosen, then called Kudara.

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The development of art in the Suiko régime was really wonderful. Prince Shotoku, a man of wide learning and an enthusiastic devotee of Buddha, spurred on the ever increasing devotion to art. The leading structures of the period were the Horyuji and Tennoji temples; but those parts of them that have best withstood the wear and tear of time are the two-storied kondo, gate, the five-storied pagoda of the Horyuji temple and the three-storied pagodas of the Horyuji and Horinji temples. No doubt the creative design of the Prince must have been woven into them, but it is nevertheless true that they were modelled after Kudara architecture. It is only from these structures that one can form any idea of what Chinese architecture in those days might have been. The Tamamushi-no-zushi, (a miniature temple) in the Horyuji temple, is valuable not only as a model of ancient architecture but as an example of the structural art and craft of the Suiko régime. The honeysuckle design on the metal fittings of the miniature temple bears close resemblance to similar art motives of Greece. The sculptures of the Suiko period are not all from one source, some coming from China or Chosen, while others are home creations, either from the hands of Chinese sculptors, or the combined efforts of Japanese and naturalized aliens.

The fine art of the Suiko period has thus great depth and width, and at the same time affords invaluable reference for study.

Hakuho Period In the history of Japanese fine art, following the Suiko Era comes the Hakuho period which starts in the reign of the Emperor Jomei, terminating in that of the Emperor Mommu, 629–697. In the 15th year of the reign of the Empress Suiko the custom of sending a government envoy to China, then called Sui, was established, followed by increased intercourse between the two countries. Later, in the 2nd year of the Emperor Jomei's administration, the first envoy was despatched to the T'ang Court in China. By the establishment of this custom art products of China came direct to Japan instead of through the Korean Peninsula, as they had done up to that time. Moreover, the Taika Reformation, by which the political system of China came to be closely followed from the time of the Emperor Kotoku, contributed much toward developing Hakuho art.

(1) Painting. One of the most outstanding facts in the art of this period is that paintings were imported from the Continent, and Buddhist pictures were painted by priests from China and India. The mural paintings of the kondo of the Horyuji temple testify to this; Its fresco work is further advanced in technique than that of India, and is prized as the leading example of mural painting in any extant wooden building. This and other examples of imported pictorial art technique during the period eloquently speak of the inflow from Indian sources into Oriental countries.

(2) Bronze. The most representative work of the period consists in the big bronze images of Buddha and the two disciples at the Yakushiji temple at Nara. Upon their pedestals are engraved a hoshokumon design in lieu of honeysuckle which by that time had ceased to command preference. The hoshokumon design is the art of inlaying or setting jewels in necklaces, armlets, pedestals, and halos around the heads of images. In connection with the Yakushiji temple's three images, it is interesting to notice that, side by side with the hoshokumon, there is an engraving of arabesque design in grapes. This grape pattern also has its origin in the

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December—This is the work of an author who accompanied the fighting forces to Hankow. The story is skilfully told, with notes in the form of entries in a diary inserted here and there.

Yoshio Toyoshima's "Zaigaku Riyu" (Why in School) and "Ri Ei Tai" (name of a person), both Published in December—The peculiarities of the Koreans and the circumstances under which Korean students live in Tokyo are described in these works. The author displays his skill in picturing the Koreans who often lead a lonely life and yet have a bright and happy outlook.

Kanoko Okamoto's "Marunouchi Sowa" (A Scene in Marunouchi), Published in December—This is a picture of the peculiar mannerisms of the various classes of people in Tokyo. The story centres around Marunouchi, centre of the metropolis, and delineates the mode of life of the people moving about in that area.

Den Wada's "Seikatsu-no-Sakazuki" (The Cup of Life), Published in book form in December—This work describes the changes in agricultural villages in the form of a dialogue between father and son. It describes the process of the old naturally yielding to the new or the transition from ignorance and blind faith to wisdom and rationalism.

Kaju Hayama's "Umi to Yama to" (Sea and Mountain), Published in January, 1939—The story begins with the arrival at a port of a certain young man wishing to go to sea and then describes his seafaring life. It is interesting enough as a story. The dialogue between the characters is expressive of a simple life. It is regarded a masterpiece of literature.

Tatsuzo Ishikawa's "Bukan Sakusen" (Operations in the Wuhan Area), Published in January—The author represented the Chuo Koron (Central Review) in the literary delegation which accompanied the fighting forces to Hankow and this work is a result of his observations at the battle-front.

Fine Arts

History

Pre-Asuka Period This period, corresponding to what is called the dark age of art, has nothing specially to describe, although it is perhaps the longest period, extending, as it does, from the age of myths down to about the 7th century, A.D.

According to archaeology the ancient Japanese worked in stone, artifacts such as stone images being used in ancestor worship. These are rough hewn sculptures, representing persons clad in armour, wearing a sword, or other arms, all having been used in burial as guardians of the tomb. It was customary, too, in ancient times to have a similar primitive engraving, in the form of a ladder or a wheel, made on the coffin; the plain, artless impression thus conveyed is expressive of the simple mode of living in that remote age.

The dwellings were also in very simple style, constructed of barked but unhewn timber. Even in this simplest type of building there were two styles, known as the Izumo and the Isé; which implies that the ancient culture of Japan was dual, derived either from Izumo or Isé. The former style of structure is represented by the Izumo Shrine, Izumo province, present Shimané prefecture; and the latter by the great shrine of Isé, although these now give no more than a vague idea of what must have been the prehistoric architecture of the country.

In addition to the above, there are earthen figures called haniwa which arrest the attention not only of archaeologists but also of artists. According to historical records, the Emperor Suinin, who abdicated in 2 B.C., abhorred the cruel old custom of burying people alive around the grave of a high personage, certain individuals being selected from among those persons who were under patronage of the deceased in life. At the instance of a retainer, Nomino-Sukuné, he caused earthen figures to be interred in place of living persons, when the Empress Hihasuhimé died; and this was the origin of haniwa. It is believable, however, that the haniwa existed before Suinin's time. The haniwa is, from an artistic point of view, by no means of high value. It is, nevertheless, the only art product of Japan before the importation of Buddhism. Moreover, its value rests on the fact that it is a work produced solely by the Japanese before they had been influenced by Chinese art. Besides, it is invaluable in that it gives some idea of the life of the people of its day. The variety of haniwa may

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(1) Painting. One of the most outstanding facts in the art of this period is that paintings were imported from the Continent, and Buddhist pictures were painted by priests from China and India. The mural paintings of the kondo of the Horyuji temple testify to this; Its fresco work is further advanced in technique than that of India, and is prized as the leading example of mural painting in any extant wooden building. This and other examples of imported pictorial art technique during the period eloquently speak of the inflow from Indian sources into Oriental countries.

(2) Bronze. The most representative work of the period consists in the big bronze images of Buddha and the two disciples at the Yakushiji temple at Nara. Upon their pedestals are engraved a hoshokumon design in lieu of honeysuckle which by that time had ceased to command preference. The hoshokumon design is the art of inlaying or setting jewels in necklaces, armlets, pedestals, and halos around the heads of images. In connection with the Yakushiji temple's three images, it is interesting to notice that, side by side with the hoshokumon, there is an engraving of arabesque design in grapes. This grape pattern also has its origin in the

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of despatching envoys to China, thereby cutting off facility of communications with the continent. During the consequent isolation Japanese art was afforded a chance to cultivate its native genius and its own field of influence. The continental art that had been freely absorbed and adopted up to that time commenced to produce national characteristics as is demonstrated by yamatoyé work in the sphere of painting.

(1) Painting. Koséno-Kanaoka was probably the most skilled landscape painter of the period. His reputation was such that the horse he painted on a paper sliding-door was credited with getting out of the screen at night to feed on bush clover in the yard. Koseno-Hirotaka, a well-known painter, was one of his descendants. As skilled painters of that age we may mention also Motomitsu Fujiwara, Mitsunaga Fujiwara, Takayoshi Fujiwara and his son Takachika, besides Toba-sojo and Kakuyu, all of whom specialized in painting yamatoyé or native style, which had developed from a school in the T'ang period of China, called Karayé. Japanese paper-doors and folding screens were what they selected to paint on.

Besides yamatoyé many other schools of Japanese style paintings were started, as the kamiyé, utayé, ashideyé, and okoyé. The last mentioned was a school of comic genius whose premier artist was Toba-sojo, a noted priest of the day. Three albums of comic pictures from his brush are treasured at the Kozanji temple. Another important arrival was the yémakimono (paper-scroll) which later developed until reaching its golden age in the Kamakura period. The aforementioned three artists were the most popular masters of the age. Some of their work still survives.

Consequent upon the ever inculcated Buddhist precepts, Buddhist paintings flourished, so much so that specialists in that art were always in evidence. In this religious sphere of painting also national characterization was effected to no meagre extent. The most outstanding of the Japanized Buddhist schools was named the Eshinfu, started by Eshinsodzu, a priest, first affiliated with the Tendai sect of Buddhism, but who later preached the doctrines of the Jodo sect. Probably this school was second to none at that time in Japanization of technique. Taméto, commonly called Great Takuma, who did the fresco work of the Ho-o-do at Uji, Kyoto, belonged to the Takuma family, producing accomplished painters of the time. The most representative Buddhist paintings are treasured at the Hokkéji, Yamashiro Chohoji, Yamato Horinji, Koyasan, the Toji temples and the Imperial Art Museum of Tokyo.

(2) Sculpture. Remarkable advancement in the realm of Buddhist sculpture was revealed in consequence of effective doctrinal propaganda by the Tendai and Shingon sects. Wood-engraving stood unrivalled, but that art, unlike the same mode of the previous age, was mainly in what is called parquetry work. Sculptors collaborated, and in most cases images were constructed in separate parts, each carved by a different artist, under an accomplished specialist. It is interesting to note that even in the carving of hands, feet, head and body there was a division of labour into smaller parts, and each section was put in charge of one sculptor. When completed, the several parts were put together, painted with lacquer and gilded.

Guilds of sculptors, like the shichijo-bussho, Shichijo-omiya-bussho, Rokujo-marikoji-bussho and Sanjo-bussho, established studios one after another. Especially noteworthy in this field was the Shichijo-bussho started by the famous artist Jocho who was practically supreme in the realm of sculpture in the Fujiwara period. The peculiarity of the Jocho school of his creation lies in its soft, mild features with smooth, elegant textile folds or plaits, which characterize the most glorious period of Fujiwara art. The images of Amitabha enshrined at the Ho-o-do, Hokaiji, Saikyoji and Chusonji temples are all representative works of the Fujiwara period.

(3) Architecture. Along with the development of Japanese style painting, a new Japanese architecture, as seen in what is called the Shinden-zukuri (main building of a peer's residence), prevailed. This style gradually encroached on the domain of sacred structures, as is well exemplified in the Ho-o-do and Konjikido, above cited.

Within three hundred years after the country's adoption of a seclusion policy, an indigenous style characteristic of the Yamato race made the fullest possible development in all branches of art.

Kamakura Period Between the Emperor Gotoba and Emperor Godaigo the Kamakura Shogunate assumed the reins of government. The Kamakura period (1192–1337) of political history is at the same time that of Japanese art. During those 140 years traditional Japanese sentiments and thought developed vigorously against the aristocratic culture which had gained influence in the

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previous period. Such a turn of cultural development could not but react on art; the anti-traditional spirit of the age began to tell on artistic creation. Not only from within but also from without the country a radical change was introduced, because in those days the Yuan period succeeded the Sung in China; and its highly favoured cultural attainments came flooding into Japan. The two movements, of foreign and domestic origin, combined to lay a foundation for modern fine art which started and developed in and after the Muromachi period.

(1) Painting. Continued civil wars, military administration, and war literature, all contributed to the voluminous production of yemakimono (picture-scrolls) based on themes from battle scenes. Another kind of yémakimono worthy of special mention was painted for the purpose of propagating the doctrines of newly risen sects of Buddhism, such as the Zen and Jodo. This pictorial demonstration of religious doctrines proved quite effective; for, by depicting the life and work of founders, a more direct appeal was made to prospective converts. For the same reason the yémakimono came to serve also as a means to propagate knowledge of the origin and development of shrines. Quite a number of picture-scrolls of the period still remain in perfect condition, those reckoned among the greater works being the History of the Kitano Tenjin Shrine, Murasaki-shikibu-nikki, Sanjurokkasen, Mokoshurai-ékotoba, Honen-shonin-gyojo-édzu. The last mentioned is a yémakimono depicting the personal history of Honen-shonin, the noted priest who founded the Jodo sect of Buddhism. Among scores of yémakimono painters, Nobuzané Fujiwara, Kéion Sumiyoshi, En-i, Takakané Takashina and Yoshimitsu Tosa were the most popular. A further noteworthy event of the period was the rise of portrait painting. Generally speaking, until this period there was no other method for reproducing figures except by sculpture. The term for portrait was niséyé. But toward the end of this period a new mode appeared. The technique of portrait painting made rapid advance from the time of Takanobu Fujiwara, Taira-no-Shigémori, Minamoto-no-Yoritomo whose works are treasured at the Shingoji temple, all rare masterpieces.

With reference to Buddhistic painting, the aforementioned Takuma school gradually improved in technique; and with the appearance of Shoga, a descendant of the Takumas, the Takuma school of Buddhist painting was founded, drawing a clear line between the old and the new delineations.

(2) Sculpture. The Kamakura period was also a fecund age in the direction of sculpture. Compared with the work of the preceding period it appeals with more virility. The Shichijo-bussho, the most important sculptors' association or guild, which had been making steady progress, produced a group of consummate artists in Koéi, Unkéi, Jokaku, Kaikéi, Tankéi, Jokéi, Koben and Kosho, all contemporaries. Among them the most skilled were Unkéi, Tankéi and Kaikéi, who are recognized as the best sculptors since the time of Jocho. Whereas Unkéi and Tankéi excelled in producing the expression of passion, as in statues of nio (Deva kings), Kaikéi specialized in gentle, elegant figures, like those from the chisel of Jocho.

(3) Industrial Art. Lacquer-ware technique, too, made a remarkable advance. The art of engraving also progressed, especially with the appearance of the Kamakura-bori (Kamakura style of engraving). Technique in metal work, also saw much development, inheriting the characteristic virtues of the Fujiwara period. Up to that time the native ceramic art was in so primitive a stage that only unglazed ware could be manufactured. After Kato Shirozaémon-Kagéhisa returned from Sung, marked progress was made in this field, and fine chinaware became a home product.

(4) Architecture. The mansions of nobles had been built in the Shinden-zukuri style, but during the Kamakura period the Buké-zukuri style of architecture started and soon dominated. This is a simple, plain style with an unusual number of sliding-doors to let in light. Though this style of structure has gone out long ago, one can get an idea of it through various yémakimono in which this style of architecture is represented. After the advent of the Zen sect of Buddhism under Éisai-zenshi from China, then called Sung, and the establishment of the Kenninji temple at Kyoto, Zen style of architecture came to attract attention. A good example of this style, still intact, is the Enkakuji temple at Kamakura.

Muromachi Period Succeeding the Kamakura age came the Muromachi period (1337–1573), which, after the two centuries and a half of civil strife, ended with the downfall of the Ashikaga Shogunate. In China the civil disturbances of the late Yuan dynasty had been brought under control by the rise

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of the Mings, resulting in the advent of the golden age of Ming culture, which exercised some influence on Japan.

(1) Painting. As was customary whenever Chinese culture attained its zenith, communication between the two countries, which had been on the wane, revived again, resulting in the gradual decline of yémakimono, portrait and Buddhist painting, handed down from the preceding Kamakura period, which were unable to cope with the powerful influence of Sung-Yuan style of painting in China. Early in this period there were not a few yémakimono worthy of note such as the Gosannen-gunki by Koréhisa Fujiwara and the Yuzu-nembutsu-engi, joint work of Hiroyuki Tosa, Yukihidé Kasuga, Mitsukuni Fujiwara, Ryuko Awataguchi, Jakusai Rokkaku and Éishun Hogan. The latter still remains in the form of a coloured wood-engraving, perhaps the most widely known as our oldest example of this art.

Typical portrait work of the period is that of the Emperor Godaigo in the Daitokuji temple, Kyoto, and of Yoshimochi Ashikaga, at the Shingoji temple. Far more characteristic of the age, however, are the portraits of Zen priests or so-called "Chinso." The most typical chinso is, perhaps, the portrait of Séiichi-kokushi, painted by Mincho, preserved in the Tofukuji temple. Strictly speaking, chinso has more similarity to the Sung-Yuan style than to the Tosa school of portraits.

Buddhist painting of the Muromachi period may roughly be adjudged stationary. Copying of old works seemed to have been the only task attracting artists, among whom a priest named Myotaku-zenshi was known for skill in painting Acala pieces; the principal works of this priest-painter are treasures of the Imperial Art Museum. The most distinguished pictorial artist throughout the period, however, was Mincho. Among his works handed down to the present are the portrait of Séiichi-kokushi, above-mentioned, Gohyakurakan (five hundred disciples of Buddha) in the Tofukuji temple, and Daiséhanzu, known as the largest painting in the country. In his brush work are ample traces of the style of the Sung-Yuan period in China; and he was, moreover, the leading painter of the age by whose art the Continental technique, introduced with the Zen sect in the Kamakura period, was digested, assimilated and consummated.

Special mention should be made of the advent of the Sung-Ming style in yamatoyé work, enhancing the traditional style of that art. This new movement was no doubt made possible by the Ashikaga policy of encouraging trade with China, then called Ming. In consequence, numerous Chinese works of art continued to be imported, greatly stimulating the domestic art world. Among various merits and demerits then inherited from the Continent, kakémono (hanging pictures) and a more advanced technique in painting flowers and birds were perhaps the most outstanding. It is also a fact worthy of special mention that the Sung-Yuan style of sumiyé painting (black and white) became popular throughout Japan, under artists like Jasoku Soga, Sotan Oguri, Shinno Nakano, Sésshu and Masanobu Kano. These five sumiyé painters were talented pupils of Shubun who enjoyed the confidence of the Shogun and occupied an important position under the Shogunate government as a painter.

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(3) Industrial Art. In this epoch the development shown in industrial art was mainly due to the whimsical enthusiasm of the Shogun. Chanoyu (tea ceremony), a ceremonial etiquette genuinely Japanese, gave rapid rise to various branches of industrial art especially in fine porcelain, the climax of which was reached during the latter part of the period. This progress was not only in works of manual art like tea-cups, trays and so on, but in kakémono and tokonoma (alcove) furnishings of the tea-room, and the building itself, all of which are required for the full ceremony of tea-serving. Most of the tea-cups used for chanoyu in those days were of Chinese make, or imports from the South Seas.

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Ceramics also were greatly enhanced in technique. Impelled by the nation-wide use of chinaware, due to the popularization of chanoyu, imported articles grew insufficient. As a natural consequence, home industry in this direction was greatly stimulated, resulting in Nagasuké Chojiro invention of the rakuyaki style and Rokubéi Mikazuki's bizenyaki style of ceramic ware. In the realm of textile art, what is to be noted is that in the Tensho Era (1573) a new technique in weaving was introduced from Ming, China, and reached Nishijin, Kyoto, where it appeared in the form of Yamato-nishiki, ito-nishiki, karaori-nishiki, kinran (gold brocade), donsu (satin damask), rinzu, and so on.

In conclusion it may be said of the art of the Momoyama period that, while developing such gorgeous and imposing structures as the Jurakudai and Momoyama Castle, it popularized the exclusive, austere and polite art of chanoyu. Thus two diametrically opposed arts developed all through the Momoyama period.

Yédo Period The Yédo period (1603–1867) started with the Tokugawa Shogunate in Tokyo, then called Yédo, and terminated with the downfall of that government just before the Meiji Restoration. During the 260 years of the Tokugawa Shogunate Yédo flourished, cultivating its own culture as against that of Kyoto, giving the country two centres of culture, one in the east and one in the west.

In the early Yédo period communication with countries beyond the sea opened and foreign trade was thereby greatly stimulated. Whereas hitherto Japan had had little or no dealing with Europeans, save Spaniards and Portuguese, Japan now began to be visited by Hollanders and Britons who came to her shores for commercial purposes. Relations with neighbouring countries also increased in intimacy, due to improved communication facilities. Nevertheless, the people were not satisfied with official passivity but extended their trade with Siam, Cochin, Tonking, Luzon. Furthermore, Iyéyasu Tokugawa, the first Shogun of that line, even attempted to trade with Spain and Mexico, sending envoys for that purpose. By this improved intercourse with foreign countries traditional Japanese art was greatly influenced. In the Kan-éi Era (1644), Émosaku Yamada first produced pictures in Western style painting. Fortunately or unfortunately, however, the third Shogun, Iyémitsu, with a view to stamping out Roman Catholicism pursued and imposed an isolation policy by prohibiting the entrance of all foreigners except Hollanders and Chinese. Under this high-handed policy the infiltration of foreign influence was almost completely checked, and domestic genius again came into its own, developing another golden age of fine art.

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these leaders displayed great activity in nurturing the Japanese style of painting as we see it today.

(3) Western Painting. Towards the end of the Yédo Era the foundation of the Occidental style in painting had already been laid by Kokan Shiba and Denzen Aodo; and now came Togai Kawakami, Yuichi Takahashi, Horyu Goséda, Hosui Yamamoto, Shinkuro Kunisawa, Chu Asai, Shotaro Oyama, Kiyowo Kawamura and Naojiro Harada, for whom the former foundation work became the basis for a new start. In the early Meiji days, English and Italian painters came to give lessons at the fine art department of the Tokyo Imperial University. Later, in the 21st year of Meiji, the Meiji Bijutsukai was founded for the purpose of enhancing the Western style of painting. It was, however, not until Kiyotéru Kuroda returned from France and opened a department for Western style painting in the Tokyo Academy of Fine Arts, that the Occidental mode really became established. Important artists in the new style in those days were Saburosuké Okada, Éisaku Wada, Takéji Fujishima, Kotaro Nagahara, Mankichi Kobayashi, Fusétsu Nakamura, Kunishiro Mitsutani, Sanzo Wada and Kunzo Minami. The models set by these great painters still prevail to-day, but will in future be more subjected to the influence of the Japanese style before reaching consummation, just as the Japanese style will assimilate Western motives and technique as it keeps on its forward march.

(4) Industrial Art. The ceramic industry made rapid advancement after the arrival of Wagner from Germany with a new technique; and with the help of Kozan Miyagawa, Yohéi Kiyokazé, Dohachi Takahashi, Rokubéi Shimizu and Sobéi Kinkozan. In recent years Hazan Itaya, Rokubéi Shimizu and Ichiga Numata have won distinction in this sphere of art. During the Meiji Era, fine cloisonne was manufactured and exported in abundance. Metal work also developed to a remarkable extent, producing a number of skilled artists. In the domain of lacquer and dying industries no less improvement brought Japanese industrial art to the verge of its golden age.

The tendency of Western countries to vie with one another in holding Japanese art exhibitions amply endorses the international value of Japanese art.

(5) Sculpture. Upon opening the Tokyo Academy of Fine Arts, Kyuichi Takéuchi and Koun Takamura gave lessons in traditional Japanese wood sculpture. Western style sculpture was also taught, by an Italian instructor in the academy, side by side with lessons from Shukéi Naganuma who had returned from Italy, followed by Fumio Asakura, Taimu Tatéhata, Séibo Kitamura. From Koun Takamura and Kyuichi Takéuchi we come down to Choun Yamasaki, Unkai Yonéhara, Denchu Hirakushi, Shin Naito. In the Meiji Era the rise of ivory carving was also conspicuous, producing engravers like Gyokuzan Asahi and Komyo Ishikawa.

What helped the phenomenal ascendency of all branches of art were the Bunten (Education Office's art exhibition) which later came to be called Téiten (Téikoku Bijutsuin art exhibition), and the Inten (Nihon Bijutsuin art exhibition). Besides, there were and are exhibitions held by many other smaller groups of painters. From the viewpoint of art, it is not too much to say that Japan is to the Orient what France is to Europe.

Conditions of World of Fine Arts During 1938–39

The condition of fine arts during 1938 reflected most sensitively the effect which the amplification of the China Incident produced upon the society and thought of the people. The effect of the wartime conditions upon fine arts began to be conspicuous during the first half of 1938, the most outstanding feature of which may be described as a positive tendency among the artists toward what may be called "L'art dont l'idée est inspirée par la guerre," or "L'art dont les motifs sont directement inspirés par la gurre."

Toward the latter part of 1937, and after, numerous artists were permitted to visit North China and Shanghai to observe the conditions of the military operations there. The result of their observations of the battle-front was the production of various sketches which were soon sent home and featured both newspapers and magazines in Japan Proper. Later, the artists who returned home from the front displayed their works at art exhibitions though on a small scale.

At the beginning, however, most of the artists who visited China were of lesser fame and their activities were not systematic. By and by, leading artists volunteered to visit the battle-front in increasing numbers, and the authorities of the defence services not only welcomed their visit but even undertook to select representative artists and assigned each of them to a specific piece of work. Thus, with the pro-

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That the fighting services showed keen interest in the production of war pictures was well evidenced when the Hata unit of the Imperial forces operating in Central China invited the representatives of the various artists' groups to visit the Shanghai-Nanking area in April, 1938, when the operations for the capture of Nanking were successfully completed. Those invited included Messrs Kenichi Nakamura, Ryohei Koiso, Kanemon Asai, Junkichi Mukai, Jumpei Eto, Kakutaro Kashiwabara, Kazu Wakita and Masayoshi Minami, all of whom produced paintings of great value depicting the principal battles fought in the Shanghai-Nanking area. This fact attracted a great deal of public attention, not only because it manifested the interest of the authorities of the Navy and the Army for the recording of war scenes by the brush of the artists but also because the project was sponsored in an orderly and systematic way and the selection of the artists was wide and representative.

In March, 1938, the eighth exhibition under the auspices of the Independent Art Association which represents the progressive group of artists of the Western School in this country was held as the first event of the season. Among the exhibits those which aroused special interest among the public were the two paintings of Nobuyuki Shimizu, one entitled "Vestiges of War in the Kiangnan Area" and the other entitled "Camouflage," which were done in modern style based on cubism and represented the first pieces of work of a purely artistic design to be exhibited at a salon of war pictures.

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Following the exhibition of the Nikakai, the Art Exhibition of the Education Department was held from October 15th to November 20th. Among the representative exhibits at the government exhibition were the work entitled the "Defence of the Fen River" by Usaburo Ihara and the work entitled the "Surviving Special Service Corps" by Kanemon Asai.

While works of art relating to war themes continued to be produced, the question arose among artists as to whether the modern mechanized warfare could become an objective of purely artistic work when viewed from the standpoint of technique. This question was discussed in earnest among Japanese-style artists whose works had been exclusively of a classical nature. Although they were not prepared to yield their artistic standards, their strong patriotism enabled them gradually to overcome their traditional prejudice against modern objectives by the adoption of the principle, "L'art dont l'idée est inspirée par guerre" in the broad sense of the expression.

The new tendency implied no change in artistic standards other than that of an approach to a kind of theme art or tendency art, and the artists manifested their own traditional spirit in the selection of motifs. It is also interesting to note here that while the war scenes were treated by artists of Western school from a chiefly realistic standpoint, artists of the Japanese school laid stress upon the enhancement of the racial consciousness and the promotion of the spiritual aspect of war. As the best illustrations of this latter kind may be mentioned the works of Taikan Yokoyama and Gyokudo Kawai which were shown in the Japanese section of the Art Exhibition of the Education Department in the latter part of 1938.

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these leaders displayed great activity in nurturing the Japanese style of painting as we see it today.

(3) Western Painting. Towards the end of the Yédo Era the foundation of the Occidental style in painting had already been laid by Kokan Shiba and Denzen Aodo; and now came Togai Kawakami, Yuichi Takahashi, Horyu Goséda, Hosui Yamamoto, Shinkuro Kunisawa, Chu Asai, Shotaro Oyama, Kiyowo Kawamura and Naojiro Harada, for whom the former foundation work became the basis for a new start. In the early Meiji days, English and Italian painters came to give lessons at the fine art department of the Tokyo Imperial University. Later, in the 21st year of Meiji, the Meiji Bijutsukai was founded for the purpose of enhancing the Western style of painting. It was, however, not until Kiyotéru Kuroda returned from France and opened a department for Western style painting in the Tokyo Academy of Fine Arts, that the Occidental mode really became established. Important artists in the new style in those days were Saburosuké Okada, Éisaku Wada, Takéji Fujishima, Kotaro Nagahara, Mankichi Kobayashi, Fusétsu Nakamura, Kunishiro Mitsutani, Sanzo Wada and Kunzo Minami. The models set by these great painters still prevail to-day, but will in future be more subjected to the influence of the Japanese style before reaching consummation, just as the Japanese style will assimilate Western motives and technique as it keeps on its forward march.

(4) Industrial Art. The ceramic industry made rapid advancement after the arrival of Wagner from Germany with a new technique; and with the help of Kozan Miyagawa, Yohéi Kiyokazé, Dohachi Takahashi, Rokubéi Shimizu and Sobéi Kinkozan. In recent years Hazan Itaya, Rokubéi Shimizu and Ichiga Numata have won distinction in this sphere of art. During the Meiji Era, fine cloisonne was manufactured and exported in abundance. Metal work also developed to a remarkable extent, producing a number of skilled artists. In the domain of lacquer and dying industries no less improvement brought Japanese industrial art to the verge of its golden age.

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aspect of national life is Gyokudo Kawai's work entitled "Shade of a Tree," depicting an old farmer with a calf by his side resting in the shade of a tree in an upland pasture. This picture silently bespoke confidence which the Japanese people put in their country and the gratitude which they felt while defending the home front in the brightened atmosphere of continued victory. The former pictured the stern, immutable bulwark of national spirit in the shape of the grand shrines while the other showed the true national sentiment of the Japanese people as lovers of peace, and their equanimity in a restless world.

The afore-mentioned two works not only showed the prevailing spirit of the times but also indicated the two phases of the national life, the idealistic and the realistic aspects of the nation. Among the exhibits belonging to the category of Taikan Yokoyama's works at the same exhibition were Yukihiko Yasuda's "Sun Tze," a picture based on the Chinese story of Sun Tze, a great tactician, who killed the favourite consort of the king for her disturbance of the military command and Nampu Katayama's "After the Rain" which showed its moral in the current situation by depicting the snow-white flowers of bottle-gourds sending out sweet fragrance in the dust after a shower. The principal exhibits of the category of Gyokudo Kawai's works included Keigetsu Kikuchi's "Exchange of Courtesies in the Camp" which shows two warriors rejoicing over their meeting in the field in the old samurai manner, Shinsui Ito's "Cow and Boy" which depicts the active life of the rising generation defending the home-front and Suiun Komuro's "Military Dog" which brings to mind the valuable service rendered by dogs on the battle-front.

In the "Cow and Boy" Shinsui Ito displayed a vigorous realism departing from his usual sentimental touch and preference for sensuous, feminine subjects. For this reason his latest work won him a new reputation.

Thus, in the field of Japanese-style paintings, the current situation inspired the artists toward a new approach to their subject and indicated their deep interest in the prevailing conditions. Thus were brought into play the traditional symbolism and idealism of the Japanese art.

European-style paintings by Japanese artists concretely reflected the current situation in the selection of motifs. The contrast to the symbolical Japanese-style pictures is illustrative of the social role played by European-style works by Japanese artists, showing the raison d'être of this school which has progressed on the basis of realism and impressionistic naturalism.

Another feature associated with the current situation as seen in the selection of motifs is the general interest displayed by artists in China and its people. Japanese artists had throughout history shown an enthusiastic admiration for China's civilization and art just as the European artists had done for the fine arts of Italy. So deep was the admiration for Chinese standards of beauty that Japanese artists always sought the motifs for their important works in China. This custom changed radically, however, when the anti-Japanese policy of the National Government of China made it impossible and even dangerous for Japanese artists to travel in the country.

Under the above circumstances, the number of Japanese artists travelling in China decreased with the result that Japanese artists began to lose touch with Chinese art and life. The China Incident, however, unexpectedly gratified the desire of many of the artists to come in personal contact with Chinese art and life and enabled them to renew their interest in regard to them. This could not fail to affect their selection of motifs for their works.

The 24th exhibition under the auspices of the Japan Academy of Art, one of the most influential organizations of artists, was held from September 3rd to October 4th when Seison Maeda, a leading artist connected with the said exhibition, displayed his latest elaborate work entitled "Picture of the Stone Image of Buddha in Tatung" which he produced during his visit in China. The work was favourably received. A work of identical motif by the leading artist of Seiryusha School, Ryushi Kawabata was exhibited at the 10th exhibition of the Seiryusha, an organization of artists which stands for modern influences in art and opposed to the Japan Academy of Art. Considerable interest was aroused by the contrast between the two, the former being based on romanticism while the latter was based on realism. Incidentally, it may be mentioned that the stone image of Buddha in Tatung also formed the motif for a few other works displayed at the academy's exhibition.

The same tendency also characterized the works of artists of the Western-school whose works were displayed at

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the exhibition held under the auspices of the Nikakai and the Art Exhibition of the Education Department, and at other exhibitions. Many of the works displayed at the Education Department's exhibition were produced with Chinese motifs. Among the outstanding exhibits at this exhibition were Hiromitsu Nakasawa's "Wantzelou in Peking," and Riichiro Kawashima's "Chiulungpi in Peking." The most notable among the exhibits at the Issuikai exhibition were Hakutei Ishii's "Tranquillity in Mongolia" and Ikuma Arishima's "Spring in the Kiangnan Area."

It may be inferred from the foregoing paragraphs that the Japanese artists of the Western school have maintained a realistic standard while those of the Japanese school have shown preference to classicism. This is, of course, a very generalized statement, for there are so many factions in each school, showing different tendencies and following different standards. It is noteworthy that in most cases the progressive elements are represented by the young artists. In this connection, special mention must be made of the fact that the progressive elements of the Western school have been laying stress on romanticism as against the rather drab realism while those of the Japanese school have been emphasizing realism as against the old idealism or romanticism.

The most active among the organizations of the progressive elements of the Japanese school and the Western school are the Seiryusha and the Independent Fine Arts Association respectively. Other organizations of the kind include the "New School Artists' Association" (Shin-seisakuha Kyokai) which was organized by the younger artists who withdrew from the Art Exhibition of the Education Department, the stronghold of academism, in 1936, to uphold anti-academism.

For a time, the movement of the progressive elements seemed to become unduly reactionary, deviating from its primary object and often showing a leaning toward fanaticism. They were time and again absorbed in ideological arguments in disregard to accepted standards and social sentiment, thus seeming to stand opposed to actualities. The extraordinary situation brought about by the outbreak and progress of the China Incident, however, provided a chance for the progressive elements to reconsider their attitude with the result that the reactionary tendency gradually came to be restrained and an approach to social sentiment instead of a deviation from actualities was manifested, while their interest in technique increased.

As already stated, Nobuyuki Shimizu, a leader of the progressive group, displayed his works including the "Vestiges of War in the Kiangnan Area" at the 8th exhibition of the Independent Fine Arts Association, which testified to the fact that patriotism also prevailed in the vanguard of artists. Thus, the patriotic sentiment expressed itself most vigorously in the choice and treatment of subjects. Although this sentiment had always been present among the artists, the China Incident gave an opportunity for its full display.

An approach to realistic portrayal of sentiment was clearly manifested in the series of pictures entitled "Three Pieces on Clouds" which was displayed at the 8th exhibition of the Independent Fine Arts Association by Ichiro Fukuzawa, representative leader of the super-realism movement in this country.

The Independent Fine Arts Association is an organization which is primarily interested in the advancement of Western standards of art based on modernism. The organization, however, has been featured by liberalism permitting full development of originality of the individual members with the result that some members have already experimented in the blending of Japanese and Western technique. Zenzaburo Kodama and Kinosuké Ebihara have done much in this regard. The former seems to have been aiming at a modern type of ukiyoé (genre-pictures) of Hokusai and Hiroshigé while the latter appears to have been endeavouring to present Japanese sentiment in the refined technique of modern French art.

The various works of Tsuguji Fujita were displayed at the exhibition of the Nikakai and Ryuzaburo Umehara's "Femme nue aux éventails" and Takeji Fujishima's "The Tillage" were displayed at the Art Exhibition of the Education Department. Particularly, the work of Fujishima attracted attention for its Oriental-style presentation of the spirit of the times and the impressionistic attitude of the painter.

Next, we shall deal with the conditions of sculpture during the year. Generally speaking, the current situation arising from the China Incident was also reflected in sculpture as in painting. The number of works by sculptors representing soldiers, sailors, and other military subjects showed a re-

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Japanese aesthetic sense. The interior is composed of 25 galleries, in addition to a number of storing rooms, repair rooms, research rooms, etc. The total floor space amounts to 6,522 tsubo. Its equipment as a museum built with the most modern technique is perfect both for affording the best possible observation of the objects of art on display and for preserving them, there being adequate illuminating facilities, and equipment for keeping the temperature at a proper degree, appropriate ventilating facilities, etc.

The new building of the Imperial Museum comprises the best and largest galleries of objects of the fine art of ancient times in this country. The inauguration of the new galleries, emerging as they did under wartime conditions attracted a great deal of public attention.

Another event which requires special mention here concerns the repair works undertaken on the famous Horyuji. As is well known, the Horyuji is a temple comprising some of the oldest wooden structures now existing in the world and has some of the best objects of ancient fine art in Japan including paintings and sculptures.

The repair works have been undertaken on parts of the buildings of the temple on an elaborate scale and the situation brought about by the outbreak of the China Incident has not hindered the continuance of the work which began in 1936. In this connection, it must be noted that the execution of the repair work has not only contributed to the preservation of the time-honoured temple but has also incidentally furnished various materials for clearing many a tangled or doubtful historical problem.

Those parts of the temple on which repair works were completed during 1938 included the gallery (kairo) (dating back to the Muromachi period) of the eastern temple (tōin) and the southern and the front gates.

As the repair work progresses, the question as to how the famous mural painting representing Bodhisattva on the inside wall of the golden hall of the western temple should be handled will have to be solved. Careful investigations are now being made by experts from engineering, artistic and scientific points of view.

After the outbreak of the China Incident, exchanges of objects of fine art to be exhibited abroad or shipment out of the country of works of fine art for the purpose of promoting international goodwill and friendship were discontinued for a time. In 1938, however, the German Government expressed a desire to have various ancient Japanese art products put on display at the proposed exhibition of works of ancient Japanese fine art to be held in the following spring by the State Art Museum in Berlin. Accordingly in December of the same year, numerous works of fine art (mostly those belonging to the period between the thirteenth and eighteenth century) including paintings, sculptures and industrial products were shipped to Germany.

In this connection, it must be observed that many of the outstanding works of ancient fine art of Japan have since time immemorial been preserved by individual families and seldom taken out of the homes of their owners. For this reason, it has always been a difficult task to secure valuable works of art for exhibition abroad. Thus, the shipment of so many valuable art products to Germany in 1938 must be regarded as a highly significant achievement.

The above mentioned events are all illustrative of the cultural efforts and activities which the Japanese people have been displaying under the wartime system.

During 1939 With the beginning of 1939, the various wartime conditions influencing fine art circles, as witnessed in the previous year, became more conspicuous. With the progress of the China Incident, it became evident that the fine art circles developed a specific tendency.

The decisive victory of the Japanese forces in China and the far-reaching military operations which gradually expanded during the past one year or more threw a new light upon the significance of the China Incident. The new military and political conditions inevitably directed the course of national thought and turned all sorts of cultural activities toward a constructive ideology. In other words, the defensive attitude of the Japanese Government against the hostile activities of the Chinese Kuomintang Government, which marked the beginning of the China Incident, was changed to a positive and constructive attitude of establishing a new order in East Asia as a result of the developments which had occurred during the period of nearly two years followng the outbreak of the incident.

The national policy for the establishment of a new order in East Asia thus

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official organ, however, is no longer the same. The problem is a new one to be solved in the light of the importance of the social role which the official organ must play under the wartime system in connection with the China Incident. It may be said that the problem as it stands today is far more important than any in the past.

The reforms of the Art Exhibition of the Education Department failed to prevent the appearance of a division among artists into more than two groups. The Government authorities, however, have been endeavouring to unite these groups together and their earnest efforts in this connection were apparent in the 2nd exhibition held during 1938. This exhibition marked, it must be noticed here, a change in the significance of the endeavours because the strengthening of the Art Exhibition of the Education Department as a government-managed enterprise under the wartime system was the aim which served to alleviate the opposition between the "government" and the "opposition" artists, both groups realizing the need for minimizing internal friction in order to facilitate the accomplishment of the objective of the war.

In connection with the second reformed Art Exhibition of the Education Department, mention must also be made of the fact that the exhibits were characterized by the limitation of size which was effected in line with the policy for economization of the consumption of commodities. This limitation affected to a large extent the "government" artists, particularly the younger, ambitious artists, who used to advocate the production of largesize exhibits. The noisy exhibits such as had often been seen previously thus disappeared in the 1938 exhibition but a dull monotony was felt because there was no sufficient variety possible within the limited size of exhibits.

To sum up, the artists circles were more active during 1938 than ever before. It is true that the number of exhibits at the various public exhibitions showed a decrease by from 10 to 20 per cent since the outbreak of the China Incident but the decrease is to be attributed to the fact that many artists who used to send out exhibits were summoned to the colours. Although the number of exhibits decreased, the number of visitors to the exhibition halls increased by from 20 to 50 per cent and the number of exhibits sold out during 1938 was also larger than that for the preceding years.

The increase in the number of persons visiting exhibitions in spite of the decrease in the number of exhibits indicates that the popular interest in fine arts has increased and that the mission of artists has increased in importance in its relation to the social life of the people under the wartime system. The success attending upon exhibitions was not limited to large-scale exhibitions alone but also featured small-scale private exhibitions.

The improvement in quality of private exhibitions has become quite remarkable of late as a result of the increased popular interest in fine arts and the increased consciousness of the artists concerned of the value of such exhibitions as an important means of displaying their works before the public. Among the principal private exhibitions which were held during 1938 were the 1st exhibition of the Shugenkai formed by Saburo Miyamoto, Konosuké Tamura and Shin Kurihara, exhibitions of the works of Ryuzaburo Umehara, Zenzaburo Kodama, Takeji Fujishima, held seperately, the third exhibition of the works of Kenzo Okada, the 6th exhibition of the works of Kinosuke Ebihara, the exhibition of the Japanese-style pictures by Ryushi Kawabata and the 4th exhibition of pictures in Indian ink by Koichiro Kondo.

Next, we shall examine a few facts concerning classical fine art.

The month of November, 1938, witnessed the completion of the interior furnishings of the new building of the Imperial Museum in Ueno Park. The construction works on the building had been completed toward the end of 1937 after six years of strenuous efforts. Upon completion of the interior fittings, the new museum building was opened with a grand exhibition specially arranged to mark the occasion.

The Imperial Museum has for its aim the exhibition of classical art productions. It is divided into eight departments including the archaeological department, textile department, lacquer department, ceramics department, metal works department, sculpture department, book department and picture department. Representative objects of Oriental arts from ancient times to the Edo period are contained therein.

The new museum building is a ferro-concrete structure, 360 shaku wide by 240 shaku long and 100 shaku high. It is built in the modern Oriental style of architecture and in conformity with

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The above mentioned events are all illustrative of the cultural efforts and activities which the Japanese people have been displaying under the wartime system.

During 1939 With the beginning of 1939, the various wartime conditions influencing fine art circles, as witnessed in the previous year, became more conspicuous. With the progress of the China Incident, it became evident that the fine art circles developed a specific tendency.

The decisive victory of the Japanese forces in China and the far-reaching military operations which gradually expanded during the past one year or more threw a new light upon the significance of the China Incident. The new military and political conditions inevitably directed the course of national thought and turned all sorts of cultural activities toward a constructive ideology. In other words, the defensive attitude of the Japanese Government against the hostile activities of the Chinese Kuomintang Government, which marked the beginning of the China Incident, was changed to a positive and constructive attitude of establishing a new order in East Asia as a result of the developments which had occurred during the period of nearly two years followng the outbreak of the incident.

The national policy for the establishment of a new order in East Asia thus

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Music

The First Period

Primitive Music The development of Japanese music may be divided into four periods. The first period originates in prehistoric times and ends about the reign of the Empress Suiko (592–629 A.D.). This is the music of the ancient Japanese (Yamato), and is here named, for convenience, primitive music. To regard the music of this stage as primitive may seem inappropriate, because towards the close of the 6th century Yamato civilization had advanced quite beyond primitive culture. The word primitive is applied here because, although music should show some development of artistic form, no such form was known in the music of this period.

The Second Period

Introduction of Foreign Music The second period started about the end of the Suiko régime in the 7th century, and continued till about the end of the Heian period, at the close of the 12th century. The characteristic feature of this period lies in the building up of Japanese music upon a foundation of Chinese, Korean and Indian music, which possessed a markedly advanced form and was then being freely introduced into Japan.

(1) The First Half. In the first half of this period imported music was imitated. Music was first introduced from Korea (Chosen), then from India and lastly from China. Of the three, only that from China continued to come freely thereafter. The Chosen music then imported was widely different from the music introduced from China and India, especially in the degree of its evolution. But even such undeveloped music as that of Chosen (then called Sankan), was far more advanced than Japanese music. It is, therefore, but natural that there was a great gulf of difference between the standard of the Japanese music of the early period and that later imported from China and India. Moreover the early models were monopolized by the nobles; the masses could not share the privilege of enjoying the advanced art but had to be content with the same old primitive music. For two to three hundred years this state of things continued, until the reigns of Emperors Saga and Nimmyo when genuine Japanese Court music, called gagaku, came into vogue. But even this gagaku was of foreign origin too.

(2) The Second Half. During the second half of the second period, foreign and domestic music became harmonized, producing a new Japanese style in vocal music. Founded on the imported music staff, the vocal music of this period cannot be compared with the purely national music that prevailed in a later period. The varieties then developed were kagura, saibara, roéi and imayo, all of which can be included in the following two groups:

(a) One group was modelled after foreign music but set to the key of Japanese music of the primitive age; and hence the reconstruction thus effected in ancient Japanese music was only in form. The most conspicuous examples are the kagura, Azuma-asobi, Kumé-uta and Yamato-uta. No doubt the kagura existed in the prehistoric age, as may be inferred from Japanese history, but not until past the middle of the Héian period did it appear in the regular form of music. The kagura is a sacred dance with music, practised on the stage of a shrine at village festivals. The kagura now observed, however, is fundamentally different from that staged in those days; it saw marked development in the Héian period. In the early days of the sacred Kagura dance it adopted so primitive a form of vulgar indecency that it could not be performed today.

During this latter part of the second period all the other three branches of music, namely, Azuma-asobi, Kumé-uta and Yamato-uta, were also practised at shrine festivals. Originally they had no relation with shrines, the first two having developed from folk-songs, and the third from a war-song sung during the triumphant expedition into Yamato under the Emperor Jimmu. The adoption of those folk-songs in the rites of sacred festivals was made possible by the advanced music of foreign origin employed at Buddhist temples; better music also became indispensable at Shinto shrines in order to rival the advanced Buddhist music. Unlike Buddhist temples, the Shinto shrines hesitated to make use of the imported variety; and so they had no alternative in those days but to improve their music on the ancient models

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in order to meet the requirements of the times, establishing the guiding principle for monumental art and newly creating a fresco department and a monumental sculpture department. Particularly noteworthy is the fact that the said university led in the creation of a guiding organ for the researches in the production of mural paintings in this country.

Lastly, mention must be made of the conditions of the architectural and photographic circles in the country. With reference to the architectural circles, it must be noted that ever since the outbreak of the China Incident, the consumption of building materials has been subjected to a wartime control but, nevertheless, considerably large structures have been constructed one after another. Especially, great activity has been evident in connection with building plans in connection with the erection of various memorial structures for the China Incident, construction of modern cities in the areas under Japanese occupation, and memorial enterprises for the celebration of the 2600th anniversary of the founding of the Japanese Empire in 1940.

During recent years, there has been in evidence an increasingly intensified opposition between two groups in the architectural circles, one group advocating rationalistic modern style from the progressive point of view and the other favouring a return to the traditional style from the standpoint of classicism. The tendency of the former group is reflected in the Dai-ichi Sogo Building, the Communications Hospital and the Central Radio City while the new building of the Imperial Museum and the Manchoukuo Club represent the tendency of the latter group, all these buildings having been completed during or after 1938.

A review of the conditions of the photographic circles shows that prior to the outbreak of the China Incident, the efforts to secure a place for photography as a modern art had been limited to a few amateurs. The occurrence of the China Incident, however, incidentally brought about a situation favourable for the intensification and spread of such efforts and a considerable progress in technique has been achieved in this field.

Of late, wall pictures and informative pictures have begun to acquire a position of considerable importance, representing a new field for photographers' activities. In respect to the photographic mural pictures, mention must be made of the manufacture of such pictures for the decoration of the Japanese pavilion in the World Exposition held in New York and in the San Francisco Exposition during the spring of 1939.

As regards informative pictures, it must be noticed that as a result of the importance attached to their utilization by journals and other publications, informative pictures have been gradually freeing themselves from subordination to news stories and descriptive articles and acquiring the status of an independent art.

Art Museums

A list of the more important art museums follows :

1. Tokyo Imperial Household Museum: Uéno Park, Tokyo; open daily from 9 a.m. to 4 p.m.
   Departments: Art and History.
   Officials. President: Éisaburo Sugi; Manager: Nagamitsu Asano
2. Imperial Household Museum at Nara: In Nara Park; open daily from 9 a.m. to 4 p.m.: closed from Dec. 25 to Jan. 5.
   Departments: History and Art. Director: Ki Yamaguchi
3. Kyoto Onshi Museum: In Shichijo, Kyoto; open daily from 9 a.m. to 4 p.m.; closed from Dec. 25 to Jan. 5. Departments: Art and History.
4. Chokokan: In Uji Yamada, Mié.
5. Réihokan: At Koya-san, Wakayama.
6. Treasure house, Kanshin-ji: In Kanshin-ji-mura, Minami-Kawachi-gun, Osaka.
7. Treasure house, Koryuji: At Uzumasa-mura, Kadono-gun, Kyoto.
8. Réihokan, Ninnaji: At Omoro, Kadono-gun, Kyoto.
9. Museum of the Faculty of Letters, Imperial University, in Kyoto.
10. Kankokan: in Hiroshima.
11. Treasure house of the Itsukushima shrine: At Miyajima, Hiroshima.
12. Kokuhokan: at Kamakura.
13. Sanda Museum: at Sanda, Arima-gun, Hyogo.
14. Governmental Museum: at Seoul, Chosen.
15. Kéishu Museum: in Kéishu-gun, Kéisho-hokudo, Chosen.
16. Prince Li's Museum: in Seoul, Chosen.
17. Kanto-cho Museum: at Port Arthur, Kwantung Leased Territory.

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The Muromachi Era The Muromachi Era, sandwiched in between the Kamakura and Tokugawa eras, corresponds to a middle third period in the history of music. Between the Kamakura and Muromachi Shogunates a striking difference is noticeable in that, while a military administration was possible under the former, it was denied to the latter. Beginning with the Muromachi Era the Ashikagas removed the Shogunate from Kamakura to Kyoto. Since Kyoto was the seat of the Imperial household, the officials who were military men could not do without etiquette in their association with Court officials of the Imperial household. They had to be familiar with the art of flower arrangement, the tea ceremony and the yokyoku music of the lyrical drama, or Noh dance. Thus from the necessity of studying these arts of social etiquette, military men had to approve and promote them. The introducers of the sarugaku dance were priests who returned from China, and used this sort of drama for moral or religious purposes, like the miracle and morality plays in England. The Noh dance was probably derived from primitive forms of sarugaku and other musical dances.

Early Yédo Era The last period begins and ends in the early Yédo Era. All through this period popular music prevailed; the samisen, a popular musical instrument introduced into the country at the end of the Ashikaga Era, rose to great influence. Naturally, therefore, such popular music as the joruri, nagauta, kouta and hauta developed rapidly; they were especially popular among merchants and artisans.

The samisen was not only a representative musical instrument throughout the Yédo Era but also occupies a most important position in Japanese music today. This three-stringed Japanese guitar has now come to enjoy worldwide recognition as an advanced musical instrument. Nearly 400 years ago, toward the end of the Muromachi period, it arrived in the country through the Ryukyu islands and is supposed to be of Spanish or Chinese origin. Compared with the sho and biwa, imported in the 5th or 6th century, the samisen is a thing of but yesterday. Yet it is found everywhere in Japan as an accompaniment to vocal music.

The Fourth Period

Internationalization of Japanese Music The fourth period covers the Meiji and Taisho eras (1868–1926) when domestic music rose to join the world current of music. The people awoke from their long slumber throughout the isolated Yédo Era, and exchanged anti-foreignism for free intercourse with the outside world. With this epochal open-door movement came the Meiji Restoration which eliminated the Shogunate and restored the old Imperial régime. In obedience to the august wish of the Emperor Meiji all welcomed the introduction of the supposedly more advanced European civilization. Music was no exception. European music then imported was enthusiastically imitated all through the period. Production of imitative art was not the only task assigned to that age, for side by side with the movement the reconstruction of native music occupied the serious attention of musicians. A similar tendency is noticeable in and about the Nara period in the 8th century, when advanced ideas, imported from the continent, afforded models on which the ancient music of the country was reconstructed. Yet, a great difference is evident between that and the movement now under review; because, whereas in that day home music still lingered in the primitive stage and imitation of alien models was effected only with extreme difficulty, improvement in the native music of the Meiji Era was so easy a matter that reconstruction could be carried out by mere importation of new staves. This fourth period, which corresponds to the Meiji and Taisho eras, can be studied from three points of view, with reference to the development of the art.

(1) Innovations in Traditional Music and Revival of Ancient Music. In the Yédo period the development of music in form was insignificant, because importance was placed on expression of sentiment. People who realized this defect in the traditional Japanese music, agreed on the necessity of introducing radical innovations in this direction. This new movement was responsible for the stimulus given by the extensive introduction of European music, which in form was far superior to Japanese. Up to about the 16th year of Meiji considerable effort was expended towards eliminating this defect. As a practical attempt to attain this object, a movement was created for reconstruction work on the form of sho music which had deplorably degenerated in the Yédo Era, due to the influence of samisen music then at the height of popularity. The rise of the Yamada school in Tokyo is an example. Shakuhachi music likewise could not escape

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being influenced by the reconstruction current of the times.

For revival of ancient Japanese music the Gagaku Bureau was created in the Imperial Household Office in the 3rd year of Meiji. A large number of authorities on gagaku became officials of the bureau and strove to effect reorganization of the ancient music of Japanese parentage. These Court musicians set about composing new music out of gagaku, for use in elementary schools. The national anthem, Kimigayo, is a product of that bureau. Precisely speaking, Kimigayo ought to be played in gagaku, but, instead, it has come to be rendered with European instruments; for in those days they were the only musical instruments in educational institutions. Kibigaku, which is still popular in the Kansai district, is a form of gagaku somewhat vulgarized, at the time, by Hoshu Kishimoto, an Okayama musician.

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(a) Propagation by Gramophone. This invention enabled inhabitants of even the remotest corners of the island Empire to appreciate the great foreign music masters.

(b) European War and Visiting Musicians. At the outbreak of the European War many well-known musicians of the West went to America and Oriental countries in order to avoid being involved in the turmoil, and to find appreciation of their music in more peaceful environment. These world-famous musicians gave a number of concerts in Japan, and thus afforded us an opportunity to hear the best music the world can produce. So fortunate an event contributed much toward cultivating a taste for music in this country. Not long afterwards came radio, also from the West; and, like the gramophone, radio also greatly helped the public towards a more intelligent appreciation of European music. Radio, however, should be regarded as more properly belonging to the present era of Showa.

(3) Internationalization of Japanese Music. The diffusion of the knowledge of European music demonstrated to us its international qualities, systematized form and aesthetic structure. The vast difference between this international music of the West and Japanese music which is but national, served to spur on the reconstruction movement among the Japanese interested in music. The movement originally started in the middle of the Meiji Era, but at that time it had no fixed goal at which to aim. Now, however, renewed ambition moved in three definite directions:

(a) The attempt to harmonize European instruments with the rhythm of Japanese music was laudable, but this seems to have been confined only too largely to Japanese students of European music.

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of the kind in the world. The numbers played by the band included a piece of "nagauta" music entitled "kanjincho," a piece of "koto" music entitled "Rokudan" and a piece of "tokiwazu" music entitled "Kodakara" which won greater applause than the various numbers of Western music played by the band. The military band, too, showed great progress under the direction of Kenshi Nagai. There is no doubt the meritorious services thus rendered by Nagai will be remembered by posterity. The farewell party given in honour of Nagai upon his retirement from the service as the director of the military band was an unusually splendid one. Thereafter he continued his services for the growth of the military and naval bands, composing marches and directing outdoor concerts.

The organizations of the military and naval bands at the present time may be summarized as follows:

The military band is maintained at the Toyama Army School and is therefore called the band of the Toyama Army School. At present, it has a staff of about 100 musicians and a standard division of the band is composed of 50 musicians which may be divided into two sub-divisions of 25 musicians each, this being the minimum unit. In addition, about 20 new recruits are admitted every year for training as student musicians.

The naval band is composed of a total of some 430 musicians who are separately attached to the naval stations and squadrons. Conforming to the number of naval stations and squadrons, the naval band is divided into 8 units with about 50 musicians in each unit. In addition, about 60 new recruits are taken in every year to be trained for a period of one year and five months before being attached to the various units.

Tokyo Music School In the 12th Year of Meiji (1879), the Ministry of Education created a Musical Enquiry Commission with a view to (1) producing new compositions by blending the Eastern and the Western music; (2) promoting the national music by creating facilities for its instruction; and (3) creating a music course in the various schools. Shuji Izawa, the then principal of the Tokyo Higher Normal School, was appointed chairman of the enquiry commission.

In the following year, Luther Whiteing Mason who then held an important position in the musical educational circles in the United States was employed as musical instructor. Mason, a rare musical educator, devoted himself earnestly to solidify the foundation of the musical education in this country by his systematic method of instruction, and thus made himself a great benefactor to the cause of musical advancement in the country. In the same year, 20 students were assembled and systematic training in music was instituted. Simultaneously, a large number of pianos, organs and stringed musical instruments were provided.

The endeavours of the Musical Enquiry Commission bore their first fruit in the 15th Year of Meiji (1882) in the form of a concert participated in by the students who had been trained under Mason. Mason returned to his homeland in July of the same year and one year later, Franz Eckert was employed as the director of the military band who gave lessons chiefly in orchestration, scoring and harmony.

The compilation of song books for use in primary schools was one of the primary tasks of the Musical Enquiry Commission. The work of the body progressed steadily with the result that three collections of songs were compiled and authorized as text-books for primary schools.

In October of the 20th Year of Meiji (1887), the Musical Research Institute (Ongaku Torishirabe-dokoro) was renamed the Tokyo School of Music. The first governmental school of music was thus brought into being and Shuji Izawa became its principal. For four consecutive years, Izawa devoted himself to the perfection of the equipment and improvement of the facilities of the school. He also wrote and published a book entitled Musical Education and the meritorious services which he rendered in bringing up the music school will remain on record permanently.

In November of the 21st Year of Meiji (1888), Rudolf Dietrich from Austria was appointed instructor at the Tokyo School of Music. Dietrich was a brilliant man, having graduated with honours from the conservatoire in Vienna. He was skilled in playing the piano, organ and violin. Furthermore, he was an affable man of character and as such was best fitted to assist in the bringing up of the music school which had been in existence only for a short time.

Among the graduates of the Musical Research Institute (precursor of the Tokyo School of Music) there were many who became distinguished musicians. In this connection, special men-

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of the fact that this national anthem was later revised to such an extent as to leave little resemblance to the original. The student musicians learned how to play the newly-composed "Kimi-ga-yo" and a number of English airs. The "Ishin" march (march of the Meiji Restoration), which is frequently played even now, is one of the English-style compositions of those days.

In the 4th Year of Meiji (1871), the military bands of the three clans of Satsuma, Choshu and Tosa were merged into an Imperial military band upon the creation of the Ministry of Military Affairs. The Imperial military band was also placed under the direction of Fenton.

In the meanwhile, the Christian devotional music which had been introduced by the missionaries had gradually been gaining ground in the country. During the early part of the Meiji period, the various Christian sections undertook to prepare Japanese versions of hymns and various publications of the kind appeared. This also made a great contribution toward the development of Western music in this country.

Meiji-Taisho-Period

Military Band The 4th year of Meiji (1871) witnessed the amalgamation of the military bands of the Satsuma, Choshu and Tosa clans into an Imperial military band. Later, the Imperial military band was divided into two sections, namely, the military band and the naval band. The former changed from the English to the French style and a French bandmaster, D'achron, was appointed its director. D'achron continued in this post for nearly 10 years.

In the spring of the 12th Year of Meiji (1879), the naval band invited Franz Eckert to assume the post vacated by D'achron. Besides being the band director, Eckert held the post of instructor at the Musical Research Institute (Ongaku Torishirabe-dokoro) which had been recently established where he taught musical theories. Through his enthusiastic instruction, Eckert contributed so much to the musical advancement in this country that he is now regarded as the father of German music in this country. Eckert is particularly remembered by posterity because of his successful harmonization of the "Kimi-ga-yo" which is now the authorized national anthem. Eckert is also remembered for his famous compositions of the "Kimi-ga-yo march" and the "Kanashimi-no-kiwami" (funeral march) specially composed for the funeral services of the Empress Dowager Yeisho (1897). The "Kanashimi-no-kiwami" was also played at the time of the funeral services for the Emperor Meiji and the Emperor Taisho and is still preserved as a most treasured piece of music in the Imperial Household.

Under Eckert's able direction the naval band achieved rapid strides and gave concerts at various places. Indeed, it may not be too much to say that Eckert is the greatest among the naval band directors the country has ever known. When Eckert was relieved of the duty, Gustav Albe, a German musician, was employed as the music instructor.

The military band had the privilege of being trained under the direction of D'achron until the 16th Year of Meiji (1883) when he resigned. Charles Leleu who was a distinguished director of military band in France in those days was appointed his successor. Maintaining that the success of the military music lies in personality, Leleu carried out a grand-scale renovation of the personnel of the military band and effected various other alterations, thus causing the military band to take on a new aspect. After remaining in office for four years, however, Leleu had to return to France under instructions from his home government. Leaving the future affairs of the military band to Yoshitoyo Shimoto, Leleu went home, with many in this country feeling deep regret at his departure. Later, Eckert, the director of the naval band, was appointed to assume the concurrent post of director of the military band which thus added German technique of military music to its French technique and further consolidated its foundation.

During the Sino-Japanese and Russo-Japanese wars, both the military and naval bands experienced a period of remarkable activity, both on the battle-fronts and behind the guns. During the two wars, numerous military songs were composed, not a few of which are popular even to this day.

The Taisho period may be considered as the most important period for the development of military music in this country. Special mention in this connection must be made of the fact that the naval band, also including strings, visited England to attend the Royal Coronation and its excellent performance under the direction of Tokichi Setoguchi on the occasion gained great favour among the public there and was even praised as one of the first-rate bands

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of the kind in the world. The numbers played by the band included a piece of "nagauta" music entitled "kanjincho," a piece of "koto" music entitled "Rokudan" and a piece of "tokiwazu" music entitled "Kodakara" which won greater applause than the various numbers of Western music played by the band. The military band, too, showed great progress under the direction of Kenshi Nagai. There is no doubt the meritorious services thus rendered by Nagai will be remembered by posterity. The farewell party given in honour of Nagai upon his retirement from the service as the director of the military band was an unusually splendid one. Thereafter he continued his services for the growth of the military and naval bands, composing marches and directing outdoor concerts.

The organizations of the military and naval bands at the present time may be summarized as follows:

The military band is maintained at the Toyama Army School and is therefore called the band of the Toyama Army School. At present, it has a staff of about 100 musicians and a standard division of the band is composed of 50 musicians which may be divided into two sub-divisions of 25 musicians each, this being the minimum unit. In addition, about 20 new recruits are admitted every year for training as student musicians.

The naval band is composed of a total of some 430 musicians who are separately attached to the naval stations and squadrons. Conforming to the number of naval stations and squadrons, the naval band is divided into 8 units with about 50 musicians in each unit. In addition, about 60 new recruits are taken in every year to be trained for a period of one year and five months before being attached to the various units.

Tokyo Music School In the 12th Year of Meiji (1879), the Ministry of Education created a Musical Enquiry Commission with a view to (1) producing new compositions by blending the Eastern and the Western music; (2) promoting the national music by creating facilities for its instruction; and (3) creating a music course in the various schools. Shuji Izawa, the then principal of the Tokyo Higher Normal School, was appointed chairman of the enquiry commission.

In the following year, Luther Whiteing Mason who then held an important position in the musical educational circles in the United States was employed as musical instructor. Mason, a rare musical educator, devoted himself earnestly to solidify the foundation of the musical education in this country by his systematic method of instruction, and thus made himself a great benefactor to the cause of musical advancement in the country. In the same year, 20 students were assembled and systematic training in music was instituted. Simultaneously, a large number of pianos, organs and stringed musical instruments were provided.

The endeavours of the Musical Enquiry Commission bore their first fruit in the 15th Year of Meiji (1882) in the form of a concert participated in by the students who had been trained under Mason. Mason returned to his homeland in July of the same year and one year later, Franz Eckert was employed as the director of the military band who gave lessons chiefly in orchestration, scoring and harmony.

The compilation of song books for use in primary schools was one of the primary tasks of the Musical Enquiry Commission. The work of the body progressed steadily with the result that three collections of songs were compiled and authorized as text-books for primary schools.

In October of the 20th Year of Meiji (1887), the Musical Research Institute (Ongaku Torishirabe-dokoro) was renamed the Tokyo School of Music. The first governmental school of music was thus brought into being and Shuji Izawa became its principal. For four consecutive years, Izawa devoted himself to the perfection of the equipment and improvement of the facilities of the school. He also wrote and published a book entitled Musical Education and the meritorious services which he rendered in bringing up the music school will remain on record permanently.

In November of the 21st Year of Meiji (1888), Rudolf Dietrich from Austria was appointed instructor at the Tokyo School of Music. Dietrich was a brilliant man, having graduated with honours from the conservatoire in Vienna. He was skilled in playing the piano, organ and violin. Furthermore, he was an affable man of character and as such was best fitted to assist in the bringing up of the music school which had been in existence only for a short time.

Among the graduates of the Musical Research Institute (precursor of the Tokyo School of Music) there were many who became distinguished musicians. In this connection, special men-

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the early part of the Taisho era, Rossi, instructor in the Western musical department of the Imperial Theatre promoted Rossi's Opera Comic which staged a number of comic operas by Offenbach, with Nobuko Hara, Kintaro Shimizu and Rikizo Taya and aroused much public interest.

In December of the 9th Year of Taisho (1920), Kosaku Yamada presented at the Imperial Theatre Debussy's "L'enfant Prodigue" and Wagner's "Tannhauser," which was a unique event of its kind in the history of opera activities in this country because it constituted the first artistic and able presentation of an elaborate and difficult theme.

Plectrum Music The introduction of plectrum instruments into this country dates from the sixteenth century but the instruments of those days differ largely from the instruments of today. The mandoline music as it is played today was introduced into this country by Kempachi Hiruma who learned to play the instrument during his stay in Berlin in connection with commercial business. When he returned home, he caused the first mandoline orchestra of the country to be formed in the Ueno Art School. Mandoline music came to be liked especially by university students and mandoline clubs were formed in the Keio and Doshisha Universities. Morishige Takei organized the Orchestra Sinfonica Takei in the 4th Year of Taisho (1915) and ever since has endeavoured to facilitate the spread and development of the artistic plectrum music.

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Professor Paul Weingarten of Vienna who had been a valuable asset to the pianoforte section of the instrumental

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In addition, there are various orchestras in the country including the orchestra of the musical section of the Imperial Household Department, the Central Symphony Orchestra (under the direction of Yazaemon Hayakawa), the Concert Populair (under the direction of Tadashi Hattori), etc. The various music schools also have their orchestras composed of instructors and students. Among the local orchestras, mention must be made of the Takarazuka Symphonic Musical Association and the Osaka Broadcasting Association's Symphony Orchestra which is composed chiefly of the musicians of the Takarazuka body and is under the direction of Emmanuel Metter. Unlike the New Symphony Orchestra, however, these organizations have been giving no regular concerts.

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Since 1936, the organizers of the Musical Week have been sponsoring an annual brass-band concour. In 1938, a wind-instrument concour was held simultaneously, and all this gave a stimulus to the spread of the brass-band music.

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Jupiter Quartet (established in 1920) and the Suzuki Quartet (created in 1925) are to be mentioned. The two bodies have been giving a number of concerts every year.

Chorus Choruses are organized all over the country. Not only the various music schools but the various universities, colleges and secondary schools have their choruses. Choruses are also maintained by other civilian organizations and in Tokyo alone, the number of choruses reaches the neighbourhood of 50, all of which are under the direction of well-known musicians and are active in giving concerts and broadcasting recitations.

The most notable among the numerous choruses are the Orion Choir, the Tokyo Lieder Tafel Phelaine, the Vocal Four Chorus, the Mixed Chorus of the Tamagawa Gakuen, the Euphonic Chorus and the Brahms Choir. The Dai-Nippon Federated Chorus, which includes among its members some of the leading singers of the above choruses, as well as the Dai-Nippon Chorus which was formed in 1937, have been attracting considerable public attention on account of their large-scale organizations and the proficiency of their members.

Instrumental Music The piano is the most popular musical instrument in this country. In former times, every Japanese family with moderate means possessed a koto or samisen for the musical education of its daughters as the ability to play one of these instruments was considered an important feminine accomplishment. With the progress of Western music in the country, however, the piano came to be adopted in place of the koto and the samisen. Indeed, the number of Japanese maidens receiving instruction in piano has increased so rapidly that it may be regarded as an unmistakable sign of the advance of the Japanese nation in the field of musical culture in recent years.

Consequently, the number of accomplished pianists in the country is considerable. In this connection, special mention must be made of Chieko Hara who won the first place in the Conservatoire de Paris in 1932 at the age of 17 and Miwako Kai who achieved excellent results at the international musical concour in Vienna. Other notable pianists include Professor Kisei Iguchi of the Tokyo School of Music, Sonoko Inoue and Noboru Toyozo who returned from Vienna in 1938. Among the resident foreign pianists in the country are the world-famous Leonid Kreutzer, Leo Sirota, Maxim Schapiro and Paul Scholtz, who have been rendering inestimable service to the musical circles here by giving lessons and recitals.

Next to the piano, the violin is the most popular musical instrument in Japan and has also made its way into a great number of Japanese homes whose children are receiving musical training. The oldest violinist in the country is Sachiko Ando who studied under the noted Joseph Joachim and who has already retired from the first line of service. Kenshu Wanibuchi and Takeo Inoue are still active. Among the foreign violinists, Professor Alexander Moguirewsky of the Tokyo School of Music and Willy Frey have been contributing much in the field of violin music in the country. As yet no Japanese musicians have distinguished themselves as players of the violoncello. Mention might be made in this connection that Prof. Duckson, who is an instructor at the Tokyo School of Music, is contributing his share in training the young students by his ardent instruction at the school and by giving public concerts of the Piano Trio together with Leo Sirota and Moguirewsky.

Vocal Music It is in the field of vocal music that the Japanese musicians first appeared on the first-rate stage of the world. As early as in the beginning of the Taisho period, Tamaki Miura distinguished herself as a vocalist and has since enjoyed great public favour as singer in the role of "Madam Butterfly" by appearing before the footlights of first-rate theatres in the capitals of the world. Returning home a few years ago, she again created an opera troupe bearing her name and is continuing her efforts for the musical education of the rising generation and for the promotion of the opera movement in the country. Next, mention must be made of Toshiko Sekiya and Yoshie Fujiwara, both of whom also appeared in the first-rate theatres in Europe and America as opera singers of world-fame.

Principal among other vocalists who are most active at present are Ayako Ohta (soprano), Miho Nagato (soprano), Taneko Seki (soprano), Kaneko Yanagi (contralto), Tamotsu Kinoshita (tenor), Keikichi Yadabe (bass), Takeo Ito (baritone), and others. Ria von Hessert who assumed the post of instructor at the Tokyo School of Music in 1938 has since been giving instruction in vocal music together with Wucherpfennig and Netke Loewe, also of the To-

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The programme included Bach's Concerto Italiano, Schumann's Carnival and Chopin's Ballades, Etudes, Scherzo, Mazurkas and Grand Polonaise. Particularly, the impression of listening to a real mazurka was given by her light touch in performing Chopin's Mazurkas.

The seventh musical concour, sponsored by the Tokyo Nichi Nichi Shimbun, was held at the Hibiya Public Hall on November 18th and 19th. The successful competitors at the preliminaries which had been held previously included eight instrumentalists, eight vocalists and six composers. The first day of the concour was devoted to the contest of the instrumentalists with the result that the first place in the section of stringed music was won by Hisako Tsuji while the second place was left uncaptured and the third place was taken by Shizu Shigematsu. The first place in the piano section was won by Sonoko Tanaka, the second place by Hinako Tsuzuki and the third place by Fumiko Orii and Masami Watanabe. The contests on the second day resulted in the first place in the composition section being captured by Toshiharu Ichikawa, the second place by Kiyohiko Kishima and the third place by Kisei Kobayashi. The winner of the second place in the vocal section was Hisako Tezuka and that of the third place was Shingo Endo while the first place was left uncaptured. The Education Minister's prize was awarded to Hisako Tsuji as the most excellent performer among the successful competitors at the finals. The fact that Miss Tsuji is bearly thirteen adds to the lustre of her performance and testifies to an eminently promising future that awaits her.

The musical concours have been recording a definite improvement every year. A notable fact about the seventh concour was that its results exceeded the restrained expectations entertained in view of the wartime conditions.

Other important events of the month follow: A piano recital by Professor Helmut Dignas of the Musashino School of Music on the 10th of November at the Nihon Seinen Kan, presenting the works of Mozart, Beethoven, Brahms and Liszt; a concert by Professor Willy Fley and Professor Kisei Iguchi, both of the Tokyo School of Music, the programme including Szymanowski's "Sonate en re min. op. 9" and Ernst's "Violin Concerto" both of which were played for the first time in this country, and Beethoven's "Kreutzer Sonate"; and Mr. Iguchi's recital of a selection of Chopin's works.

The Pro Arte Trio which had been experiencing an active period gave a concert at the Meiji Seimei Hall on the 29th November, enlivening the rather depressed chamber music circles in the country. The programme included Schubert's Trio op. 100, Lalo's Trio op. 26 and Mendelsshon's Trio op. 49. The 12th competition chorus festival, sponsored by the National Musical Association, took place on the 23rd, at which the first place was taken by the Mixed Chorus of the Tamagawa Gakuen, the second place by the Tokyo Lieder Tafel Phelein, the third place by the Euphonic Chorus and the fourth place by the Brahms Choir. The competition festival has gradually expanded in scale, the competitors at the 12th festival including 12 male choruses, 4 female choruses and 7 mixed choruses.

The New Symphony Orchestra gave two regular concerts in the same month. The 196th regular concert included Atterberg's Ballade und Passacaglia, Bach's Klavier-konzert, Bizet's Suite de Concert and Verdi's ouverture "I Vespri Siciliani". Haruko Fujita acted as the soloist at the concert. The programme of the 197th concert included Beethoven's 7th Symphony, Chopin's Piano-Concerto, Sibelius's Finlandia op. 26 No. 7 and Gotovac's Kolo Symphonique, the soloist being Chieko Hara who had just returned from a tour in Europe. Among the other musical events of the month were the first public performance by the students of Tamaki Miura's Opera Music School who staged Rossini's "Le Barbier de Serille", a concert by the Musashino Music School, a piano recital by Noboru Toyomasu, and a recital by Professor Leo Sirota who as usual displayed himself as an artist of the first order.

The month of December also recorded a large number of concerts which attracted the attention of the musical public. Particular mention must be made of the piano recital by Professor Leonid Kreutzer of the Tokyo School of Music, the first concert announcing the works of Professor Heki Hosokawa of the composition department of the Tokyo School of Music, the performance of Beethoven's 9th Symphony by the New Symphony Orchestra conducted by Rosenstock.

Professor Hosokawa made his debut at the Hibiya Public Hall on the evening of December 4th to present his symphonic works. He is a graduate of the Tokyo School of Music, and studied for five years at the Vienna conservatoire where he won the honour diploma for compositions in 1934. One of his

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Kisei Iguchi was at the piano and his performance was praised as showing the highest technique displayed by a Japanese artist in regard to that special piece. Further, the New Symphony Orchestra gave a special public concert on Verdi's Requiem, the soloists including Nagato (soprano), Yanagi (contralto), Kinoshita (tenor) and Yadabe (bass).

Two regular public concerts of the New Symphony Orchestra were held in May, at which Dvorak's Violin Concerto C moll (violin by Willy Frey), Smetana's "Mordaw" and Sibelius's Symphony No. 4 A moll as well as Schumann's Piano Concerto A moll (piano by Sonoko Inoue) were rendered. On the 10th of the same month, the Vocal Four Chorus gave its 6th opera performance on Mascagni's Cavalleria Rusticana and Leoncavallo's Pagliacci. On the 17th of the month, the Pro-arte Trio presented trios by Brahms and Tchaikowsky at its third public concert. Three days later, Leonid Kreutzer of the Tokyo School of Music gave a piano recital at the Hibiya Public Hall, the programme including Beethoven's Waldstein Sonata, Schumann's Carnival, Ravel's Sonatine and Chopin's "12 Etudes." Other events in the month included a vocal recital by Netke Loewe, a vocal recital by Kayoko Izaki and a concert on Palestrina's Missa Brevis and Beethoven's Christus am Oelberge, with Tsugawa acting as the conductor. This concert together with the performance of Verdi's Requiem in April formed the two best concerts of religious music in recent times. An opera performance for the revival of Nobuko Hara as prima donna was held on the 21st of the month at the Hibiya Public Hall, the numbers given including Puccini's "Mano Lescant" and Giardano's "Fedora." The composers' society named La Societe des Compositeurs Contemporains du Japan also held its sixth annoucement concert covering the works of seven young composers.

The month of June witnessed two opera performances. One of them was given by Tamaki Miura the programme consisting of "La Boheme," "Tosca" and "Madam Butterfly" and others. The other was the first public performance by the Opera-Pavot and was held at the Yurakuza theatre, gaining considerable popularity for the rendering of Suppe's Baccacio. On the 15th and the 16th of June the New Symphony Orchestra gave its 193rd regular public concert under the direction of Rosenstock, rendering Beethoven's Symphony No 9. The soloists included Taneko Seki (soprano), Shizuko Saito (contralto), Tamotsu Kinoshita (tenor) and Keikichi Yadabe (bass), and the chorus was provided by the Tokyo Music High School and the Tamagawa Gakuen. The Tokyo School of Music gave a concert at which its two new instructors, Hermut Fermer and Ria von Hessert, performed for the first time before the Japanese public. Teruko Tsuji gave a recital of Yamada's "Madam Postmani" and others to the accompaniment of the New Symphony Orchestra conducted by Kosaku Yamada. On the 21st, Miwako Kai gave a recital of Brahms's Sonata F moll and others at the Nihon Seinen Kan.

In July, the New Symphony Orchestra gave a promenade concert at the Hibiya Public Hall under the direction of Rosenstock.

In September the New Symphony Orchestra gave its 194th public concert. The programme included Ravel's "Valses nobles et sentimentales," Godovac's "Kolo symphonique" and de Falla's "El Sombrero de Tres picos." Particularly, the work of Godovac produced a deep impression upon the audience on account of its modern colour.

In October, Professor Tamotsu Kinoshita of the Tokyo School of Music gave his second recital with a rendering of Schumann's "Dichterliebe," "Liederkrers" and "Myrten." The 195th public concert of the New Symphony Orchestra, which was held during the month, attracted special attention from the public because the programme included Saburo Moroi's Symphony No. 2 which is an outstanding example of the great progress achieved by Japanese composers. Further, Rachmaninoff's Piano Concerto No. 3 was rendered with Sonoko Inoue at the piano. On the 26th, Yoshie Fujiwara gave his first public performance after his return from abroad.

The month of November witnessed a succession of many important concerts. With the conclusion of the major operations in the China incident, the musical circles which had been passing through a dull period showed signs of renewed activity. Among the various events, the piano recital of Miss Chieko Hara and the seventh musical concour deserve special mention. Miss Hara had just returned from a tour of various European cities and at the first recital after her return from abroad showed her ability as a first rate pianist in spite of her young age, displaying in her various numbers a freshness and originality all her own.

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Roman Dukson was the soloist at the concert, playing Haydn's cello concerto. Stravinsky's "Jeu de Cortes" was performed at the concert for the first time in this country. At the same concert, the audience was given the impression that the New Symphony Orchestra had improved its technique to a considerable extent under the instruction of Prof. Rosenstok.

February—As the musical season for the spring was nearing its best, noteworthy concerts were increasing in number. As the main event of the month, mention must be made of the 200th memorial public concert given by the New Symphony Orchestra. It told of a history lasting for more than 10 years for the New Symphony Orchestra which has been giving about 12 public concerts every year. Special arrangements were made for the orchestra to play on the occasion the same numbers that it had given at its first regular public concert over 10 years ago, by way of manifesting the improvement in technique which it had accomplished since then. Pro Arte Trio gave its second public concert in the month, performing works by Mozart and Dvorak. Other concerts given during the month included those by the Concert Populaire and the Contemporary Composers' League of Japan.

March—With the mission of promoting the anti-Communist friendship between Japan and Manchoukuo, the Harbin Symphony Orchestra visited Japan and gave four concerts. The orchestra was conducted also by Leonid Kreutzer, besides its regular conductor Sergei Schwaikowsky, and performed with Kreutzer, Miwako Kai, Moguirewsky, Haruko Fujita and Yoshiye Fujiwara acting as soloists. The Yoshiye Fujiwara's opera company gave its 7th public concert, performing Carmen for two evenings, March 26 and 27, with great success. The role of Carmen was performed by Akemi Yuri, rising star in the musical world, while Toshiko Nakamura played the part of Micaela.

Besides, the Pro Arte Trio gave its 3rd concert, performing works by Beethoven, Smetana and Ravel. This concert showed clearly that the trio had been conducting a serious study since its inauguration.

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compositions, the Symphonische Dichtung "Nori no Yube" (Gebet von Weltall) had been broadcast from Vienna and received favorably. The programme for his first announcement concert included such great works as Kleine Suite "Marchen von Japan," Klavier-konzert C dur, Mezzosoprano solo "Zwei Lieder" and Aus Oper "Buddha" Ire Akt, Grosse Liebesarie, and Suite zu der Gedichten des Meiji des Grossen as well as Symphonieshe Dichtung "Nori no Yube" (Gebet von Weltall). The compositions were played by the New Symphony Orchestra under the baton of the composer himself, with Professor Leo Sirota acting as the piano soloist and Professor Ria von Hessert as the mezzosoprano soloist while the chorus was supplied by the members of the Tamagawa Gakuen and the Tokyo Mixed Choruses. It may be said here that Hosokawa and Saburo Moroi are the two most outstanding symphony composers in Japan.

Professor Kreutzer gave his concert at the Hibiya Public Hall on the evening of December 6th, performing Brahm's Rhapsodie E flat major, Beethoven's Sonate F minor (Appassionata), Chopin's Sonate B minor op. 58 and Liszt's Etude de concert D flat major and Hungarian Rhapsody No. 12, etc. This concert by Professor Kreutzer who is reputed to have been gaining remarkably in the mellowness of the notes produced at the piano was praised as the greatest event of the season. The New Symphony Orchestra gave two special concerts on December 26th and 27th at the Kabuki Theatre, performing the 9th Symphony by Beethoven for the second time during the year. The performance of the great symphony was conducted by Rosenstock, after the overture "Leonore" No. 3 had been played, with Taneko Seki (soprano), Fumiko Yotsuya (mezzosoprano), Tamotsu Kinoshita (tenor) and Keikichi Yadabe (bass) acting as the vocal soloists while the choir was furnished by the choruses of the Tokyo Koto Ongaku-in and the Tamagawa Gakuen. Further, the New Symphony Orchestra, at its 198th regular concert which was given on the evening of December 14th, performed for the first time in this country A. Roussel's "Suite," Schumann's Violin Concerto and Godaly's Danse Maroc, with Professor Willy Fley of the Tokyo School of Music acting as the violin soloist.

Kenshu Wanibuchi, newly returned violinist, gave a recital on the evening of December 1st, performing Beethoven's Kreutzer Sonate, Paganini's Concerto D minor, etc. On December 2nd, Miwako Kai and Maxim Chapiro gave their duet, the programme including selections from Mozart, Busoni and Rachmaninoff. The second regular public concert under the name of "An Evening of Modern and Contemporary Music" was held by the Nippon Musical Performers' League on December 5th. Yoji Ohtakuro (tenor), Chieko Hara (piano), Yoshiko Tetsu (soprano), and others participated in the concert. The Concert Populaire gave an "Evening of Modern Music" on the evening of December 6th, performing orchestral works by Borodin, Stravinsky, Sibelius, Duparc, Faure and Debussy.

Romann Dukson and Isako Kurokawa, both of the Tokyo School of Music, gave a concert which enlivened the depressed 'cello circles. The programme consisted of Rachmaninoff's Sonate, Reger's Suite, Beethoven's Sonate (Appassionata) and Schubert's "Arpegionen Sonate." Kosaku Yamada conducted the New Symphony Orchestra, the pieces played being Mozart's overture "Le Nozze di Figaro," Dvorak's New World's Symphony, Mozart's Serenade and Beethoven's overture "Leonore" No. 3, at a concert given in the same month.

The department of arts of the Nihon University organized a symphony orchestra with Heigoro Komatsu as its conductor, which gave its first concert at the Nihon Seinen Kan on December 9th. The programme consisted entirely of Beethoven's works including the overture "Egmont," Symphony No. 1 and Piano Concerto No. 3. Kikuko Fukuda acting as the piano soloist.

Madame Sophie Zaitseff, soprano who had recently come to this country, gave a concert on December 9th, singing Schubert's Lieder and songs by Russian composers and three airs with Michio Miyagi playing the koto accompaniment. Other musical events of the month included the sixth performance by the Tokyo Concert, and concerts by the Toyo Music School and the Tokyo School of Music. In this connection, it must be noted that the concert by the Tokyo School of Music, which was given under the direction of the new conductor Helmut Fermer, was enthusiastically received, the piece which was liked in particular being Mozart's Requiem.

January — On account of the New Year season, the musical circles were rather inactive. Nevertheless, Chieko Hara and Prof. Kreutzer gave their recitals while the New Symphony Orchestra gave its 199th public concert.

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Roman Dukson was the soloist at the concert, playing Haydn's cello concerto. Stravinsky's "Jeu de Cortes" was performed at the concert for the first time in this country. At the same concert, the audience was given the impression that the New Symphony Orchestra had improved its technique to a considerable extent under the instruction of Prof. Rosenstok.

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CHAPTER XXXVI

SPORTS

Japan in the World Olympics

Stockholm and Antwerp Japan participated in the World Olympic Games for the first time in 1912, at Stockholm, when only two athletes represented the country. They were Shizo Kanaguri, marathon runner, and Yahiko Mishima, short-distance runner, both of whom were miserably defeated. In the following Olympiad, which was held in Antwerp in 1920, 15 Japanese took part. Of these, 11 were track and field men, and the others were two swimmers and two tennis players. Neither the track and field men nor the swimmers placed. The tennis entrants won second place.

The Paris Olympiad Japan made its real debut in the Eighth Olympic Games in Paris in 1924, with 14 men participating. A third place in wrestling was the only official score, but Mikio Oda won sixth place in the hop, step and jump; the swimming team placed fourth in the 800-metre relay; Katsuo Takaishi came in fourth in both the 100-metre and 1,500-metre free style, and Kenkichi Saito took sixth place in the backstroke event.

At Amsterdam The year 1928 found 63 Japanese competing in the Ninth Olympic Games at Amsterdam. The late Miss Kinué Hitomi was the only girl in the Japanese delegation and the first Japanese woman to take part in the Olympics, made impressive performances. She won a 100-metre heat in 12.8 seconds and took second place in the 800-metre finals by negotiating the distance in 2 minutes 17.7 seconds. Mikio Oda not only scored for the first time but won Japan's first Olympic championship by taking the hop, step and jump event. In the swimming competition, an equally bright success was attained by Yoshiyuki Tsuruta, who took first place and the championship in the 200-metre breast-stroke. Kazuo Kimura placed sixth in the running high jump; Yonétaro Nakazawa placed sixth in the pole vault; Kanésaku Yamada placed fourth and Séiichiro Tsuda placed sixth, respectively, in the marathon; Katsuo Takaishi won third place in the 100-metre free style swim; Toshio Iriyé came in fourth in the 100-metre backstroke; the 800-metre relay team placed second. The swimmers won second place in competition with the United States, the championship winner. Japanese took part in the boxing, regatta and equestrian contests for the first time but lost.

At Los Angeles The results achieved at Los Angeles by 131 athletes were satisfactory. The delegation took seven championships, seven second places and four third places.

(1) Aquatic Meet Japan dominated the 1932 aquatic meet as no other nation had done in the past. Of 150 official points scored in the six races, 86 went to Japan and only 46 to all other nations together. The result is Japan 86 and America 33, with the rest outdistanced. Only one race was by a non-Japanese champion, the 400-metre free style, in which Clarence Crabbe, of the United States, and Jean Taris, of France, upset expectations and finished ahead of the Japanese trio in new record time. The only team race, the 800-metre relay, went to Japan by a wide margin in almost incredible time, 8 min. 58.4 sec.

The Japanese swimmers produced both world and Olympic records in the Los Angeles meet. The Japanese 800-metre relay team produced a new world record with a time of 8 min. 58.4 sec. Shozo Makino set a new world mark when he swam the first 1,000 metres in the 1,500-metre free style, broke the Olympic record, 58.6 sec., set by the great American swimmer, Johnnie Weismuller, by negotiating the distance in 58 sec. flat. Others who broke Olympic records were Reizo Koiké, who won the 200-metre brest stroke in 2 min. 44.9 sec., and Katsuo Kitamura, 15-year-old boy, who won the 1,500-metre free style in 19 min. 13.4 sec.

(2) Track and Field Events In the track and field events, the Japanese did not show up so brilliantly as did their team mates in the aquatic events. Thanks to Chuhéi Nambu, however, Japan was able to defend the hop, step and jump championship which Mikio Oda had won at Amsterdam in 1924. With a mark of 15.72 metres, Nambu not only won the championship but established a new world record. Another outstanding performance was turned by Baron Takéichi Nishi, of the Japanese Army,

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peting in the Olympic Games for the first time, caused a sensation by winning the 200-metre breast stroke in a new Olympic record of 2 minutes and 42.5 seconds. Miss Hideko Maehata was the first Japanese woman to win in the Olympic aquatic event. She won the 200-metre breast stroke for women and set a new Olympic record of 3 minutes and 3.6 seconds.

After the Games, the International Olympic Committee met and awarded Japan the right to sponsor the 12th Olympic Games in Tokyo in 1940.

The Tokyo Olympic Games On account of the Sino-Japanese Conflict in 1937–38 Japan gave up plans for the proposed Tokyo Olympic Games in July, 1938.

Details of the Japanese performances at the Berlin Olympic Games were :

TRACK AND FIELD

5,000-metre run—Kohei Murakoso won 4th place.

10,000-metre run—Kohei Murakoso won 4th place.

Marathon—Son Kitei won for the first time for Japan with a time of 2 hours 29 minutes 19.5 seconds, and Nan Shoryu placed third.

Running high jump—Kimio Yada placed 5th with 1.97 metres.

Running broad jump—Naota Tajima won third place with 7.74 metres.

Hop, step and jump—Naoto Tajima won and defended successfully the title for the third time in row since the Amsterdam meet. Tajima's leap was 16 metres, a new world record.

Pole vault—Shuhei Nishida and Sueo Oye tied for second place with 4.25 metres respectively.

Women's Track and Field

Discus throw—Miss Ko Nakamura and Miss Hide Minejima won fourth and fifth places respectively.

Javelin throw—Miss Sadako Yamamoto placed fifth.

Swimming

100-metre free style—Masanori Yusa won second place, followed by Shigeo Arai and Shoji Taguchi in third and fourth places. Yusa's time was 57.9 seconds.

400-metre free style—Three Japanese mermen finished in first five, namely, Shumpei Udo in second place, Shozo Udo was timed in 4 minutes 45.6 seconds.

1,500-metre free style—Noboru Terada won with a time of 19 minutes 13.7 seconds. Two other place winners were Shumpei Udo who came in third and Sunao Ishiwarada who finished fourth.

800-metre relay—Japan's team won, members being Yusa, Sugiura, Taguchi and Arai. Time, 8 minutes 51.5 second.

100-metre back stroke—Shoichi Kiyokawa won third place with a time of 1 minutes 6.4 seconds. Kiichi Yoshida placed 5th and Yasuhiko Kojima 6th.

200-metre breast stroke—Tetsuo Hamuro won. Time, 2 minutes 42.5 seconds. Two others who placed were Reizo Koike, third, and Saburo Ito, fifth.

High diving—Tsuneo Shibahara placed sixth.

Spring board diving—Tsuneo Shibahara took fourth place.

Women's Swimming

400-metre free style—Miss Kazue Kojima placed sixth.

200-metre breast stroke—Miss Hideko Maehata won. Time, 3 minutes 3.6 seconds.

High diving—Miss Reiko Osawa won 4th place and Miss Fusako Kono finished 6th.

Spring board diving—Miss Masayo Osawa placed sixth.

Wrestling

Free style

Featherweight—Kozo Mizutani ranked 6th.

Lightweight—Eiichi Kazama ranked 5th.

Boxing

Bantamweight — Shumpei Hashioka ranked 5th.

Equestrian competition

Steeplechase—Japanese team, composed of Captain Baron Takeichi Nishi, Lieutenant Hiroji Inaba and Lieutenant Manabu Iwabashi, placed 6th with 75 penalties.

The Tenth Far Eastern Olympiad

The Tenth Far Eastern Championship Games were held in Manila between May 12 and 21, 1934. Much trouble was created in Japan before the Japan Amateur Athletic Federation finally decided to participate in the event. The Japanese side proposed to the headquarters of the Championship Games that Manchoukuo, represented by the Manchoukuo Amateur Athletic Federation, should be allowed to participate in the event. A protest was raised by both China and the Philippines that the matter had to be submitted to a general conference of the participating countries and the Constitution of the Games be revised for admittance of Manchoukuo. This attitude angered those supporting the Manchoukuo side and caused them

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to advise the Japan Amateur Athletic Federation to withdraw from the event, unless the matter was accepted. The matter was telegraphed to the Manila headquarters, but the reply was that it had to be submitted to a general meeting for approval. In the midst of a vigorous opposition, the Japanese Federation submitted to its general meeting a plan whether it had to attend the games in Manila or renounce its right to participate, leaving the Manchoukuo Federation, and finally it was decided the Federation would attend it with a determination to discuss matters regarding the Manchoukuo participation in the next event and to withdraw from the Games, if Constitution could not be revised so as to let the Manchoukuo participation possible. In course of the games in Manila, the matter was discussed, but failed to be adopted by unanimous consent. In consequence, the Japanese Federation made up its mind to depart from the Games and to organize a new athletic federation with the object of promoting physical culture. Japan, however, participated in the Tenth Games throughout. On June 12, after the return of the Japanese sports delegation to Japan, it was resolved by the delegation that the Japanese Amateur Athletic Federation withdraw from the Far Eastern Championship Games and organize the Amateur Athletic Association of the Orient. Japan, Manchoukuo and the Philippines have decided to join the new Federation, but China will not join it. Thus the Far Eastern Championship Games have been forced to break up.

Results of the Tenth Far Eastern Championship Games follow:

BASEBALL

Philippines	25	China	1
Japan	25	China	1
Philippines	7	Japan	0
Philippines	14	China	0
Japan	8	China	0
Japan	2	Philippines	2

Note: Philippines 1st; Japan 2nd; China 3rd.

BASKETBALL

China	42	Japan	28
Philippines	51	Japan	35
China	48	Japan	47
Philippines	37	China	27
Japan	40	Philippines	37
Philippines	44	China	33

Note: Philippines 1st; China 2nd; Japan 3rd.

VOLLEYBALL

Philippines	3	Japan	2
China	3	Japan	2
Philippines	3	China	0
Philippines	3	Japan	1
China	3	Philippines	2

Note: Philippines 1st; China 2nd; Japan 3rd.

FOOTBALL

China	2	Philippines	1
Duch East Indies	7	Japan	1
China	2	D.E.I.	0
China	4	Japan	3
Japan	4	Philippines	3
Philippines	3	D.E.I.	2

Note: China 1st; Japan, Philippines and D.E.I. 2nd.

LAWN TENNIS

Japan	4	China	1
Philippines	4	D.E.I.	1
Philippines	2	Japan	1

Note: Due to Japan - Philippine finals being called off, no championship was decided.

TRACK

Japan	50
Philippines	38
China	0
D.E.I.	0

Note: Japan 1st; Philippines 2nd; China 3rd.

FIELD

Japan	51
Philippines	19
China	7
D.E.I.	0

Note: Japan 1st; Philippines 2nd; China 3rd and D.E.I. 4th.

PENTATHLON & DECATHLON

Japan	18
Philippines	13
China	7
D.E.I.	2

Note: Japan 1st; Philippines 2nd; China 3rd; D.E.I. 4th.

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SWIMMING

Japan	68
Philippines	15
China	0
D.E.I.	0

Note: Japan 1st; Philippines 2nd; China 3rd.; D.E.I. 4th. Boxing is not mentioned, as it was not included in championship games.

To commemorate the establishment of the Amateur Athletic Association of the Orient among the Philippines, Japan and Manchoukuo, after the break of the Far Eastern Championship Games in the summer of 1934, Japan invited 20 athletes, five boxers and 15 baseball players from the philippines for a series of games in June, 1935.

Results of the games follow:

TRACK AND FIELD

Japan	98-50	Philippines (Tokyo)
Japanese Student Stars	68-47	" "

Baseball

Philippines 12-6 Moji Railway Bureau (Fukuoka); Yahata Iron Works 5-1 Philippines (Yahata); Philippines 2-1 Yahata Iron Works (Yahata); Philippines 11-1 Yahata Iron Works (Fukuoka); Kwansai University 4-3 Philippines (Osaka); Philippines 2-1 Kwansai University (Osaka); All Osaka 3-2 Philippines (Osaka); Philippines 12-5 Keio University (Tokyo); Philippines 5-3 Rikkyo (Tokyo); Hosei University 3-2 Philippines (Tokyo); Waseda 12-3 Philippines (Tokyo); and Tokyo Club 6-1 Philippines.

Boxing

Philippines 3-2 All Kwansai (Osaka); Philippines 4-1 All Kwanto (Tokyo); Kwanto Student Champions 4-1 Philippines (Tokyo); Philippines 3-2 Middle Japan (Nagoya).

Development of Western Sports

The History Young When a Japanese refers to "sports," he usually means Western athletic sports, not the traditional sports of Japan. The tremendous interest of the Japanese in Western sports and the remarkable development that they have made in them have relegated Japan's own sports to the background. One may pay tribute to the athletic prowess of the Japanese and their adaptability and capacity for assimilation, but one strong reason for the great popularity of the sports from the West may be sought in the fact that most Western sports are played collectively, instead of individually as in the case of Japanese fencing and judo, and they appear to suit the race in their modern mode of life. Western sports, moreover, offer the Japanese an opportunity to compete with other athletic nations and demonstrate their ability. This gives more incentive for their enthusiasm for foreign sports.

Despite their remarkable growth, Western sports in Japan are very young, and their history is a matter of only half a century. Sixty years ago, no Western sport worth the name existed in Japan. The fact that Japan could send only two athletes to the World Olympic Games for the first time as late as 20 years ago and suffered a miserable defeat is indicative of the slight athletic progress the conutry had attained up to that time. Except for baseball, which was played zealously even in the earlier years, it is no exaggeration to say that Japan's participation in the World Olympics provided the real incentive for the growth of Western sports in general.

The Far Eastern Olympiad It should be added in this connection that, one year after Japan's first participation in the World Olympics, the Far Eastern Olympic Games were organized, with Japan, China and the Philippines as the participants. There is little doubt that this minor Olympics had a great deal to do with athletic development in Japan. As in the case of the World Olympics, Japan had an insignificant beginning as far as points go, but in 1930 the country so completely defeated the Philippines and China that one who was acquainted with the remarkable athletic progress in Japan doubted the usefulness of further competition in the Far Eastern Olympic Games. The first meet of this junior Olympics was held at Manila in 1913, and since then successive Far Eastern Olympic Games have been held every other year. In 1930, when the last meet was held in Tokyo, it was agreed to hold the meet every four years so that it would not clash with the World Olympics. The last Far Eastern Olympic Games took place in Manila in May, 1934. In addition to the World and Far Eastern Olympic Games, there have been from time to time frequent exchanges of visits between Japanese athletic teams and those of foreign countries, which not only offered the Japanese opportunities to learn valuable lessons but proved good

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for a closer international friendship.

The Re-organization of the Japan Amateur Association The Japan Amateur Athletic Association was reorganized as the highest regulating body for sports in Japan, on May 19, 1936. The Association was able to perfect its organization with the affiliation of sixteen other athletic bodies and became the most important sports governing body in Japan. The important work for the Association in 1935 was the sending of the delegation to the 11th Olympiad in Berlin and exerting its best efforts to invite the 12th Olympiad to Tokyo.

As regards the sending of the delegation the Association succeeded in obtaining the fund. A subsidy of ¥300,000 was granted by the Government and public donations amounting to ¥400,000 were obtained these two making a total fund of ¥700,000 for the despatch of the delegation. It was thus possible to send 47 athletes to the 4th Winter Sports Games and also a large and imposing delegation composed of 68 officials and 246 athletes representing 13 events to the 11th Olympiad in Berlin.

Traditional Sports Of Japan's traditional sports, those which have remained from ancient times and which still hold the interest of the people include jujitsu (judo), known as the art of self-defence; kenjutsu (kendo), or fencing; sumo, or wrestling, and swimming (native styles). All these major sports are still being practised throughout the country. Probably the most popular is wrestling. At the Kokugikan amphitheatre at Ryogoku, on the bank of the Sumida River, which flows through Tokyo, a professional wrestling tournament is held twice a year, in January and May. H. I. M. the Emperor invites almost each year not only professional wrestlers but jujitsu and fencing masters of the land to the palace for matches in His Majesty's presence. In addition to these Japanese sports, there are others, such as archery and horsemanship of ancient origin, but they have suffered more or less decadence since the overthrow of feudalism.

Under Education Minister All sports in Japan are controlled either by the Ministry of Education or the Ministry of Health and Social Affairs. All students' sports are under the jurisdiction of the Education Ministry, and such non-student affairs as Japanese professional wrestling and professional boxing are under the control of the Ministry of Health and Social Affairs. Matters such as the maintenance of peace and order in and around the wrestling amphitheatre or boxing ring are in the hands of the local police.

The leading athletic organization in Japan is the Japan Amateur Athletic Association, mentioned above, with Ryozo Hiranuma as acting president. This is the organization which controls track and field games in Japan and selects athletes for international meets. There are other similar organizations, such as the Japan Amateur Swimming Federation and the Japan Lawn Tennis Association.

Records Various statistics of records made by Japanese athletes follow:

JAPAN'S AND WORLD'S TRACK AND FIELD RECORDS

Running

Event	Japan's Record	World's Record
100-meter	10.3s. Ryutoku Yoshioka (1935)	10.2s. Jesse Owens, U.S.A. (1936)
200-meter	21.2s. Mutsuo Taniguchi (1934)	20.3s. Jesse Owens. U.S.A. (1935)
400-meter	49.0s. Keiji Imai (1934)	46.1s. Archie Williams, U.S.A. (1936)
800-meter	1:54.0m. Kumao Aochi (1934)	1:49.9m. A. Robinson, U.S.A. (1937)
1,500-meter	3:56.8m. Kiyoshi Nakamura (1936)	3:47.8m. Jack Lovelock, New Zealand (1936)
5,000-meter	14:3.0m. Kohei Murakoso (1936)	14:17.0m, Lauri Lehtinen, Finland (1932)
10,000-meter	30:25.0m. Kohei Murakoso (1936)	30:5.6m. T. Salminen, Finland (1937)
Marathon	2:26.42h. Kitei Son (1935)	2:26.42h. Kitei Son, Japan (1935)

Hurdles

110-meter high hurdles	14.6s. Tadashi Murakami (1935)	13.7s. Forrest Towns, U.S.A. (1936)
200-meter low hurdles	24.3s. Iwao Anne (1930)	22.6s. Jesse Owens, U.S.A. (1935)
400-meter low hurdles	54.2s. Toyoji Aihara (1936)	50.6s. Glenn Hardin, U.S.A. (1934)
3,000-meter steeplechase	9:32.8m. Hideo Tanaka (1936)	9:3.8m. V. Isohollo, Finland (1936)

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Relay Races

400-meter	41.4s. Yoshioka, Sasaki, Taniguchi (1935)	39.8s. Owens. Metcalph. Draper, Wykoff, U.S.A. (1936)
800-meter	1:28.0m. Takano, Kondo, Taniguchi. Suzuki (1934)	1:25m. Stanford University, U.S.A. (1937)
1,600-meter	3:16.8m. Nakajima, Masuda, Oki, Nishi (1932)	3:8.2m. Fuqua, Alowich, Warner, Carr, U.S.A. (1932)
3,200-meter	8:20.4m. Kida, Nagatani, Hori, Hamada (1929)	7:41.4m. Martin, Welch. Sansone, Hahn, U.S.A. (1926)

Walking

3,000-meter	14:1.2m. Kinji Kazama (1936)	12:23.8m. G. Brunn, Norway (1936)
5,000-meter	24:31.2m. Kinji Kazama (1936)	21:2.8m. G. Brunn, Norway (1937)
10,000-meter	43:49.6m. Yoshio Hirosé (1938)	43:25.2m. G. Brunn, Norway (1937)
50,000-meter	4:42.57h. Eiji Wada (1936)	4:26.40h. Edgar Brunn, Norway (1936)

Jumping

High jump	2.01 mtrs. Yoshiro Asakuma (1935)	2.07 mtrs. Dave Albritton U.S.A. (1936)
Broad jump	7.98 mtrs. Chuhei Nambu (1931)	8.13 mtrs. Jesse Owens, U.S.A. (1935)
Hop, step and jump	16mtrs. Naoto Tajima(1936)	16 mtrs. Naoto Tajima, Japan (1936)
Pole vault	4.35 mtrs. Sueo Oye (1936)	4.54 mtrs. G. Sefton, E. Meadows, U.S.A. (1937)

Weight Events

Putting 16-lb. shot	14.13 mtrs. Shizuo Takada (1934)	17.40 mtrs. Jack Torrance, U.S.A. (1934)
Hammer throw	51.27 mtrs. Isao Abe (1935)	57.77 mtrs. D.J. Ryan U.S.A. (1913)

Discus Throw

44.76 mtrs. Kosaku Kikumoto (1935) 53.10 mtrs. Willi Schroeder, Germany (1935)

Javelin Throw

68.59 mtrs. Saburo Nagao (1934) 77.23 mtrs. M. Jarvinen, Finland (1936)

Decathlon

7,469.595 pts. Tatsuo Toki (1932) 7,900 pts. Glenn Morris, U.S.A. (1936)

WOMEN'S JAPAN AND WORLD TRACK AND FIELD RECORD

Event	Japan's Record	World Record
50 mtrs. run	6.4s. Kinuye Hitomi(1927)	6.4s. Walasiewicz, Polond (1932)
100 ,,	12.2s. Kinuye Hitomi(1929)	11.5s. Stephens, U.S.A.(1936)
200 ,,	24.7s. Kinuye Hitomi(1929)	23.6s. Walasiewicz, Poland (1935)
400 ,,	1:1.6m. Kiyoko Itoda (1935)	57.6s. Walasiewicz. Poland (1935)
800 ,,	2:23.8m. Kinuye Hitomi(1928)	2:12.4m. Koukova, Czechoslovakia (1934)
1,000 ,,	3:23.3m. Michiyo Onishi(1935)	2:52.4m. Lunn, England (1936)
80 mtrs. hardles	11.9s. Yoshiko Yamashita (1938)	11.6s. Valla, Italy (1936)
400 mtrs. relay	50.1s. Yamauchi, Koshiyama, Yoshino, Itoda (1938)	46.4s. National Team. Germany (1936)
800 meters. relay	1:49.2 m. Kato, Nakajima, Manabe, Itoda (1935)	1:45.8 m. National Team, Germany (1932)
1,000 mtrs. relay	2:17. lm. Koya, Ueda, Nakamura, Niibayashi, Yamamoto, Okuno, Sakai, Kawashima, Kawahara, Takino (1935)	2:4.4 m. National Team, England (1929)

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Event	Japan's Record	World Record
High jump	1.56 mtrs. Rie Yamanouchi (1938)	1.65 mtrs. Didrickson, U.S.A.(1932)
Broad jump	6.07 mtrs. Kinuye Hitomi (1929)	5.98 mtrs. Kinuye Hitomi, Japan (1928)
Shot put	12.64 mtrs. Fumi Kojima (1937)	14.38 mtrs. Mauermeyer, Germany (1934)
Discus throw	39.75 mtrs. Hide Minejima (1936)	48.31 mtrs. Mauermeyer, Germany (1936)
Javelin throw	44.51 mtrs. Sadako Yamamoto (1936)	46.74 mtrs. Gindele, U.S.A. (1932)

JAPAN'S AND WORLD'S BEST SWIMMING RECORDS

Men's Free Style

Distance	Japan's Record	World's Record
50-meter	25.8s. Shigeo Takahashi (1934)	
100-meter	57.2s. Masanori Yusa (1935)	56.4s. Peter Fick, U.S.A. (1936)
200-meter	2:9.6m. Shigéo Arai (1938)	2:7.2m. Jack Medica U.S.A. (1935)
300-meter	3:30.8m. Shigéo Arai(1938)	3:21.6m. Jack Medica U.S.A. (1935)
400-meter	4:45.0m. Hiroshi Negami (1936)	4:38.7m. Jack Medica U.S.A. (1934)
500-meter	6:7.2m. Gen Ishiwarada (1935)	5:57.8m. Jack Medica U.S.A. (1933)
800-meter	9:55.8m. Shozo Makino (1935)	9:55.8m. Shozo Makino, Japan (1935)
1,000-meter	12:33.8m. Tomikatsu Amano (1938)	12:33.8m. Tomikatsu Amano, Japan (1938)
1,500-meter	18:58.8m. Tomikatsu Amano (1938)	18:58.8m. Tomikatsu Amano, Japan (1938)

Men's Breast Stroke

100-meter	1:12.2m. Reizo Koike (1936)	1:9.5m. Barke, Germany (1938)
200-meter	2:40.4m. Tetsuo Hamuro (1937)	2:37.2m. Jack Kasley, U.S.A. (1936)

Men's Back Stroke

100-meter	1:7.2m. Seiji Kiyokawa (1936)	1:4.8m. Adolph Kiefer, U.S.A. (1936)
200-meter	2:30.8m. Yasuhiko Kojima (1938)	2:24.0m. Adolph Kiefer, U.S.A. (1935)
400-meter	5:23.2m. Kiichi Yoshida (1936)	5:13.4m. Adolph Kiefer, U.S.A. (1936)

Women's Free Style

100-meter	1:11.0m. Kazue Kojima (1936)	1:4.6m. Den Ouden, Holland (1936)
200-meter	2:42.8m. Kazue Kojima (1933)	2:21.7m. Ranghild Hveger, Denmark (1938)
400-meter	5:43.1m. Kazue Kojima (1936)	5:6.1m. Ranghild Hveger, Denmark (1937)
800-meter	12:31.8m. Hatsue Morioka(1935)	11:11.7m. Ranghild Hveger, Denmark (1938)
1,000-meter	15:57.0m. Hatsue Morioka(1933)	14:12.3m. Ronghild Hveger, Denmark (1936)

Women's Breast Stroke

100-meter	1:25.7m. Hideko Machata (1935)	1:20.2m. H. Hoelzner, Germany (1936)
200-meter	3:0.4m. Hideko Maehata (1933)	2:56.9m. M. Wahrberg, Holland (1937)

Women's Back Stroke

100-meter	1:25.1m. Misao Yokota (1932)	1:13.6m. Nida Zenff, Holland (1936)
200-meter	3:9.2m. Ai Oda (1936)	2:41.3m. R. Hveger, Denmark (1937)

Baseball

Baseball is the most popular and most widely played game in Japan. Sumo, the Japanese style of wrestling, had been known for many years as the national game, but baseball came from the United States and caught popular fancy. The American pastime is now recognized as the de facto national game

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of this country. The Japanese are agile by nature and gifted with quick headwork and therefore are fitted to play baseball, although their weakness in batting is admitted. American professional players who have been to Japan and played with the Japanese have said that the Japanese are good pitchers and good fielders, but poor hitters and have recommended that efforts be made to improve batting.

Its Inception Like track and field sports, baseball was brought to Japan in the early years of Meiji. It is recorded that baseball was introduced by two American teachers in 1872. Not much progress was made until after 1890. The First Higher School is known as the first school which organized a strong team. Keio University and Waseda University also organized teams. Games began to be played between those schools with much zeal. In 1905, Waseda University sent its team to the United States. It played 27 games and won seven, but the team brought to Japan new tactics, such as winding and bunting, which had been unknown here until that time. Organized cheering was begun about the same time. From then on, American university teams, such as those of St. Louis, Wisconsin, Washington and Chicago Universities, came to Japan. At first, the American invaders were sure to win. As years went by, baseball in Japan developed greatly, however, and now it is admitted that Japanese university teams are on a par with American 'varsity nines. Hence the almost semi-annual exchange of university baseball teams between Japan and the United States.

Its Development The development of baseball in Japan owes much to the visits of American professional players. In 1913, Japan invited the leading players of the New York Giants and the Chicago White Sox to play with the Japanese and to coach them. In 1931, a picked American professional team came under the management of Mr. Herb Hunter. Those Big League players not only impressed the Japanese with spectacular playing but also opened their eyes to the possibilities of further improvement in technique. In 1932, Mr. Hunter brought here Frank (Lefty) O'Doul and a few other Big League players for the purpose of coaching Japanese university players.

The University League The game was laid on a firm foundation in 1925 when the present Big Six-University Baseball League of Tokyo was organized among Waseda, Keio, Meiji, Hosei, Rikkyo and Imperial Universities. Of the semi-annual league series, the most popular is the Waseda-Keio, series, the interest in which is high, as in the Cambridge-Oxford regatta, because of the historical background. Before the present league was formed, Waseda and Keio had such keen rivalry that blood shed was caused at one of the games and the series had to be abandoned for 20 years. The creation of the league revived the series, and they are now the "World Series of Japan." Each Waseda-Keio game is usually attended by a capacity crowd of 55,000 at the Meiji Jingu (Shrine) grounds, Tokyo.

In the semi-annual league seasons, each university plays a two-game series with the others. The championship winners were formerly decided on the basis of the number of series won, but now the number of games won.

The following tables show the final standing of the autumn season of 1938 and the spring season of 1939:

1938 Autumn

	Meiji	Keio	Waseda	Hosei	Rikkyo	Imp.	Won	Draw	Rate gained
Meiji	×	1	2	1.5	2	1.5	7	2	80.0
Keio	1	×	0	1.5	2	2	6	1	65.0
Waseda	0	2	×	0	2	2	6	0	60.0
Hosei	0.5	0.5	2	×	1.5	0.5	3	4	50.0
Rikkyo	0	0	0	0.5	×	2	2	1	25.0
Imperial	0.5	0	0	1.5	0	×	1	2	20.0
Lost	1	3	4	3	7	7			

Meiji won the pennant.

1939 Spring

	Keio	Waseda	Rikkyo	Meiji	Imp.	Hosei	Won	Draw	Rate gained
Keio	×	1	1	1	2	2	7	0	70.0
Waseda	1	×	1	1.5	1.5	2	6	2	70.0
Rikkyo	1	1	×	1.5	0.5	2	5	2	60.0

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Event	Japan's Record	World Record
High jump	1.56 mtrs. Rie Yamanouchi (1938)	1.65 mtrs. Didrickson, U.S.A. (1932)
Broad jump	6.07 mtrs. Kinuye Hitomi (1929)	5.98 mtrs. Kinuye Hitomi, Japan (1928)
Shot put	12.64 mtrs. Fumi Kojima (1937)	14.38 mtrs. Mauermeyer, Germany (1934)
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200-meter	2:40.4m. Tetsuo Hamuro (1937)	2:37.2m. Jack Kasley, U.S.A. (1936)

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100-meter	1:7.2m. Seiji Kiyokawa (1936)	1:4.8m. Adolph Kiefer, U.S.A. (1936)
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Waseda	0	2	×	0	2	2	6	0	60.0
Hosei	0.5	0.5	2	×	1.5	0.5	3	4	50.0
Rikkyo	0	0	0	0.5	×	2	2	1	25.0
Imperial	0.5	0	0	1.5	0	×	1	2	20.0
Lost	1	3	4	3	7	7			

Meiji won the pennant.

1939 Spring

	Keio	Waseda	Rikkyo	Meiji	Imp.	Hosei	Won	Draw	Rate gained
Keio	×	1	1	1	2	2	7	0	70.0
Waseda	1	×	1	1.5	1.5	2	6	2	70.0
Rikkyo	1	1	×	1.5	0.5	2	5	2	60.0

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	Keio	Waseda	Rikkyo	Meiji	Imp.	Hosei	Won	Draw	Rate gained
Meiji	1	0.5	0.5	×	1.5	2	4	3	55.0
Imperial	0	0.5	1.5	0.5	×	2	3	3	45.0
Hosei	0	0	0	0	0	×	0	0	00.0
Lost	3	2	3	3	4	10			

To decide upon the place of Waseda and Keio who gained the same rate of victory an extra game was played between them on June 5, and Waseda won the pennant.

Professional Baseball Japan now boasts of eight professional baseball teams, four in Tokyo and two each in Nagoya and Osaka. They are Tokyo Giants, Eagles, Tokyo senators and Lions in Tokyo; Nagoya and Golden Dolphins in Nagoya; Hankyu and Osaka Tigers in Osaka. The teams were formed during 1934 and early 1936, all possesing former leading baseball players from colleges and middle schools.

The Japan Professional Baseball League, a governing body for these professional teams, was founded in 1936, with leading men of each team in its official board. The league is headed by Marquis Nobutsuné Okuma, president of the Tokyo Giants. Each team is operated as sister companies of leading newspaper or railway companies, and some of them are financed by a group of business men. The Tokyo Giants is the oldest among them, founded in late 1934, and is backed by the Yomiuri Shimbun, leading Tokyo newspaper. The team made a tour of the United States twice already in 1935 and 1936, each time their trip extending for three months. Most of the professional teams are stronger than those of the Tokyo University League and their future is very promising.

The three championship series among the professional teams were held in Tokyo, Osaka and Nishinomiya in 1938, and resulted as follows:

Spring 1938

	Games	Won	Lost	Draw	%
Tigers	35	29	6	0	.829
Giants	35	24	11	0	.686
Hankyus	35	21	13	1	.618
Eagles	35	18	15	2	.545
Senators	35	13	21	1	.382
Dolphins	35	13	22	0	.371
Nagoyas	35	11	24	0	.314
Lions	35	9	26	0	.257

Tigers retained the pennant.

Autumn 1938

	Games	Won	Lost	Draw
Tigers	40	30	9	1
Giants	40	27	13	0
Hankyus	40	21	17	2
Nagoyas	40	19	18	3
Senators	40	19	20	1
Lions	40	19	20	1
Eagles	40	15	20	5
Nankai	40	11	26	3
Dolphins	40	11	29	0

Tigers retained the pennant.

Marking as one of the biggest events in the history of the Japanese baseball, 15 star baseball players of the American major leagues, made a barnstorming tour to Japan in the fall of 1934 at the invitation of the Yomiuri Shimbun. They arrived in Yokohama on November 2 and stayed for a month during which they made a clean sweep of winning 18 games against the All Japan nine in the leading cities of this country. Mr. Connie Mack, the veteran baseball coach and manager of the Philadelphia Athletics Club, was the leader of the team.

The American team, including such famous players as Babe Ruth, homerun King, Lou Gehrig, Jimmy Foxx and Charles Gehringer, were given a tremendous welcome by the Japanese baseball fans in every city they visited. Every baseball ground where they played, were filled to more than its capacity with the enthusiastic fans, who were, in return, treated with amazing and excellent play by the visitors, both in batting and fielding. Especially Babe Ruth was the centre of attraction, his play being observed keenly by the Japanese. He was also chased around heavily by a large number of autograph hunters wherever he appeared, just in the same way as in his home country.

The All Japan team which was specially formed to meet the American stars with the former star players in the Japanese college leagues, the strongest nine Japan could offer then, was beaten by a one-sided score by the visitors in almost every game they played. A total of 47 home runs was recorded by the American players during their sojourn, with Ruth leading with 13. A name of "home run team," was given by the Japanese fans for their heavy and amazing batting works by Ruth, Gehrig, Foxx, Averill and Gehringer, who all hit home run

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more than four each.

The American team was composed of the following players :

Eric McNair (Philadelphia Athletics), shortstop.

Charles I. Gehringer (Detroit Tigers), second base.

Babe Ruth (New York Yankees), left field and first base.

Lou Gehrig (Yankees), first base.

James Foxx (Athletics), third base.

Earl Averill (Cleveland Indians), centre field.

E.J. Miller (Athletics), right field.

Morris Berg (Cleveland), catcher.

Frank Hayes (Athletics), catcher.

Vernon Gomez (Yankees), pitcher.

Earl Whitehill (Washington Senators), pitcher.

Clinton H. Brown (Cleveland), pitcher.

Edward Cascarella (Athletics), pitcher.

Hal Warstler (Athletics), substitute for infielder.

Frank O'Doul (New York Giants), outfielder.

Mr. John A. Quinn, the noted Southern League umpire, acted as chief umpire.

Results of the games follow :

Americans 17–1 Tokyo Club (Meiji Shrine Grounds, Tokyo, November 4)

Americans 5–1 All Japan (Meiji Shrine Grounds, Tokyo November 5)

Americans 5–2 All Japan (Yunokawa Grounds, Hakodaté, November 8)

Americans 7–0 All Japan (Yagiyama Grounds Sendai, November 9)

Americans 10–0 All Japan (Meiji Shrine Grounds, Tokyo, November 10)

Ruth team 13–2 Miller team, exhibition (Meiji Shrine Grounds, Tokyo November 11)

Americans 14–0 All Japan (Jintsu Grounds, Toyama, November 13)

Americans 15–6 All Japan (Meiji Shrine Grounds, Tokyo, November 17)

Americans 21–4 All Japan (Yokohama Park Grounds, Yokohama, November 18)

Americans 1–0 All Japan (Shizuoka City Grounds, Shizuoka, November 20)

Americans 6–5 All Japan (Narumi Grounds, Nagoya, November 22)

Americans 6–2 All Japan (Narumi Grounds Nagoya November 23)

Americans 15–3 All Japan (Koshien Grounds, Hyogo, November 24)

Miller team 5–1 Ruth team exhibition (Koshien Grounds, Hyogo, November 25)

Americans 8–1 All Japan (Itatsu Grounds, Kokura, November 26)

Americans 14–1 All Japan (Kyoto City Grounds, Kyoto, November 28)

Americans 23–5 All Japan (Omiya Grounds, Saitama, November 29)

Americans 14–5 All Japan (Utsunomiya Grounds, Tochigi, December 1)

Track and Field

The birth of track and field sports in Japan dates back to the Meiji Restoration in 1868. In the following year, a physical training course was added to the curriculum of middle schools, which consisted of gymnastics introduced by the Dutch. In the meantime, those who returned home to Japan from abroad, much impressed by athletics in foreign countries advocated the introduction of Western athletics. Several foreign teachers were invited to teach athletics as well as English. Running and jumping were taught, but progress was slow. The first Japanese track and field meet was held in Tokyo in 1884, but the first really systematic athletic meet was not held until 1886. At the latter meet, programmes were printed. It was an epoch-making event. Track and field events about 1889 and 1890 were almost the same as they are now. There were the 100, 220, 400, 880 yards, the 100 yard hurdles, cricket ball throw, the three-legged race and so on. As for records, the best was 10.8 seconds for the 100-yard dash and 18 seconds for the 100-yard hurdles. From that time on, progress was gradual until 1912, when Japan took part in the World Olympic Games for the first time. An outline of the progress of Western sports in Japan in subsequent years is given in the first section titled "Japan in the World Olympics."

At the invitation of the Japan Amateur Athletic Federation, the American track and field stars, captained by Glenn Cunningham, the world famous distance runner, visited Japan in September, 1934, for a series of contests against the leading Japanese athletes. They were the first and strongest athletic force ever came to Japan from the United States, and staged one of the biggest track and field events in this country.

The Americans with 14 members, engaged in two dual meets with the selected Japanese team in Tokyo and Osaka, and appeared in five exhibition contests, visiting Nagoya, Dairen, Seoul and Fukuoka. Their visit was successful, contributing much to Japan's athletic circle and also toward the international friendship between the two countries. The Americans won the first dual contest, held on September 8 and 9 in Tokyo, by a score of 84 points to 75, but lost the second meet to Japan by a close 77½ points to 75½ in Osaka a week later, which was an unexpected victory for the local side. Three world and 13 Japanese records were shattered in these dual contests.

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Ralph Metcalfe, the ranking dusky American sprinter, covered the 200-metre course in 20.2 seconds, clipping four tenth of a second from his own world mark, both in Tokyo and later in the Dairen meet. Another world record was bettered by a Japanese, Kenkichi Oshima, former Kwansai University ace, who won the hop, step and jump event with a leap of 15.82 metres in the second dual meet in Osaka. The former world record for this event was 15.72 metres held by Chuhei Nambu of Japan, a sensation in the last Olympic Games in Los Angeles.

Members of the American team were: Glenn Cunningham (Kansas University); John Anderson (Cornell University); Robert Clark (Olympic Club); Frank Crowley (Manhattan College); Gorden Dunn (Stanford University); Donald Favor (University of Maine); Phil Good (Bordoin University); Howard Greene (Abilen Christian College); Charles Hornbostel (Indiana University); Walter Marty (Fresno State University); Ralph Metcalfe (Marquette University); Charles Parsons (University of Southern California); Wirt Thompson (Yale University); and Dudley Wilkins (Louisiana State University). Coach—Mr. John Magee, vice-president of the American Athletic Union.

Winners of the first dual meet were:

Track Events

100-metre dash, Ralph Metcalfe (United States), 10.5 seconds; 200-metre dash, Metcalfe (United States), 20.2 seconds (new world record); 400-metre run, Charles Hornbostel (United States), 49.2 seconds; 800-metre run, Hornbostel (United States), 1:54.0 minute; 1,500-metre run, Glenn Cunningham (United States), 4:8.6 minutes; 5,000-metre run, Ryu Choshun (Japan), 15:41.8 minutes; 110-metre high hurdles, Phil Good (United States), 14.6 seconds; 400-metre relay, American team (Clark, Greene, Parsons and Metcalfe), 41.3 seconds; and Swedish relay, American team (Metcalfe, Parsons, Greene and Hornbostel), 1:57.6 minutes.

Field Events

High jump, Yoshiro Asakuma (Japan), 1.95 metre; broad jump, Masao Harada (Japan), hop, step and jump, Keinkichi Oshima (Japan), 15.28 metres pole vault, Suyeo Oyé (Japan), 4 metres; Shot put, Gorden Dunn (United States), 15.-26 metres; discus throw, Dunn (United States), 47.42 metres; hammer throw, Isao Abé (Japan), 48.98 metres; and javelin throw, Saburo Nagao (Japan), 62.07 metres.

Points scored:

United States		Japan
6	800-metre run	4
4	Broad jump	6
7	Discus throw	3
7	100-metre dash	3
3	High jump	7
4	5,000-metre run	6
3	Javelin throw	7
4	400-metre relay	1
7	400-metre run	3
6	Shot put	4
4	Pole vault	6
6	High hurdles	3
4	Hammer throw	6
7	200-metre dash	3
3	Hop, step and jump	7
5	1,500-metre run	5
4	Swedish relay	1
84		75

Winners in the second dual meet were:

Track Events

100-metre dash, Ralph Metcalfe (United States), 10.3 seconds (tied the world record); 200-metre dash, Metcalfe (United States), 21.4 seconds; 400-metre run, Charles Hornbostel (United States), 49.2 seconds; 800-metre run, Glenn Cunningham (United States), 3:58.4 minutes; 5,000-metre run, Frank Crowley (United States), 16:8.6 minutes; 110-metre high hurdles, Tadashi Murakami (Japan), 14.6 seconds; and Swedish relay, Japanese team (Yoshioka, Taniguchi, Miyanagi and Imai), 1:57.5 minute.

Field Events

High jump, Yoshiro Asakuma (Japan), 2 metres; broad jump, Masao Harada (Japan), 7.59 metres; hop, step and jump, Kenkichi Oshima (Japan), 15.82 metres (new world record); pole vault, Suyeo Oyé (Japan), 4.20 metres; shot put, Gorden Dunn (United States), 15.-62 metres; discus throw, Dunn (United States), 46.43 metres; hammer throw, Donald Favor (United States), 51.16 metres; and javelin throw, Saburo Nagao (Japan), 62.98 metres.

Points scored:

United States		Japan
7	100-metre dash	3
6	200-matre dash	4
7	400-metre run	3
7	800-metre run	3
5	1,500-metre run	5
5	5,000-metre run	5

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1937	1938
3. Shunsuke Hirai (Keio U.)	3. Yasuo Tsuruta (Keio U.)
4. Yasumine Kuramitsu (Kwansai U.)	4. Takeo Matsumoto (Hosei U.)
5. Fumiteru Nakano (Hosei U.)	5. Katsumi Matsuoka (Keio U.)
6. Katsumi Matsuoka (Keio U.)	6. Shunji Ikushima (Kwansai Gakuin)
7. Sakuzo Hasegawa (Senshu U.)	7. Kokichi Kagitomi (Keio U.)
8. Shinroku Hayashi(Tokyo Imperial U.)	8. Yasushi Kimura (Waseda U.)
9. Junzo Kinoshita (Kwansai Gakuin)	9. So Taneda (Waseda U.)
10. Shojiro Tatsuta (Kwansai Gakuin)	10. Keishi Tanaka (Waseda U.)
11. Masatomo Tsukada (Meiji U.)	11. Keiji Nakahara (Waseda U.)
12. Mitsuo Kawamura (Kwansai Gakuin)	12. Haruo Kodera (Nagasaki Higher Commercial)
13. Tamio Abe (Tomon Club)	13. Masayuki Hirose (Kwansai U.)
14. Shizuo Fujii (Kwansai U.)	14. Ryuzo Yamagata (Keio U.)
15. Yasuji Kiyosu (Kwansai Gakuin)	15. Goro Fujikura (Keio U.)
16. Reizo Murakami (Keio U.)	16. Shigeru Kusumoto (Keio U.)
17. Tatsuo Hisano(Eighth Higher School)	17. Yasushi Yasukawa (Tokyo Imperial)
18. Masutaro Nakamura (Keio U.)	18. Tokuzo Tamai (Keio U.)
19. Taisuke Yokota (Tokyo Imperial U.)	19. Junzo Fuwa (Keio U.)
20. Tomigoro Fujita (Waseda U.)	20. Masanori Takao (Waseda U.)

Men's Doubles

1937	1938
1. Jiro Yamagishi-Reizo Murakami (Keio U.)	1. Jiro Yamagishi-Yasuo Tsuruta (Keio U.)
2. Masuo Uehora-Haruo Horigoshi (Kwansai U.)	2. Keishi Tanaka-Masanori Takao (Waseda U.)
3. Shunsaku Hirai-Reizo Murakami (Keio U.)	3. Masuo Uehara-Haruo Horikoshi (Koshien)
4. Junzo Kinoshita-Yasuji Kiyosu (Kwansai Gakuin)	4. Shunji Ikushima-Hiroshi Yamagata (Kwansai Gakuin)
5. Shizuo Fuji-Yasumine Kuramitsu (Kwansai U.)	5. Takeo Matsumoto-Kazuo Hirobe (Hosei U.)
6. Shinroku Hayashi-Yoshio Takahashi (Tokyo Imperial U.)	6. Katsumi Matsuoka-Tokuzo Tamai (Keio U.)
7. Keiji Tanako-Tomigoro Fujita (Waseda U.)	7. Shigeru Kusumoto-Ryuzo Yamagata (Keio U.)
8. Mitsuo Kawamura-Shunji Ikushima (Kwansai Gakuin)	8. So Taneda-Yasushi Kimura (Waseda U.)
9. Masatomo Tsukada-Koyata Nishioka (Meiji U.)	9. Mitsuo Miura-Yasushi Washimi (Waseda U.)
10. Akimasa Miura-Reijiro Hattori (Waseda U.)	10. Masayuki Hirose-Kazuo Okumura (Kwansai U.)

Fumiteru Nakano who represented Japan in the 1937 Davis Cup tournaments was not included in the official ranking, because he lacked sufficient data.

Women's Singles

1937	1938
1. Miss Sadayo Toda (Osaka)	1. Miss Toyoko Kizen (Koshien)
2. Miss Toyoko Kimata (Osaka)	2. Miss Keiko Asanaga (Denen)
3. Miss Hisako Yamagishi (Denen Club)	3. Miss Junko Kamo (Denen)
4. Miss Kumiko Sasakura (Poplar Club)	4. Miss Kumi Sasakura (Kwanto)
5. Miss Hisako Takiguchi (Osaka)	5. Miss Shizuyo Narukawa (Nagoya Club)
6. Miss Shizuyo Narukawa (Nagoya)	6. Miss Shizuko Enotani (Koshien)
7. Miss Michiko Harada (M.L.)	7. Miss Naoko Oura (Green)
8. Miss Kiyoko Enotani (Osaka)	8. Miss Michiko Harada (Denen)
9. Mrs. Naoko Matsudaira (Green Club)	9. Miss Hanako Hamada (Koshien)
10. Miss Mitsuko Iida (Osaka)	10. Miss Michiko Ueno (Denen)

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Women's Doubles

1937	1938
1. Miss Kumiko Sasakura-Miss Michiko Harada	1. Miss Naoko Oura-Miss Hisako Hara (Kwanto)
2. Mrs. Naoko Matsudaira-Miss Hisako Yamagishi	2. Miss Keiko Asanaga-Miss Michiko Ueno (Denen)
3. Miss Shizuyo Takigawa-Miss Mikiko Nakamura	3. Miss Toyoko Kizen-Miss Hanako Hamada (Koshien)
4. Mrs. Ewing-Miss Kiyoko Enotani	4. Miss Sueko Kuwana-Miss Tamako Kondo (Denen)
5. Miss Hisako Takiguchi-Miss Mitsuko Iida	5. Miss Toyoko Hayakawa-Miss Michiko Ban

The 17th annual national open championships (Denen courts, Tokyo, September 26—October 7).

Singles : semi-finals

Yamagishi (Keio) beat Tsuruta, 6-1, 6-1, 7-5.

Takamuku beat Kimura, 7-5, 6-2, 6-2.

Finals

Yamagishi beat Takamuku, 6-4, 6-3, 5-7, 6-2.

Doubles : semi-finals

Nakano and Matsumoto beat Abé and Kawachi, 6-2, 6-2, 4-6, 6-4.

Yamagishi and Tsuruta (Keio) beat Tanaka and Takao, 6-2, 6-3, 12-10.

Finals

Yamagishi and Tsuruta (Keio) beat Nakano and Matsumoto, 2-6, 6-1, 6-2, 8-6.

The following list shows the winners in the annual National Tennis Championship tournament which takes place either in Tokyo or Osaka in November every year :

	Singles	Doubles
1923	Takaichi Harada	Tamio Abé and Ryuzo Kawazuma
1924	Tsumio Tawara	Iwao Aoki and Taizu Ukegawa
1925	Tsumio Tawara	Tamio Abé and Kyo Kawajiri
1926	Yoshio Ota	Hisataka Aizawa and Kengo Asoo
1927	Tamio Abé	Tamio Abé and Masanosuké Fukuda
1928	Hajimé Makino	Seiichi Yamagishi and Hikoshichi Shimura
1929	Takeichi Harada	Ichiya Kumagai and Takechi Harada
1930	Jiro Sato	Seiichi Yamagishi and Hikoshichi Shimura
1931	Takao Kuwabara	Seiichi Yamagishi and Yasuo Murakami
1932	Ryosuké Nunoi	Jiro Sato and Minoru Kawaji
1933	Hideo Nishimura	Hideo Nishimura and Jiro Yamagishi
1934	Jiro Yamagishi	Hideo Nishimura and Jiro Yamagishi
1935	Jiro Yamagishi	Hideo Nishimura and Jiro Yamagishi
1936	Jiro Yamagishi	Jiro Yamagishi and Reizo Murakami
1937	Cram (German)	Cram and Henkel (German)
1938	Jiro Yamagishi	Jiro Yamagishi and Yasuo Tsuruta

Swimming

Swimming is one of Japan's major sports that has been handed down from time immemorial. Surrounded on all sides by the sea, the people of the Island Empire had easy access to water. It was but natural that the people became adept in swimming, and swimming masters turned out several distinct styles of swimming, some of which more or less resembled the Western crawl of the present day. Swimming in ancient Japan was a serious subject of study, especially for the fishermen and warriors, to whom swimming was more a practical necessity than a healthful diversion.

The Western crawl was introduced into Japan about 1910. Since then the Japanese have not only copied but developed it into a more perfect stroke. The result was the remarkable showing made by the Japanese mermen at the Tenth Olympiad in Los Angeles in 1932.

As a partial explanation of the swimming ability of the Japanese, it is said that the race is particularly fitted for prowess in swimming. A modern physician once said that the Japanese show better development than other peoples

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1937	1938
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4. Yasumine Kuramitsu (Kwansai U.)	4. Takeo Matsumoto (Hosei U.)
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1930	Jiro Sato	Seiichi Yamagishi and Hikoshichi Shimura
1931	Takao Kuwabara	Seiichi Yamagishi and Yasuo Murakami
1932	Ryosuké Nunoi	Jiro Sato and Minoru Kawaji
1933	Hideo Nishimura	Hideo Nishimura and Jiro Yamagishi
1934	Jiro Yamagishi	Hideo Nishimura and Jiro Yamagishi
1935	Jiro Yamagishi	Hideo Nishimura and Jiro Yamagishi
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these teams have seasonal clashes. Private clubs and training halls are found in all cities of Japan. Experts receive degrees from the Kodokan.

The list of Japan's outstanding jujitsu experts of the Kodokan includes Nagaoka and Isogai, both holders of Kudan, the highest rank Iizuka, Samura, Tabata and Mifuné, all holders of hachidan, a rank next to the highest.

Kendo (Japanese Fencing)

Together with Judo, the study of Kendo was carried on among the Samurai and several hundred forms of fencing were propagated throughout the country. At the present time, there are about 30,000 people who are taking up this sport, if we include those in the middle schools, colleges, universities, and in private life. This sport is to hold the sword with both hands and to stike the face, forearm, or torso of the adversary.

Boxing

Boxing is a Western sport which has earned phenomenal popularity in Japan during the past few years. Earlier, interest was quite negligible. The rapidity with which boxing has become popular in this country owes much to American motion pictures, which introduced it. The hero who gives the villain a black eye and finally knocks him down caught the fancy of the Japanese people, and films recording the major bouts of the past decade, including the famous Dempsy-Tunney fight, also went a long way toward creating interest in boxing here.

Boxing clubs are to be found in all leading cities of Japan. In Tokyo there are about 20 professional clubs which from time to time arrange bouts for the public. There are, of course, champions, both professional and amateur. Foreign boxers are invited to fight Japanese pugilists. Intercollegiate boxing bouts are as popular as professional bouts and draw a heavy attendance, often several thousand men and women. It is only during the past few years, however, that boxing has paid its way.

Records show that boxing was first introduced to Japan by foreign sailors in the early years of the Meiji Era (1868–1912) at Yokohama, where they landed and held a few bouts among themselves. It is also recorded that a foreign sailor had a dispute with a Japanese samurai on the street and knocked him down in the clash which followed. The first boxing club in Japan was organized in 1910 by Mr. Kenji Kano. In about 1920, American motion pictures introduced to Japan many scenes in which boxing was employed. In the meantime, Mr. Yujiro Watanabé, trained by the noted negro fighter, Turner, returned to Japan and established a club of his own to train many youths in the pugilistic game.

Japanese boxers participated in the World Olympic Games for the first time in 1928 at Amsterdam. Of the two entrants, one lost the first tussle, but Kintaro Usuda, a welterweight, won two bouts before losing in the quarter-finals. In the Tenth Olympiad, held at Los Angeles, the Japanese boxers made an insignificant showing, not one winning a single bout. In 1931, the All-Japan Professional Boxing Association was organized to control professional boxing.

The second national boxing championship tournament was held for eight days, beginning December 20, 1935, under the joint auspices of the Japan Professional Boxing Federation and the Tokyo Nichi-Nichi Shimbun. The final bouts were staged at the Kokugikan wrestling bowl, Ryogoku, on January 6, 1936, resulting in only two champions defending their title successfully.

More than 150 boxers, mostly from Tokyo, Nagoya, Kobé, Osaka and Seoul, took part. The championships were contested in five different divisions—flyweight, bantamweight, lightweight and welterweight. The participants were divided into two classes, A and B. 30 leading fighters who appeared as favourites for championship honours were seeded in A class, and all others were included in B class. The New York Commission rules were applied to the tournament.

Results of the final round, a 10-round bout each, were as follows :

Flyweight : Yoichiro Hanada (Imperial Club) defeated Isamu Ito (Imperial Club) on points.

Bantamweight : Umio Gen (Imperial Club) defeated Shoichi Otsu (Kyokuto Club) on points.

Featherweight : Sanekatsu Koike (Dai-Nippon) Knocked out Goro Takatsu (Olympic Club) in the ninth round.

Lightweight : Ichiro Mitsuyama (Imperial) won a technical Knockout over Kotaro Suzuki (Imperial), in the seventh.

Welterweight : Yoshio Natori (Tokyo) defeated Riichi Sato (Toho) on points.

Challenge bouts for three championships, flyweight, bantamweight and featherweight, over 12 rounds each, were held on September 14, 1936, and March 7, 1937, in Tokyo, and were resulted as follows :

Bantamweight—Shoichi Otsu (Kyokuto Club), 116 pounds, challenger, cap-

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Wrestling (Sumo)

Japan's traditional wrestling, known in Japanese as sumo, is another ancient sport of Japan. It is recorded in ancient history that Nomi-no Sukuné and Taéma-no Kehaya wrestled before the Emperor Suinin. In feudal times each lord had under him the strongest wrestler of the province, and he made it a custom to arrange a match with the wrestler of another lord. Such being the case, the wrestler who was strong and won for his lord many laurels enjoyed warm patronage. Public estimation of wrestlers in those days was unusually high. During the Tokugawa era, which extended for nearly 300 years before the Meiji Restoration (1868), a wrestling tournament was organized, and in January and May of each year the best wrestlers of the Kwanto district (Eastern Japan) gathered for it at Ryogoku, Yédo (present Tokyo). Rankings were decided on the basis of the showing made at the tournaments, and the wrestlers exhibited great enthusiasm in their matches. This custom remains even to this day.

Until late in the Meiji Era (1868–1912), Japan had two major wrestling organizations, one in Tokyo and the other in Osaka, but later they merged into one organization. At the end of 1931, however, the Japan Wrestling Association had internal trouble. To be more precise, many wrestlers became dissatisfied with the traditional system of distribution of profits because the retired wrestlers, who acted as officials of the association, took the major part, virtually disregarding the wrestlers on the actives list. The trouble divided the wrestlers into three separate groups. In addition to the one which remains in the association, there were the Shinko and Kakushin groups. The latter two groups adopted new rules for wrestling. Of the two the Kakushin group headed by Tenryu and located in Osaka has survived outside of the traditional group in Tokyo.

The semi-annual tournaments of the Japan Wrestling Association are held at the Kokugi-kan amphitheatre at Ryogoku, Tokyo, in January and May. Each tournament lasts for 11 days. The wrestlers are all professionals, and the majority of them have unusually well-developed bodies. Victory in a typical Japanese wrestling match is a matter of a minute or two. Very often it is a matter of a few seconds. The wrestler who forces his opponent to fall or even let any part of the body above the knee touch the ground or to jump out of the ring is declared by the umpire to be the winner. It is said that there are 48 different ways of defeating an opponent. Wrestling is also practised widely in schools, as are jujitsu and fencing.

The list of principal sumo wrestlers, in May, 1939, follows:

In the order of seniority in the East camp, Futabayama (Yokozuna or Grand Champion); Maédayama (Ozeki, or Champion); Haguroyama (Sekiwake, or Champion No. 2).

In the order of seniority in the West camp, Minanogawa (Yokozuna, or Grand Champion); Kagamiiwa (Ozeki, or Champion); Nayoriiwa (Sekiwake, or Chmpion No. 3).

The winner was Futabayama.

Jujitsu (Judo)

Jujitsu, more popularly known as judo, is more a military art than a sport. In olden times, this art of self-defence was widely practised among the warriors, to whom it came next to kenjutsu, or fencing, in importance. One essential difference between wrestling and jujitsu is in the use of strength. The wrestler as a rule throws down his opponent by his own strength, but the jujitsu expert uses little of his own strength, rather taking advantage of the weight and strength of his opponent in hurling him to the floor. Action is unusually swift, and a good expert of jujitsu can easily dispose of a dozen non-jujitsumen in a fight.

This manly art of self-defence was developed to its present popularity and prosperity chiefly by the late Jigoro Kano, promoter of the Kodokan style of jujitsu and head of the Kodokan, the leading jujitsu training gymnasium in Japan. Since he established the Kodokan in 1886, he has turned out thousands of experts, and these experts in turn have popularized the art throughout the length and breadth of the land. After the Russo-Japanese War, jujitsu became popular in foreign countries, where Japanese instructors were invited to teach it. Some foreign writers became enthusiastic over the art, which they said embodied the spirit of the Japanese race, and even went the length of declaring that to it the Japanese owed in large measure their brilliant victory in the Russo-Japanese War, the first war in which an Oriental nation defeated a major Western Power.

At present jujitsu is practised in all middle schools and other higher schools in Japan for its value in physical and mental culture. Many schools have teams, and as with baseball and tennis

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Rowing

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Prior to its participation in the Berlin Olympic regatta, the Japanese Olympic crew, Tokyo Imperial University eight, caused a sensation in England when it defeated the Thames Rowing Club by a length and half in the finals of the Marlow Grand Challenge Cup race, held on the 1,540-yard course on River Thames on June 20, 1936. The Japanese crew's winning time was 4 minutes 9 seconds, a new course record. It eliminated the Cambridge Varsity crew by three-quarters of a length in the semi-finals on the same day. It was the first rowing victory by Japanese oarsmen abroad.

Later, the Tokyo Imperial University crew took part in the Henley Regatta, started on July 1, and lost to the Zurich crew in the semi-finals on July 3. The Japanese eight lose to Zurich by 6 lengths. Members of the Tokyo Imperial crew were :

Position	Names	Age	Height	Weight
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Stroke	Tadashi Negishi	23	5.6	129
7	Katsu Kashiwabara	21	5.6	137
6	Mondo Sekigawa	22	5.9	160
5	Isamu Mita	22	5.9	140
4	Osamu Kitamura	23	5.6	143
3	Haruyoshi Nakagawa	23	5.7	143
2	Takeo Hori	22	5.6	132
Bow	Yoshiteru Suzuki	24	5.5	130
	Average height		5.6 feet	
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	Coach		Mr. Shuhei Seta	

The national eight-oared championship meet (2,000 metres) was held on the Ogu course on the River Ara, near Tokyo, on September 24, 1938, the Waseda University, the Tokyo Imperial University, the Dōshisha Commercial College, the Tokyo Commercial College and the Keio University crews taking part. The Tokyo Commercial College team in 6 minutes 10 seconds won the championship, beating the Keio University eight by a half length.

The winners in this annual championship meet follow.

1934 Keio University
1935 Waseda University
1936 Tokyo University of Commerce
1937 Tokyo Imperial University
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Horsemanship

Japan's horsemanship won international recognition at the Tenth Olympiad at Los Angeles when Lieutenant Baron Takeichi Nishi, of the Japanese Army, won the Prix des Nations and had the flag of the Rising Sun hoisted. Horsemanship was widely practised by the warriors of the feudal period as a military art. The Japanese army attaches importance to horsemanship and takes great pains in training officers and men. Horsemanship is also gaining popularity among college students and even women. There are at present about 15 clubs in large cities, and many universities and colleges have their own riding societies. Horse racing regained popularity with the use of pari-mutual tickets under strict restrictions in 1923. The Government encourages racing by granting aids. There are more than a score of race clubs throughout the country, most of the races being held semi-annually, that is in the spring and autumn.

Golf

Once a pastime of the wealthy, golf is beginning to become popular with the opening of public courses. Clubs are to be found in practically all large cities and their environs. A group of Japanese golfers visited the United States in 1932 and participated in national and State tournaments. Although they failed to win any title, they made impressive records. The list of golf links follow :

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Name	System	Number of Courses	Prefecture
Tama	Club	18	Tokyo
Komazawa	Public	18	"
Akabané	Club	9	"
Fujigawa	"	18	Chiba
Mutsumi	"	18	"
Abiko	Club	18	"
Kashiwa	Public	9	"
Takanodai	Club	18	"
Sagami	"	18	Kanagawa
Fujisawa	"	18	"
Fujisawa Merry Golf	Club(ladies)	9	"
Hodogaya	Club	18	"
Sengoku-hara	Public	9	"
Asaka	Club	18	Saitama
Kasumigaseki	"	38	"
Kawaguchi	Public	9	"
Kawana Ohsima course	"	18	Shizuoka
Fuji course	Club	18	"
Karuizawa	"	18	Nagano
"	Public	9	"
Ibaragi	Club	18	Osaka
Inagawa	"	18	"
Hirono	Semi-public	18	Hyogo
Takarazuka	Club	18	"
Beppu	Semi-public	9	Oita
Unzen	"	18	Nagasaki
Nagoya	Club	18	Aichi
Zenibako	Club	9	Hokkaido
Hakodaté	"	6	"
Tsukisappu	"	9	"
Doyako	Public	6	"
Asahigawa	Club	6	"
Muroran	"	6	"

The following list shows the winners in the annual National Open Golf Championship tournament :

1927	Rokuro Akaboshi
1928	Rokuzo Asami
1929	Tomekichi Miyamoto
1930	Tomekichi Miyamoto
1931	Rokuzo Asami
1932	Tomekichi Miyamoto
1933	Kamekichi Nakamura
1934	Abandoned by storm
1935	Tomekichi Miyamoto
1936	Tomekichi Miyamoto
1937	Seisui Chin
1938	Mampuku Rin

National Amateur Championship tournament

1921	Zenzaburo Tanaka
1922	Komei Otani
1923	Abandoned by the great earthquake
1924	Hajime Kawasaki
1925	Hajime Kawasaki
1926	Shiro Akaboshi
1927	Shunkichi Nomura
1928	Shiro Akaboshi
1929	Brown
1930	Rokuro Akaboshi
1931	Kyoichi Nitta
1932	Kihei Narimiya
1933	Naoyasu Nabeshima
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1932	Montess
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1934	Tomekichi Miyamoto
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Toda beat Inoue on the Takarazuka course on September 15.

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Introduced here only a decade or so ago, skiing has become extremely popular. Japan abounds in good grounds in the northern districts, which accounts for the rapid strides skiing has made. Numerous women are taking to it of recent years. In 1929, Hannes Schneider, prominent Austrian skiier, visited Japan and exhibited his technique at various skiing slopes at Akakura, Myoko, etc., making a great impression among Japan's ski lovers.

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ATHLETIC PLACE OF COLLEGIAN SCHOOLS IN TOKYO DISTRICT IN 1938

	1.	2.	3.
Baseball	Meiji	Keio	Waseda
Rugby	Meiji	Waseda, Keio, Imperial	
Skating	Meiji	Waseda	Keio
Boxing	Meiji	Waseda	Keio
Wrestling	Meiji	Waseda	Senshū
Horsemanship	Meiji	Imperial	Waseda
Handball	Meiji	Nippon Athletic	Keio
Golf	Meiji	Imperial	Keio
American Football	Meiji	Waseda	Keio
Tennis	Keio	Waseda	Imperial
Soccer	Keio	Imperial	Waseda
Swimming	Keio	Nihon	Waseda
Water-polo	Keio	Waseda	Nihon
Fencing	Keio	Tokyo Higher Normal	
Bicycle race	Keio	Hosei	Meiji
Hockey	Keio	Waseda	Meiji
Yacht	Keio	Waseda	Kwanto Gakuin
Diving	Waseda	Nihon	Keio
Skiing	Waseda	Meiji	Hokkaido Imp.
Volley-ball	Waseda	Bunri, Keio	
Archery	Waseda	Agricultural C., Keio	
Shooting	Waseda	Imperial	Meiji
Ice Hockey	Rikkyo	Waseda	Meiji
Basketball	Rikkyo	Waseda	Imperial
Ping-pong	Rikkyo	Waseda	Keio
Sumō (Japanese wrestling)	Takushoku	Meiji	Waseda
Track and field	Bunri	Nihon	
Boat race	Commercial	Keio, Waseda	

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CHAPTER XXXVII

AMUSEMENTS AND CALENDAR OF ANNUAL EVENTS

Amusements

The Drama

Japan has a drama all her own. The popular stage is the "kabuki", essentially a product of past ages, which, with its enchanting beauty and gorgeous colour, often captivates the fancy of foreign visitors. The kabuki drama is not old as age goes in Japan. It sprang spontaneously from the people, the tradesmen, the artisans and others who were excluded from the pleasures enjoyed by the aristocrats and samurai in olden days; but its forbears may be recognized in the stage art of Japan prior to its birth.

The Origin The religious dance that was the precursor of drama goes back through centuries to the mythological age of the gods, when the great Sun Goddess, offended by her brother, retired to a deep cavern, casting the world into darkness. After trying in vain to entice her from her retreat, the other gods finally hit upon the scheme of flashing a metal mirror into the cave and of jumping and shrieking before its mouth, whereupon the Sun Goddess came forth, the mouth of the cave was sealed, light was restored to the world and the dance was added to civilization.

For centuries the dance remained, as in other countries, a religious rite, being performed in Shinto shrines by virgins. With the incoming of Chinese culture Chinese music came into favour and was introduced into the Imperial Court. At the time of the establishment of the first Shogunate, that at Kamakura in the 13th century, the Buddhist semi-dances and semi-drama made a great appeal to the warrior class, and from them was evolved the "no" drama, in which both actor and playwright are subservient to interpretation. The No is a combination of music, posturing and dialogue, severely bound by conventions, with but little action, appealing to the ear and intellect rather than to the eye. The No found warm patronage among the warriors and feudal lords, continuing to hold its own with them until the Meiji Restoration, when it was identified with the then unpopular Shogunate and suffered a decline which has only recently been mitigated.

But the common people had no part in either the religious or the No dances, not even appearing as spectators. These were the exclusive prerogative of the upper classes.

Popular Stage Appears It was during the early part of the long Tokugawa Shogunate that the popular stage in Japan came to birth, flowered and bore fruit. An era of peace was ushered in, and the Empire began to prosper in a material way. Not only the kabuki, but the ukiyoyé, or woodblock colour print, and other genre date from this period. The people had leisure, money and the inclination for pleasure. It was but natural that forms for providing that pleasure should follow.

The germs of the popular drama may be found in society prior to this period, but they had not attained much development. About 370 years before, one of the Shinto shrine dancers, O-Kuni, performed on a public street in the capital city of Kyoto, after which she wandered from place to place for the entertainment of the people. Others followed her lead, until the government decreed that thereafter only men might give public entertainments, owing to the moral laxity which had ensued. The name kabuki was first applied to this pioneer form of dancing. Although the Chinese ideographs forming the word mean literally "singing and dancing art," Japanese scholars say that its true derivation is from an obsolete Japanese verb meaning "to be playful."

The Kabuki The early kabuki actors were social outcasts, or kawara-mono (river-bed folks), but as the aristocracy learned of the new art and its charms they secretly slipped away from their palaces and homes to enjoy it. Gradually, as in other nations, the moral and social level of the stage was raised, until today there is no more social prejudice against the actor in Japan than in America or Europe. The late Emperor Meiji's attendance of a performance by a troupe of kabuki actors at the home of the late Marquis K. Inoué improved

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Tennis	Keio	Waseda	Imperial
Soccer	Keio	Imperial	Waseda
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Yacht	Keio	Waseda	Kwanto Gakuin
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Sumō (Japanese wrestling)	Takushoku	Meiji	Waseda
Track and field	Bunri	Nihon	
Boat race	Commercial	Keio, Waseda	

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dom, if ever, are long runs given, no matter how popular a particular programme may prove, although the pieces which prove popular are repeated from time to time as long as they hold public interest.

The Typical Programme A typical kabuki programme has three to five offerings of different types and lasts six hours, beginning at 4 o'clock in the afternoon and ending at 10 o'clock. The majority of the spectators take dinner in restaurants in the theatre during intervals. Tickets cost from 50 sen to as much as ¥7 or ¥8 a seat. All the playhouses are of Western style, at least inside, with chairs provided. Seats may be reserved 10 days in advance.

It is wrong to assume that Japanese actors specialize in producing classics alone. From time to time they insert modern plays between those of bygone generations on the programmes. In the past they have even staged plays from Shakespeare with marked success. Some actors specialize in modern plays, such as Masao Inouyé, Takéo Kawai, Rokuro Kitamura and they appear with actresses, such as Yaéko Mizutani, as the latter are essential for the realistic type of plays, plays which are true to life and without the incongruity and exaggeration which characterize the kabuki.

A "little theatre" movement in Japan was started about 15 years ago, led by the late Kaoru Osanai, prominent dramatist and stage director. The group which performed at the Tsukiji Little Theatre, Tokyo, produced hundreds of Western plays in Japanese translation, but their performances aroused the interest of only a limited section of the intellectuals. The unexpected death of Mr. Osanai and the business depression that followed dealt a crushing blow to the movement and the company split up into small and unimportant groups.

The Revue The revue, a product of the West, is quite in vogue at present in Japan. Imported only a few years ago, it appealed to modern-minded youth, and several revue organizations sprang up. The largest troupe is that of the Shochiku Theatrical Company, with several hundred girls. Another influential organization is the Takarazuka Girls' Opera Troupe, with headquarters at Takarazuka, a hot-spring resort between Osaka and Kobé. It enjoys the distinction of being the oldest in Japan, having been organized nearly two decades ago. The performances of the latter group include operas and revues and are generally more refined than those of the Shochiku Troupe, and they find warm patronage among young girls. Costumes and scenery in the revues are both Japanese and foreign. The Shochiku group gives occasional performances in Tokyo and Osaka, and the Takarazuka organization set up a new Tokyo Takarazuka Theatre in 1933 at Hibiya, Tokyo.

The Odori Differing entirely from this type of foreign-style performances is the "odori", or Japanese dance, as given by the geisha, the native dancing girls. Kyoto, the ancient capital, boasts the best organization, which gives the "Miyako Odori" each April, better known to foreigners as the Cherry Dance of Kyoto. In Tokyo, the "Azuma Odori" (dance of eastern capital) is given at cherry-blossom time by the geisha of the Shimbashi district of the city, who also perform in the autumn, always in their own theatre, the Shimbashi Embujo, which is of Western style. Geisha dances can be enjoyed at private parties at any time of the year.

No Drama

The No drama was as aristocratic as the kabuki drama was plebeian, and even now its performance and enjoyment are practically restricted to the upper classes. There are very few theatres or private houses, if any, where strangers are allowed to view No upon payment of admission. Most No enthusiasts form clubs, and members and their friends see the productions. In feudal Japan, the No was the principal form of entertainment among the aristocrats and the warrior class. It was often given in the presence of the Emperor, and at one time it was the custom to invite the common people to performances given in commemoration of some happy event by the Tokugawa Shoguns, who used the No on all ceremonial occasions.

The Origin and Stage The origin of the No dates back to the early part of the 15th century. Two men, Kiyotsugu Kan-nami and his son, Motokiyo Séami, revolutionized the "Saru-gaku", an ancient form of dance, consisting of juggling feats and comic remarks with actions to suit, with the result that the No in its present form was developed. Not only did these two men build on what was best in their own saru-gaku, but they drew freely from the "dengaku", ancient music, which had much in common with the saru-gaku. What was graceful in them was ennobled to profundity in the No, while their comic elements developed into the "kyogen", comic performances, usually given on the same programme with No pieces.

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their status immeasurably.

The introduction of the samisen, or three-stringed guitar, into Japan from the Loochoo Islands constitutes another high-water mark for the drama, for in time the musical compositions for the No were adapted to this instrument of the streets, and there followed the puppet show, which has survived to this day. These marionette theatres called to their aid some of the best talent in the country, musicians, playwrights and puppet manipulators collaborating in the work. The kabuki emerged from the street dancing and the puppet show and yet as a separate and distinct art of a high order.

The kabuki is found to embrace four general classifications : historical dramas, plays of everyday life, fantastic, imaginative improvisations, and music-posture plays or dances. It is often difficult, however, to assign any particular drama to one of these four classifications, for the play with historical characters may also be a play dealing with their very human emotions.

The Technique The drama is primarily a picture for the eye, although dialogue is carried on and an orchestra-chorus seated on the stage plays very much the same rôle as was played by the chorus in classical Greek drama, aiding the action with explanations to the audience. The life and thought, costumes and manners of all classes of feudal society are well illustrated on the kabuki stage, while skilful colour combinations in costumes, stage architecture and furniture tend to carry the spectators into a land of imagination and romance. In dramatic ability it takes rank with that of any country. In stage settings and mechanics it has much to teach the rest of the world. Its gorgeousness of costuming and pageantry finds no equal. One of the features of the Japanese theatre is the hana michi, or flowery way, which usually consists of two long narrow platforms on the same level which stretch through the audience from the stage to the rear of the auditorium. They are chosen by the actors for their best entrances and exists and are extremely effective when processions are used.

The Kabuki Actors The profession of kabuki actors is in most cases hereditary. Sons of actors succeed their fathers in the profession, and actors without sons usually adopt the sons of other actors or their best disciples and give them the stage names of their families. Kikugoro Onoyé, one of the most accomplished actors, is the sixth Kikugoro Onoyé, while the late Danjuro Ichikawa represented the ninth generation of the Ichikawa family. Kabuki actors are trained from childhood and because of the difficult conventions to which they must conform few men can become actors after the age of 20.

In kabuki proper, all rôles are taken by men. The onnagata, or woman impersonators, devote years of study to femininity, and in most cases they are more consistently feminine than women.

In comparison with screen actors, kabuki actors are very well paid. Though the matter of salaries is kept a strict secret, it is well known that a high-class kabuki actor is given more than ¥10,000 a month, but in cinema circles very few actors obtain as much as ¥1,000. Stage actors are also held in much higher esteem by the general public than screen actors. They still live and work according to the family system. A high-class actor has a troupe, all the members of which are his disciples. Only the head of the troupe receives wages directly from the theatre, and he in turn divides the money among his disciples. Other feudal customs also survive among them.

Tokyo is the dramatic centre of the country. Practically all first-class kabuki actors live here, though there are a few in Osaka. They travel all over the country from time to time. The more noted ones in Tokyo are Utayemon Nakamura, Uzayémon Ichimura, Kikugoro Onoyé, Sadanji Ichikawa, Koshiro Matsumoto, Kichiyémon Nakamura, Sojuro Sawamura, Ennosuké Ichikawa and Mitsugoro Bando. The noted Osaka actors include Enjaku Jitsukawa, Fukusuké Nakamura and Kaisha Nakamura.

On the business side, kabuki is controlled entirely by a single commercial organization, the Shochiku Theatrical Company. This company not only has all the first-class actors under contract but owns or leases all of the principal playhouses throughout the country. The largest and most famous theatre is the Kabuki Theatre, commonly known as the Kabuki-za, situated back of the Ginza, Tokyo. Other well-known theatres in the capital are the Tokyo Theatre, Meiji-za, Shin Kabuki-za and Shimbashi Embujo. The Imperial Theatre, which once earned fame as a modern playhouse, has been converted into a cinema house. Osaka has the Naka-za and Naniwa-za, where Kabuki programmes are given practically throughout the year. The theatres change programmes once a month, and very sel-

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dom, if ever, are long runs given, no matter how popular a particular programme may prove, although the pieces which prove popular are repeated from time to time as long as they hold public interest.

The Typical Programme A typical kabuki programme has three to five offerings of different types and lasts six hours, beginning at 4 o'clock in the afternoon and ending at 10 o'clock. The majority of the spectators take dinner in restaurants in the theatre during intervals. Tickets cost from 50 sen to as much as ¥7 or ¥8 a seat. All the playhouses are of Western style, at least inside, with chairs provided. Seats may be reserved 10 days in advance.

It is wrong to assume that Japanese actors specialize in producing classics alone. From time to time they insert modern plays between those of bygone generations on the programmes. In the past they have even staged plays from Shakespeare with marked success. Some actors specialize in modern plays, such as Masao Inouyé, Takéo Kawai, Rokuro Kitamura and they appear with actresses, such as Yaéko Mizutani, as the latter are essential for the realistic type of plays, plays which are true to life and without the incongruity and exaggeration which characterize the kabuki.

A "little theatre" movement in Japan was started about 15 years ago, led by the late Kaoru Osanai, prominent dramatist and stage director. The group which performed at the Tsukiji Little Theatre, Tokyo, produced hundreds of Western plays in Japanese translation, but their performances aroused the interest of only a limited section of the intellectuals. The unexpected death of Mr. Osanai and the business depression that followed dealt a crushing blow to the movement and the company split up into small and unimportant groups.

The Revue The revue, a product of the West, is quite in vogue at present in Japan. Imported only a few years ago, it appealed to modern-minded youth, and several revue organizations sprang up. The largest troupe is that of the Shochiku Theatrical Company, with several hundred girls. Another influential organization is the Takarazuka Girls' Opera Troupe, with headquarters at Takarazuka, a hot-spring resort between Osaka and Kobé. It enjoys the distinction of being the oldest in Japan, having been organized nearly two decades ago. The performances of the latter group include operas and revues and are generally more refined than those of the Shochiku Troupe, and they find warm patronage among young girls. Costumes and scenery in the revues are both Japanese and foreign. The Shochiku group gives occasional performances in Tokyo and Osaka, and the Takarazuka organization set up a new Tokyo Takarazuka Theatre in 1933 at Hibiya, Tokyo.

The Odori Differing entirely from this type of foreign-style performances is the "odori", or Japanese dance, as given by the geisha, the native dancing girls. Kyoto, the ancient capital, boasts the best organization, which gives the "Miyako Odori" each April, better known to foreigners as the Cherry Dance of Kyoto. In Tokyo, the "Azuma Odori" (dance of eastern capital) is given at cherry-blossom time by the geisha of the Shimbashi district of the city, who also perform in the autumn, always in their own theatre, the Shimbashi Embujo, which is of Western style. Geisha dances can be enjoyed at private parties at any time of the year.

No Drama

The No drama was as aristocratic as the kabuki drama was plebeian, and even now its performance and enjoyment are practically restricted to the upper classes. There are very few theatres or private houses, if any, where strangers are allowed to view No upon payment of admission. Most No enthusiasts form clubs, and members and their friends see the productions. In feudal Japan, the No was the principal form of entertainment among the aristocrats and the warrior class. It was often given in the presence of the Emperor, and at one time it was the custom to invite the common people to performances given in commemoration of some happy event by the Tokugawa Shoguns, who used the No on all ceremonial occasions.

The Origin and Stage The origin of the No dates back to the early part of the 15th century. Two men, Kiyotsugu Kan-nami and his son, Motokiyo Séami, revolutionized the "Saru-gaku", an ancient form of dance, consisting of juggling feats and comic remarks with actions to suit, with the result that the No in its present form was developed. Not only did these two men build on what was best in their own saru-gaku, but they drew freely from the "dengaku", ancient music, which had much in common with the saru-gaku. What was graceful in them was ennobled to profundity in the No, while their comic elements developed into the "kyogen", comic performances, usually given on the same programme with No pieces.

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Unlike any other form of drama, the No is performed on a wooden stage of regulation size, built above the ground, 18 feet square, open on three sides, with a narrow extension on one side for the singers and another at the back of the stage for the musicians and attendants. To that rear extension is attached aslant a passage called a bridge. The players appear from under the curtain, to one end of which the passage slightly slopes down. The stage, too, is very slightly tilted to the front.

The No pieces, numbering more than 250, are repeated over and over again, but the interest of the spectators apparently never wanes. The pieces are classified into five groups for convenience: (1) "wakino", which generally deal with Shinto or Buddhist deities; (2) "shuramono", which commonly deal with ghosts of warriors; (3) "kazuramono", with noble ladies acting the main parts; (4) "genzaimono", or present-day pieces, dealing with various manifestations of human nature; (5) pieces dealing with demons or goblins as subjects, or those of congratulatory nature with gay and joyous elements.

For each programme of the No, which generally lasts a good part of a day, one from each of the above five classes is given in the order mentioned, with a "kyogen" between each and generally a dance in ordinary dress in addition. The whole programme is preceded by a piece called "okina", which is held in special reverence; the person acting its chief character is the okina, an old man.

The Construction The construction of the No piece is by no means uniform, but very often it is as follows: A "waki," who plays the secondary rôle, generally a monk or a Minister of State, first appears and tells who he is. Then he walks about the stage a while, singing, to suggest that he is travelling. Coming to a standstill, he announces his arrival at a certain famous spot and takes his place by the post at the front righthand corner facing the stage. Then the "mayé jité" (shité), the principal character in the first appearance, comes in the form of a farmer, fisherman or priest, describing the scenery of the place and telling of heroes connected with it, or relating the origin of the temple or shrine as the case may require, thus furnishing the audience with a necessary background to the play. The "mayé jité" then suddenly retires from view. He was in reality a Shinto or Buddhist deity, or the ghost of a warrior, in disguise. While the "waki" is startled by this sudden disappearance, there come on the stage common farmers or wood-choppers who give in plain language, spoken more or less in the ordinary way, all detailed information concerning the place, generally reiterating what has alreary been chanted or intoned by the "mayé jité," and then retire. This allows necessary time for the principal character to change for his reappearance. While waiting, the "waki sings," indicating a lapse of time. The song ended, the "nochi jité," the principal character in the latter appearance, in proper form and attire as a Shinto or Buddhist deity or the spirit of a hero, comes to the stage and dances as though wandering at night, revealing some spiritual attributes. In words and in action he recounts his bravery, his death struggle, or his suffering in the underworld, asking for the prayer of the "waki" for the peaceful repose of his soul. The "shité" tells his story as he performs, or he merely dances without any chanting. Generally there is a chorus who intone some verses either alone or with the performers. In the No drama, the action is symbolic, stately and ennobling.

Generally several persons sitting on the side extension sing either in chorus, by themselves, or together with the performer. On the rear extension there are usually four musicians who play on the "fué" or flute, the tsuzumi, which is a small drum struck with the tips of the fingers and resting on the shoulder, the ohkawa, a slightly larger drum struck on the knee also with the tips of the fingers, and the drum beaten with two sticks.

The accessories used on the stage in connection with the play are very simple. A fan is much in evidence in the dance, the studied use of which is very effective with the manipulation of the dancer's big sleeves. The costumes used in the No are marvels of textile fabrics, refined taste being revealed in bold yet harmonious designs and colours. Above all, the mask to be worn by the principal character and the assistant is a very important part of the No performance. There have been great masters among carvers of No masks in his feudal Japan many of whose works still remain.

Six Schools Ever since the great reformation at the beginning of the 15th century, the No has had four main acknowledged schools or houses: Kwanzé, Komparu, Hosho and Kongo, all of which are still thriving. Later, another school, Kita, won official recognition, while still another, Uméwaka, also has

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many followers, the variation practiced by each school being but slight. On the whole, the No performance may well be compared to a masterful Oriental picture in monochrome, both being guided by highly idealistic aims and artistic aspirations with many points in common, possessing alike great impelling qualities that thrill the devotee but sometimes weary the uninitiated.

The Doll Theatre and Joruri

Japan's doll theatre, the precursor of the kabuki drama, has suffered so much decadence that now the Bunraku-za in Osaka is the only doll troupe of its kind in the country. The plays are kabuki in miniature. Each doll, slightly smaller than life-size, is held by a manipulator on the stage and made to act. The manipulators, who appear in ceremonial robes, put life and spirit into the wooden figures, and they have world fame for their dexterity.

The "joruri (Gidayu)", a dramatic recitation, is not only inseparable from the doll show, but enhances its effect. The joruri reciter usually sits on a raised platform at the right corner of the stage and there sings and recites to the accompaniment of the samisen, the player of which sits beside him. Not seldom several reciters and samisen players perform in unison, the reciters speaking their lines for the dolls. Both manipulators and singers are trained from childhood. The joruri recital often accompanies the kabuki performance. The joruri or Gidayu is also sometimes recited independently of the doll show or the kabuki.

Yosé, or Story-Telling

Professional story-telling is a distinct Japanese art, which, defying the advent of the movies, still survives in Tokyo and elsewhere. When there were no movies, story-telling was one of the few common forms of amusement. The houses where the story-tellers perform are called yosé, and are a sort of variety hall, where singing, juggling, dancing and other entertainments are offered in addition to story-telling.

Today a score of story-tellers' halls can still be found in Tokyo. Unlike theatres for the drama and the cinema, they are usually Japanese-style frame houses, with quite modest advertisements covering their fronts. Inside, a yosé consists of one large mat-floored room, with a small mat-floored stage attached. All the guests sit on cushions spread on the matting, and the performers sit on the matting of the stage. Usually the house has a balcony with more expensive seats.

The majority of the story-tellers, who are called hanashika, specialize in comic monologue. Those who specialize in stories of heroism and adventure are called koshakushi, or romance readers, and regarded as of a different class. The hanashika use a lot of punning, irony and sarcasm, and each story has a twist at the end. Translated into English, their talk loses almost all meaning, for it is the manner of telling that is important.

Cha-no-Yu

Japanese people drink tea during and after each meal and it is customary to serve a cup of tea to callers at any time of the day. Cha-no-yu or tea-ceremony is, however, a peculiarly artistic way of serving tea as an entertainment for guests according to strictly-formulated rules of etiquette. A fine powder of choice green tea is used for it. The powdered tea is put in a bowl much larger than an ordinary tea cup and hot water is poured over it, and the mixture is beaten by means of a bamboo whisk. A party of guests are invited to enjoy this drink. They assemble in the "yoritsuki," a special waiting room for the tea party. The host appears and conducts them to the tea-room. They walk along a garden path to the tea-room, which is about 20 feet away. At a basin filled with fresh water they wash their hands before entering the tea-room. This is usually four and a half mats in area, about three metres square, and is provided with a stationary hearth or portable firebrazier for the kettle. The entrance to the tea-room is so small that the guests have to stoop to enter.

On entering the room each guest kneels in front of the tokonoma or alcove, and admires the kakémono or hanging picture or inscription on the wall of the alcove, and the tiny incense-holder on a side shelf. Then a meal is served as soon as the guests are properly seated. It is called "kaiséki" and is of the simplest dishes. The host waits on them himself not eating with the guests. After the "kaiséki" sweets are served, the first part of the ceremony is concluded.

Then at the host's suggestion the guests retire to the waiting-room or to another place where a bench is provided. A gong announces that the host is ready to serve the tea above mentioned. The formality of purification at the basin is repeated and the guests enter the room. The hanging scroll is gone and a flower arranged in a

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cinema theatres in Japan was as follows:

Presentation of	Japanese films	1,257
,,	,, foreign films	50
,,	,, newsreels	32
,,	,, mixed films	213
Total		1,552

In 1937 paid audiences at the permanent picture theatres in Japan numbered more than 200,000,000 and this number is on the increase. The government institutions, schools, newspaper companies, and the like, are giving free shows for purposes of propaganda, education and entertainment. Thus, the utilization of movies has been increasing year by year; 50 thousand free shows were given in 1937. Of the permanent theatres those showing cultural and news films in February, 1938, represented something like 60 per cent of the total; and they are also constantly increasing in numbber.

Home and Imported Films According to the report of the Police Bureau, Home Ministry, the number of new films inspected by the Bureau in 1937 was 41,560 with an aggregate length of 25,684,000 metres.

HOME AND IMPORTED FILMS INSPECTED in 1937

	No. of New films	Aggregate Length (In metres)
Japanese films	37,303	21,779,000
American films	3,288	2,881,000
European films	969	1,018,000
Total	41,560	25,684,000

The largest and most influential motion picture producing and distributing companies in Japan are the Shochiku Cinematograph Company, Ltd., Shinko Eiga Company, Ltd., and Japan Motion Picture Company, Ltd., the last being better known as Nikkatsu for short. Shochiku manages or supplies with pictures about 600 theatres, or nearly half of the total in Japan, and all the rest are either managed or supplied with pictures by the other two and by foreign, especially American, companies. Japanese pictures in general are produced by distributing companies.

With regard to imported films, the number of those distributed in 1937 were approximately 800, of which long fiction films were about 300. However, in consequence of the restrictions put upon imports following the outbreak of the present Affair, the number decreased to 144 in 1938. Of these, films from America were 103, from France 10, from Germany 13, from England 12, from Italy 3, from Poland 1, from Spain 1, and from other countries 1.

The distribution of the American films is made directly by American companies through their branches in Japan. The number of American films distributed in 1938 classified according to the producers was as follows; the Paramount 10, the Metropolitan 16, the Universal 6, the R.K.O. 18, the Columbia 20, the United 8, Warner 7, and the Fox 9. The distribution of European films is made by Japanese agents, such as the Towa Commercial and the Sanei Companies. As compared with those from America, pictures from Europe are insignificant in number. Owing, however, to the Japanese German and Japanese-Italian Cultural Agreements and to the Commercial Agreement between Germany and Manchoukuo, it is quite likely that in the future a considerable number of German and Italian films will be imported to Japan.

Cinema in 1937-38 Increased importance of the cinema. With the increased importance of Japan's position in international political affairs with the conclusion of the German-Japanese Anti-Comintern pact as its turning point, the need has been felt of introducing anew to overseas countries life as it really is in Japan. This is due not only to a desire on the part of Japan to make herself better understood abroad, but is also attributable to the increasing desire among oversea peoples to acquire a sounder knowledge of present-day Japan. The first picture produced to fill this need was Dr. Arnold Fanck's "New Earth", of which an English and a German version were made and exported to America and Europe. This was followed by "Picturesque Japan", produced with the aid of Tsuguji Fujita, the noted painter, and "Glimpses of New Japan" by Shigéyoshi Suzuki. The former was a highly artistic production, but because it was unconventional both in technique and the subjects treated, the picture was criticized as conveying an inadequate impression of Japan. It was, nevertheless, passed unanimously by the examining committee and exported as a valuable artistic contribution. It may be said that the exportation of artistic Japanese films such as "Picturesque Japan" is significant of the general

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ly indebted to tea-masters and devotees for its high taste.

Flower Arrangement

Japanese flower arrangement is the art of arranging flowers and leaves in different kinds of vases so as to meet the requirements of Japanese taste in decorating their sitting rooms and parlours. The raison d'être of this Japanese floral art is the satisfaction of their instinctive love of naure by a scheme of decoration best fitted for Japanese interval architecture. The beginning and development of Japanese flower arrangement, therefore naturally corresponds to the history of Japanese architecture and way of living.

The Japanese style of architecture which had completely emerged from the Chinese influence in the 14th century, and the comparatively peaceful life of the people in the 14th century under the Ashikaga régime, prepared favourable conditions for the development of flower arrangement which played an important part in enriching the tasteful life of the upper classes of people such as Court nobles, warrior lords and monks.

The Ginkakuji Temple or Silver Pavilion, which was built in the latter half of the 15th century, in the outskirts of Kyoto, is said to have been the birthplace of Japanese flower arrangement as an art, as well as that of the tea ceremony. The Ashikaga Shogun Yoshimasa who lived at the Ginkakuji had several attendants, "chabōzu" or "tea-priests" who looked after the tea ceremony and flower arrangement for him. Among these attendants of Yoshimasa the one who was best versed in the art of flower arrangement was Sōami. One of the oldest documents on the floral art "Gojō Shikimoku" is attributed to his authorship, and it is most likely that the primitive flower arrangement which had been already in vogue took a definite shape with Sōami and schools of the art began to be established. After Sōami came Ikénobō priest of a temple called Rokkakudo, also located in Kyoto, who later so distinguished himself as priest and master of flower arrangement that he became the founder of the priesthood at Rokkakudō and the school of floral art, both bearing his name. The Ikénobō school of floral art has existed for more than four hundred years and is proud of having the longest tradition and probably the largest number of students throughout the country.

During the 17th century the Emperor Gomizunowo took great interest in the floral art and courtiers, nobles and high officials gathered together at court for the study and occasional exhibitions of flower arrangement. A hall was provided in the court for the tea ceremony to which guests were invited and an exhibition of flowers arranged in vases by different hands was often held for them in a building which was temporarily built for that purpose in the palace garden. Such exhibitions of flower arrangement were held frequently during the following centuries.

There have developed many schools of flower arrangement in Japan during the past four centuries, but they may be roughly grouped into two; one is the "rikkwa" group which is more formal in style and the other is the "nagéiré" group which is more natural. The former was in the past regarded as the orthodox style whereas the latter was considered heretic or auxiliary. But to-day both styles have equal standing among the students of the art, each having characteristic merits and uses of its own.

In Japan girls are taught the floral art in schools and under private tutors as one of the accomplishments for ladies and carefully keep their certificates of the art in the "tansu" or Japanese chest-of-drawers for keeping kimono, one of the indispensable pieces of furniture which they take to their new home at their wedding. Japanese ladies find occasions for escaping from their household duties and chatting with their friends in attending flower arrangement parties, for as a rule they rarely go out for picnics or to dances. Men, young and old, occasionally take up the study of the floral art, and though they are much fewer in number than the other sex they occupy the position of leadership in almost all schools of the art. It is no longer a monopoly of the aristocracy, and visitors to Japanese homes are charmed with the sight of flowers and leaves artificially yet most naturally arranged in vases put on the "tokonoma" or alcove shelves. On festival days passers-by are entertained by exhibitions of flowers most skilfully arranged and set in rows in the front rooms of houses facing the street. Modern department stores attract customers with special flower arrangement exhibitions.

The Cinema

Cinema theatres are to be found in all parts of Japan, both in cities or hamlets, accommodating from 400 to 3,000 persons. According to the statistics taken on July 22, 1938, the number of

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and descriptive accounts of athletic events.

Very little amusement is given in the daytime. The first radio entertainment of the day starts at 12:05 o'clock in the afternoon. It is usually in a lighter vein and may be Japanese or foreign music or a drama. If there is a major athletic event in the afternoon, a descriptive account usually goes on the air. After this there will be no entertainment of any kind, except on Sundays, until 8 o'clock, when the principal amusement programme begins. Frequently, however, the children's programme, given at 6:30 o'clock for 30 minutes, has fairly good entertainment. From 8 to 9:30 o'clock entertainment of all sorts is offered. Very rarely does the programme extend beyond 10 o'clock.

Programme and Listeners The Japan Radio Broadcasting Association distributed 1,233,906 sheets of enquiries to its subscribers all over Japan in 1932, out of which 358,039 answers came, and a résumé of the investigation was given out in April, 1934. In the questionnaire there was a column in which the listeners were requested to state what item or items of the programme they most liked and the answers given in percentage were as follows :

Item of Programme	Percentage of Listeners
News and reports	
General news	91.2
Time signal	77.5
Weather forecast	75.8
Radio gymnastics	48.0
Public announcements	42.3
Daily menues	31.0
Industrial news	30.8
Commodity prices	27.8
Stock-market news	23.2
Employment agency	11.0
New cocoon price	8.2
Exposition of current topics	29.4
Educational	
General and moral	28.1
Literature, arts, etc.	22.3
Physical education and hygiene	22.0
The home and women	20.7
Science	13.0
Foreign languages	9.9
Amusements	
Comic stories	57.6
Naniwa-bushi (mostly tragic stories)	57.5
Radio dramas	51.2
Movie picture dramas and stories	49.3
Samurai stories	48.0
Kabuki	43.4
Biwa (Story chanted with biwa music)	39.6
Gidayu	33.4
Foreign and Japanese music combined	33.4
Japanese harp, bamboo flute, and samisen	30.0
Nagauta (long chanting)	28.3
Modern Japanese music	24.4
Opera	24.2
Brass music	22.6
Orchestra	22.6
Vocal solos	22.0
Short songs (utazawa and kouta)	22.0
Shinnai (a kind of jōruri)	20.2
Kiyomoto	19.0
Piano, violin solos and duets	18.7
Tokiwazu (a branch of joruri)	18.6
Chorus	17.6
Jazz	17.3
Yokyoku, kyogen (the No)	14.5
Old Yedo music	8.5
Young folk's hours	
Nursery rhymes	60.1
Short songs	57.0
Dramas for the young folks	52.5
Music	51.5
Stories	49.0

(For the latest development of broadcasting see Chapter XXIV Communications, Radio.)

Horse Racing

It was after the Russo-Japanese War that the import of thoroughbred studhorses and horse racing began to be encouraged for the improvement of horses in Japan. As the result a craze for horse racing suddenly set in. At that time pari-mutuel tickets were sold at ¥5, and unlimited dividends and sweeps were allowed. The result was that many people became bankrupt and abuses were too apparent, so that in 1909 horse races at which pari-mutuel tickets were sold were prohibited. But it soon became evident again that the decline of horse racing had an adverse effect on the improvement and propagation of horses in the country. Ten years later, the Horse Race Bill passed through Parliament and became law in 1923. The law fixed the price of pari-mutuel ticket at ¥20 a sheet, payment being made on wins only, not on places. The number of pari-mutuel tickets a person may buy was limited to one

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recognition of the importance of the cinema.

Recent progress in Japanese motion picture enterprises, particularly in the production of pictures is shown by the fact that of the raw films consumed in 1937, negatives totalled approximately 6,000,000 metres and positives 24,000,000 metres and that the number of major studios is 18 with more than 5,000 regular employees, including actors and actresses.

The enterprises are mostly in the hands of the Shochiku, Nippon Katsudo, Shinko Cinema and other five major motion pictures companies, capitalized totally at ¥63,471,250, and they are engaged mainly in producing so-called show-pictures, such as fiction and dramatic pictures. The recently enacted Motion Picture Law will further stimulate activities along this line.

What has made enormous strides during these two years of the China Affair, however, is the production of newsreels, which is exclusively undertaken by the Asahi, Nichinichi and Yomiuri, leading Japanese dailies, and the Domei, the most important news agency in Japan. The number of reels produced in this field during 1938 amounted to 554, of which 386 were talkies, 127 explanatory films (so-called neo-super talkies), 16 sound films (recording of music only), and 25 non-talking films.

1938 Amusement in Tokyo The year 1938 showed a golden age in the amusement field. According to the statistics recently taken by the Metropolitan Police Board of Tokyo, the total entrance to the movie houses, yosé houses and other amusement places in Tokyo numbered 86,598,627. This number showed a surprising increase of 31,079,440 or 60% as compared with 1937.

Above all the entrance to cinema houses numbered 71,304,484, a sudden increase of 66 per cent as compared with 42,913,055 in 1937. The next was the entrance to yosé houses which numbered 4,534,690, an increase of 50 per cent over the previous year.

This is due no doubt to the attraction of news pictures on the China Affair. But contrary to the general prosperity in the amusement field, the number of Kamishibai or illustrated story-tellers on the street only greatly decreased, numbering about 1,000 against 5,000 in 1937. This is because that the story-tellers of Kamishibai have changed their business to factory workers which promised them a greater income.

Radio

Introduced in 1925, the radio has become one of the two most popular means of amusement in Japan, the other being the cinema. In February, 1938 more than 3,503,000 families in Japan proper had already become radio subscribers which means that one home in every 5 has a receiving set. Programmes broadcasted by the 25 broadcasting stations scattered throughout the country are diverse, including weather reports, market reports, news and lectures. Entertainment is naturally the most popular.

Complex Programmes It is said that Japanese radio programmes are more complex than those anywhere else in the world. Japan does not have a single and uniform culture; the old and the modern exist side by side, the indigenous and the foreign. Programmes, in consequence, must be arranged to meet divergent tastes, though ingenuity is sometimes taxed to satisfy everyone daily. The principal cleavage is in music. Japanese music, both instrumental and vocal, has developed in many varieties through many centuries. Just as in foreign countries different listeners have preferences for classical songs, or violin solos, or orchestral music, or popular songs, or dance music, or chamber music, so in Japan there are preferences for particular kinds of Japanese music. On the other hand, the music introduced from Europe and America is fast becoming popular. Young people who understand it generally prefer Western music, and old people, who do not understand it, would rather hear the music they have known since childhood. The ideal programme, therefore, must combine them. If 30 minutes are given to music by the New Symphony Orchestra of Tokyo, 30 minutes must also be given to music that is purely Japanese. Statistics show that station JOAK in Tokyo broadcast a total of 227 items from April to December, 1933, classified as: orchestral music, 56; vocal solos and chorus, 50; brass music, 30; chamber music, 13; violin solos, 9; piano solos, 20; jazz music, 9; foreign and Japanese music combined, 15; 'cello music, 3; flute solos, 3; pipe organ music, 2; guitar solos, 1; trumpet solo, 1; trombone solo, 1; xylophone solo, 1; and opera, 5.

Japanese Entertainment Purely Japanese entertainment is very varied. It includes singing of all kinds, from the nagauta, kiyomoto, naniwa-bushi and tokiwazu to all sorts of folk-songs, radio drama, story-telling, romance reading

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are shared in by the ladies.

Children's Sports The sports of Japanese children include kite-flying, top-spinning, battledoor and shuttlecock, making snow-men, playing with dolls, etc. The large, grotesquely coloured papier-mâché dogs given to babies owe their origin to some idea of the dog as a faithful protector, especially against onslaughts by evil spirits.

Shogi Japanese chess (shogi) was introduced from China centuries ago; and though it has diverged to some extent from its prototype, the two games still have a feature in common distinguishing them from all other varieties. It is this. The rank on which the pawns are usually posted is occupied by only two pieces, called hisha and kaku by the Japanese. Also, on either side of the king are two pieces, called kin in Japanese. These perform the duty imposed on th ferz or visir of the Persian Shatranj, which was the equivalent of the modern queen. Therefore, no queen or piece of similar attributes appears eiher in Japanese or Chinese chess. There are eighty-one squares on the Japanese board, and the game is played with twenty pieces on each side, distinguished, not by shape or colour, but by the ideographs upon them. Though the movements of the pieces resemble in most respects those followed in the European game, there are certain ramifications unknown to the latter. The most important of these are the employment of the pieces captured from the adversary to strengthen one's own game, and the comparative facility with which the minor pieces can attain to higher ranks.

Chess is understood by all classes in Japan. The very coolies at the corners of the streets improvise out of almost anything around them materials with which to play, and thus while away the tedium of waiting for employment. But it is comparatively little patronized by the educated classes, who hold its rival "go" in much higher esteem. O is the king, keima the knight, hisha the rook, and kaku the bishop—or pieces having movements like them. Fu is the pawn. The movements of the yari also resemble those of the rook, but are confined to the single rank on which it stands. Gin (silver) and kin (gold) are not found in Western chess. Gin moves one square diagonally only. The kin, besides having similar movements, has also the power of moving one square on each side of itself, but it cannot return diagonally. The fu advances one square forward, and captures as it moves. When any piece moves into the adversary's third row, it may become a kin. This is indicated by turning the piece over. Every piece so promoted loses its original character, except the hisha and kaku to which the movements of the kin are added. As already indicated, a captured piece may be employed at any time for either attack or defence. To checkmate with the fu is a thing vetoed—or at least considered "bad form"—in this non-democratic game, neither is stalemate permissible in Japanese chess. You wait until the adversary makes a move which admits of a free action on your part. The object of the game is to check-mate the king.

Go Go, often with little appropriateness termed "checkers" by European writers, is the most popular of the indoor pastimes of the Japanese,—a very different affair from the simple game known to Europeans as Goban or Go-bang, properly the name of the board on which the go is played. Clubs and professors of the art are found in all the larger cities, where, too, blind players may occasionally be met with. Go may with justice be considered more difficult than chess, its wider field affording more numerous ramifications. The game was introduced into Japan from China by Kibino-Mabi, commonly known as Kibi Daijin, who lived in the reign of the Emperor Shomu (A.D. 724–756). In the middle of the seventeenth century, a noted player, called Hon-imbo, was summoned from Kyoto to entertain the Chinese ambassador then at the court of the Shogun, from which time forward special go players were always retained by the Shoguns.

Go is played on a square wooden board. Nineteen straight lines lengthwise and the same number of lines cross ways, crossing each other at right angles, make three hundred and sixty-one mé, or crosses, at the point of intersection. These may be occupied by a hundred and eighty white and a hundred and eighty-one black ishi or stones. The object of the game is to obtain possession of the largest number of mé. This is done by securing such positions as can be most easily defended from the adversary's onslaughts. There are nine spots on the board, called séimoku, supposed to represent the chief celestial bodies, while the white and black stones represent day and night, and the number of crosses the three hundred and sixty degrees of latitude, exclusive of the central one, which is called taikyoku, that is, the primordial principle of the universe. There are nine degrees or classes of

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proficiency in the game, beginning with number one degree as the lowest, and ending with number nine as the highest point of excellence attainable. In playing, if the combatants are equally matched, they take the white stones alternately; if unequal, the weaker always takes the black, and odds are also given by allowing him to occupy several or all of the nine spots or vantage points on the board,—that is, to place stones upon them at the outset. A description of how the game proceeds would be of little utility here, it being so complicated as to make the personal instruction of a teacher indispensable. The easy Japanese game, called gomoku-narabé, which was introduced into foreign countries, is played on the go board and with the goishi. The object of this game is to be the first in getting five stones in a row in any direction.

Hanagaruta (Japanese Playing Card) The Japanese flower-cards developed from the classical "flower contests" which were originated far back in the 9th or 10th century A.D. by the elegance-loving ladies and gentlemen of the Kyoto Imperial court. At first the game was played by each contestant choosing a spray of some flower and writing a thirty-one syllable poem on a piece of coloured paper in praise of this flower and tying it to the twig. Then the flowers were collected and judged from the artistic, literary and various other points of view of the flower, poem and general colour effect.

These sprays of flowers came later to be represented in pictures, and probably under the influence of the Western card games introduced to Japan by the Portuguese of the 16th century, our flower-cards came into being. They present sprays of various flowers in the simplest but the prettiest design and colouring so characteristic of the art of the Tokugawa period, but at the same time they preserve all the poetic sentiments and associations of the courtly game of the flower contests.

A pack of the flower-cards consists of 48, and every four of them make a set presenting a flower. That is, there are 12 sets of fours presenting 12 different flowers or plants, as follows: young pine, plum blossoms, cherry blossoms, wistaria,iris, tree peony, lespedeza, grass hill, chrysanthemum, maple leaves, willow, and paulownia, one for each month of the year in the order given.

Among the 48 cards, there are 5 'glory cards,', each counting 20 points, and 9 10-point cards. These high-valued ones are at once distinguished by the various objects of classical associations presented together with the flowers. Each set,except the Grass Hill and the Paulownia, has a card with a poem strip on it, either of a red colour with letters written on, or of a red or blue colour in blank. These cards always count 5 points. The rest, 24 in number, are simple chips and each counts one point. To sum up, there are 48 cards in a pack and in all these cards count 264 points.

There are several ways of playing games with Hanagaruta: solitaire, hachi-hachi or "Game of Eighty-eight," "Six hundred," Sudaoshi, Mushi, and Kabu. But, the most popular and the most interesting of these is hachi-hachi. As in the case with bridge, the game may be played according to quite simple or elaborate rules.

Theoretically, a party of from two to six can play the game, it is most enjoyable when between three and half a dozen players are at the table.

The winner in the last round shuffles and deals the card. He deals 7 cards to each member and places 6 cards in the 'pool' face up. The remaining cards are placed in the centre of the pool in a pile, face downward. Each player then inspects his hand and declares if he will play or drop out. The hands of those who have dropped out are mixed in the cards in the pile. The player who dealt the cards has the first option to declare and the others in turn. In case three players declare to go, the remaining players are obliged to drop out, for not more than 3 can play each round. In case all but two drop out, the two play against each other, and should all but one drop out, the last remaining is the winner and so he shuffles and deals the cards for the next round.

The leader first plays one of the cards in hand the flower of which matches with that of one of the six cards in the pool, taking care to score the highest count possible. He then takes the topmost card in the pile and turns it over. In case the card so taken does not match with any in the pool he leaves it in the pool, but if the card matches with one in the pool, he scores that pair too. All cards thus matched are kept separate by the player who made the tricks. His next player is the one sitting on his right. Thus, in Japanese card playing, we go "against the sun" always.

Each player plays seven times and then all the cards will have been matched and taken. Then the scores are counted. There being 264 points in all, as explained before, one who scores 88 is at par. Hence the name, the "Game

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the kako starts in with his volleys of noise; and forthwith the cormorants set to at their work in the heartiest and jolliest way, diving and ducking with wonderful swiftness as the astonished fish come flocking towards the blaze of light. The master must handle his twelve strings so deftly that, let the birds dash hither and thither as they will, there shall be no impediment or fouling. He must have his eyes everywhere and his hands following his eyes. Specially must he watch for the moment when any of his flock is gorged,—a fact generally made known by the bird itself, which then swims about in a foolish, helpless way, with its head and swollen neck erect. Thereupon, the master, shortening in on that bird, lifts it aboard, forces its bill open with his left hand, which still holds the rest of the line, squeezes out the fish with his right, and starts the creature off on a fresh foray,—all this with such admirable dexterity and quickness that the eleven birds still bustling about have scarce time to get things into a tangle, and in another moment the whole team is again perfectly in hand.

Calendar of Annual Events

Few countries, if any, possess more ceremonies and more festivities than Japan. Some of these ceremonies at first sight may look absurd to the foreign eye, but familiarity with them and especially their origin will reveal most of them to be delightful. Rural people are more conservative than city folk in adhering to observance of ancient customs. Indeed, modern life has robbed the busy citizens of that quiet and poetical mood in which people of bygone days observed ancient customs, such, for instance, as moon viewing. But none the less it is true that despite the modern garb Japan wears today, the life of the present-day Japan is still associated with many picturesque customs and poetical sentiments of Old Japan, which afford a glimpse into the days of feudalism, and the people continue to observe many of the customs handed down from time immemorial.

Below is given in chronological order a list of annual events in Japan, including ceremonies, festivals and other national customary observances.

January

January 1st New Year's Day—New Year's Day means as much to the Japanese as Christmas means to Western peoples, or probably more. It marks the beginning of new life in an atmosphere of quiet and gaiety, leisure and pleasure. It is a time to forget the cares of the past year and enjoy feasts and indulge in all sorts of amusement in celebration of the coming good and lucky year. The homes are decorated, both inside and outside; the people are clad in their best clothes, and they all look very happy.

The Imperial Household observes a religious ceremony called Shihohai (worshipping in four directions) at the Imperial Sanctuary according to Shinto rites. The Emperor usually officiates in person, offering prayers to the gods for the peace and prosperity of the Empire. New Year's Day is one of the four most important National Holidays of Japan, the others being the Imperial Birthday celebration, the celebration commemorating the anniversary of the accession of the Emperor Jimmu, the first Emperor of Japan, in 660 B. C., and the celebration of the Emperor Meiji's Birthday on November 3.

The time-honoured custom of worshipping the sun-rise at shrine compounds situated in the "lucky direction" of the year is widely observed from the traditional belief that so doing will bring luck. Many, of course, observe this custom without sharing the belief. The compound of the Meiji Shrine in Tokyo, for instance, is always filled with worshippers at dawn on New Year's Day. Ceremonies celebrating the New Year are also observed at all Shinto shrines throughout the country. On this day and the following two days people call on their relatives and friends and exchange New Year greetings.

2nd Beginning of Work—This day is known as 'shigoto hajimé,' or beginning of work and is marked with cremonies for the beginning of all sorts of activities which are to be executed properly and well in the right spirit, in the hope that everything will go on in the same happy way for the rest of the year. Young school children study calligraphy for the first time in the year. Carpenters begin the day by using their professional tools. Geisha tune up their samisen and practise a piece or two of music. The first delivery of goods is undertaken by all wholesale stores in a spirit of celebration. The last named is called hatsu-ni, or first merchandise. Cars on which goods are to be delivered

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On the night of the second day, people were supposed, in ancient times, to dream the first lucky dream of the year. To inspire such a dream, pictures representing the Seven Gods of Fortune were sold in the streets, to be placed under the pillow so that the sleeper might dream a desired dream.

3rd Genshi-sai, a national holiday, celebrating the auspicious origin of the Imperial Throne at the beginning of the year, is observed on the third day before the Imperial Sanctuary in the Imperial Palace. The ceremony is attended by the Emperor, members of the Imperial family, Princes and Princesses of the Blood, high officials of the Government and members of the peerage. In the morning the front of the Nijubashi, the bridge at the main entrance to the Imperial Palace, presents a glittering scene as the dignitaries of the nation arrive at the palace in their State uniforms to participate in the court function. The New Year holidays come to an end on this day.

4th Beginning of Politics—All normal functions of the State are resumed on this day and government and private offices re-open. The Ministers of State make various important reports to the Emperor, and the Minister of the Imperial Household also gives an account of the ceremonies performed at the Grand Shrine of Isé and the other government-protected shrines on the occasion of the New Year.

5th The Shinnen Enkai, or New Year Party, is held at the Homéi Hall of the Imperial Palace, where the Emperor and Empress give a banquet to the Princes and Princesses of the Blood, Ministers of State, foreign diplomatic representatives and a large number of other dignitaries. The people in general also hold New Year parties and many persons are seen till a late hour on their way home from celebrations in a hilarious mood.

One of the most interesting features of Tokyo life on this day is the festival of the Suitengu shrine at Ningyo-cho. Here, right in the heart of the modern capital, a glimpse of old Japan reveals itself.

6th Tokyo fire-brigades assemble in an open space in front of the Nijubashi for the New Year parade and give acrobatic performances on fireladders to show their agility. There was a time in the old days when fires were so frequent in Yedo (Tokyo) as to be called "the flowers of Yedo." The life of the fireman was envied by many as inspiring. The performance of acrobatics was initiated in those days to reassure the public by demonstrating the efficiency of firemen when confronted with danger.

Cold Season begins—The so-called 'kan,' or cold season, begins its conventional period of four weeks. The cold season is divided into two stages, the period of 'shokan,' or lesser cold, and the period of 'daikan,' or greater cold. During the period many male apprentices and artisans devoted to their work go out thinly clad in the evening to worship at their favourite temples, having the traditional belief that divine power invoked by their enthusiasm will make them proficient in their callings. They go to the well in the temple compounds and pour cold water over their bodies to purify themselves before worshipping at the temples. The rite is practised for the whole period every evening without a break, irrespective of weather conditions. Such enthusiasts, dressed in white clothes and usually with tinkling bells hanging over their loins, can be seen in the streets during the cold season, running from temple to temple.

Decorations removed—All New Year decorations should be removed from the house fronts before nightfall, as the main New Year celebrations come to an end.

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Japan Wrestling Association are held at the Kokugi-kan amphitheatre at Ryogoku, Tokyo, in January and May. Each tournament lasts for 13 days. (See Chapter XXXVI.)

15th and 16th Extra holidays for apprentices and servants—in old days apprentices and servants were given only two day's holidays a year, January 15 or 16 and July 15 or 16. Nowadays they are given at least one holiday a month in many cases, but in addition the old holiday-dates are still adhered to.

February

February 1st Country people, who still go by the lunar calendar, celebrate the New Year on this day.

3rd or 4th The Bean-throwing ceremony—This day is called 'Sétsubun,' or change of season, on which winter comes to an official end and spring begins according to the lunar calendar. 'Mamémaki,' or the bean-throwing ceremony, is widely practised throughout the country. People scatter beans in an attempt to drive out all the evil spirits in the house and call in good luck. The priests of leading shrines and temples observe this custom in the presence of thousands of worshippers. Usually popular actors and wrestlers are employed as bean-throwers.

11th Commemoration of the Accession of the Emperor Jimmu—This national holiday, Kigensetsu, commemorating the accession in 660 B.C. of the first Emperor of Japan to the Throne, is one of the most important in the Japanese calendar. The Emperor observes elaborate ceremonies in front of the Imperial Sanctuary, attended by the Empress, Princes and Princesses of the Blood, court functionaries and high officials of the Government, and peers. An Imperial luncheon is given at the Homéi Hall of the Palace, to which are invited the Princes and Princesses of the Blood, State Ministers, members of the foreign diplomatic corps, etc.

March

March 3rd Girls' Doll Festival—This is sometimes known as the peach festival, because it is associated with the peach blossoms which begin to open about this time. This day is a great day for the girls of Japan. All families, except the poorest, place decorated doll sheives in the guest rooms or alcoves with a set of dolls and accessories on them. Very often the dolls are taken out from the closets and displayed for the enjoyment of the young girls of the family. The set of dolls is supposed to represent a miniature Court of ancient days with the Emperor, Empress, and their retainers. Some of the sets in wealthy families are very valuable, costing several hundred yen each. Dolls are displayed for sale at department stores and stalls for some weeks before the arrival of this festival. Considerable religious significance was originally attached to the doll festival, but later it became a mere pastime for children. It is said by some that the custom encourages happy family life, and by others that it encourages the spirit of filial piety and loyalty. Scholars declare that the custom originated during the reign of the Emperor Tsuchimikado (1199–1207).

6th The Empress's Birthday—This day is known in Japanese as Chikyu-sétsu, and is a holiday for girls' schools.

18th Higan, the Week of the Equinox, is a busy time for Buddhist families. Usually, all members of the family visit the family graveyard during the week, attend to the tombs and offer prayers to the spirits of their ancestors. Higan, literally translated, means "yonder shore," or Nirvana. Various vegetable foods specially prepared for the purpose, are offered to the dead and sent as presents to friends and relatives. All Buddhist temples in the country hold special services during the period. Tokyo old-fashioned Buddhist believers make special pilgrimages to the images of the six-faced Amida Buddha at 18 temples situated in the hilly sections of the city and suburbs.

21st Vernal Equinox Festival—On this national holiday, which is called Shunki Korei-sai, all schools and public buildings are closed. A Shinto festival in memory of the Imperial ancestors and ancestresses is performed at the Imperial Sanctuary.

April

April 3rd Anniversary of the demise of the Emperor Jimmu, national holiday—This day is the anniversary of the demise of the first Emperor Jimmu, who reigned over the country for 76 years. The Emperor performs an appropriate ceremony in front of the Imperial Sanctuary.

8th Birthday of Gautama Buddha—This day, kept as the anniversary of the birth of Gautama Buddha, is celebrated by all Buddhist temples throughout Japan. Leading temples arrange parades of young girls who are daughters of Buddhist believers, and hold memorial services in honour of the founder of their religion. Amacha, sweet tea, is freely given at the temples

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guardian deities and their safe growth throughout the period of early childhood, at the same time beseeching future protection and happiness.

23rd Festival of Niinamé-sai—The Emperor observes Niinamé-sai, a national holiday, with the ancient Court ceremony of offering new grain to the Sun Goddess and the Imperial ancestors, and partaking of it himself. The occasion is one of thanksgiving, when the Emperor and his subjects return thanks for the harvest.

28th Anniversary of the death of St. Shinran—A religious fête in commemoration of the death of St. Shinran, founder of the Shin sect of Buddhism, is celebrated at the Honganji temples in Kyoto and Tokyo.

December

December 22nd Winter Solstice—On this day people take baths in hot water in which 'yuzu' or limes have been placed, according to the time-honoured custom.

25th Anniversary of the death of the Emperor Taisho, father of the present Emperor, a national holiday.

25th Christmas—Christmas has become an important affair for many Japanese living in cities. Although at first it was regarded by the general public as an event entirely foreign to Japan, it has now become a season of rejoicing for children in large cities, and the day is a regular annual feature, included in the Japanese calendar as such.

29th Close of official business—All government and public offices close for the year-end and New Year holidays.

31st Eating of noodles on the last day of the year—It being the last day of December, many businessmen eat noodles at their evening meal to bring the year to a happy conclusion. The noodle is regarded as a symbol of long life and continued prosperity.

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a week.

21st Hottest season—The doyo, the hottest period of summer, begins on or about this day, to last for about three weeks.

August

August 4th Annual festival of the Kitano Shrine in Kyoto.

6th Annual festival of the Sumiyoshi shrine in Tsukudashima, Kyobashi, Tokyo.

16th Annual Bon-fire Fête on Mount Nyoi in Kyoto.

19th Lantern Fête on Mount Atago in Kyoto.

September

September 1st Memorial Service for the Earthquake Dead—to comfort the spirits of those who were killed in the great earthquake and fire of 1923 services are held at the Earthquake Memorial Hall in Honjo on the banks of the Sumida River, Tokyo.

5th Suitengu Shrine Festival in Tokyo.

13th Festivals of Kanda Myojin and Hikawa Shrines in Tokyo.

17th and 18th Festival of the Great Shrine of Isé and the Hokoku Shrine in Kyoto.

20th Week of the equinox begins—the autumn 'higan' begins on September 20. As during the spring equinoctial week, Buddhist temples present busy scenes.

23rd Festival of the Autumnal Equinox—A Shinto festival in memory of the Imperial ancestors is performed at the Imperial Palace, the day being a national holiday.

26th Moon-viewing Festival—The custom of moon-viewing is no longer observed so generally as in the past, but it still delights the poetically minded in the cities, and people in general in the rural districts. Before twilight sets in, the house wife will bring a table to the veranda where it can catch the moon beams and spread upon it a feast in honour of the moon. A vase containing autumnal flowers will be placed on the left side of the table. As the moon rises, the members of the family sit around the table in the moonlight and spend the evening in merry-making.

October

October 10th Annual fête of the Kotohira Shrine at Kotohira, Kagawa prefecture and also of similar shrines in Tokyo and elsewhere.

13th Anniversary of the death of St. Nichiren—One of the most elaborate Buddhist demonstrations in Japan is held on the evening of the 12th, and the following day at the Hommonji temple at Ikégami, Tokyo, to commemorate the anniversary of the death of St. Nichiren, founder of the Nichiren sect of Buddhism. Thousands of believers and others march in groups to the temple, many beating drums so as to keep time, shouting all the time the Buddhist sutra, "Namu-Myoho-Renge-kyo." Large paper lanterns, all lighted, are carried at the head of those processions.

15th Hunting season—The ban on hunting in all districts is lifted.

17th Kannamésai (first Harvest festival) on this national holiday the Emperor makes an offering of the new grain harvested to the Sun Goddess enshrined in the Great Shrine of Isé and to the Imperial ancestors. A special service is held at the Imperial Sanctuary, while the Emperor despatches a messenger to the Great Shrine to offer prayers on his behalf.

22nd Festival of Yasukuni Shrine—The Yasukuni shrine begins its second semi-annual celebration, lasting for three days.

November

November 1–12 Festival of Oh-tori shrines—the annual shrine festival known as 'tori-no-ichi,' is observed on the "Tori no Hi", or the day of birds, that may fall on one of the first 12 days according to the old calendar which counts days by the names of 12 animals, at various shrines of Oh-tori, a winged god of fortune and wealth in Tokyo and elsewhere. There are the second and third 'tori-no-ichi' in the month.

3rd Celebration of the Emperor Meiji's Birthday—This is a national holiday and all schools and public buildings are closed in honour of the great Emperor during whose reign Japan became a world Power, and the week is celebrated as a national athletic week.

8th Festival of Bellows—This is celebrated in the household of every metal-smith, silver-smith, iron-smith, and the like. On this day also takes place the annual bonfire fête of the Fushimi Inari Shrine in Kyoto and elsewhere.

15th Celebration for children of 3, 5 and 7 years of age—This is known as "shichigosan (7, 5, 3) festival". On this day boys who have attained the age of 5 years and girls who have attained 3 or 7 years of age are taken to the shrines of their tutelary deities, in their best clothes, and worship is offered at the shrines by way of expressing their gratitude for the protection of the

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buildings in 1936 numbered 44,404.

Area The total area of the city of Tokyo in January, 1937, was 537,571,996 square kilometres. The classified ownership in January, 1937 follows:

Ownership	Area (In square metre)
Total	535,571,996
Imperial household	6,481,434
State	76,880,668
Tokyo prefecture	996,320
City	14,097,807
Private persons	434,115,767

Tokyo Enlarged

The development of modern Tokyo is best endorsed by the giant growth of the adjoining towns and villages.

Socially and economically the towns outside the city area have been closely connected with the city itself. The position regarding Tokyo during the 10 years ending 1930 was that the 82 adjoining towns and villages increased in population by 1,720,000, while the city of Tokyo lost 100,000 within the same period. In road construction, extension of communication facilities and in the execution of various municipal regulations the city experienced enormous difficulties due to the existence of over 80 different self-governing bodies surrounding the city area.

As is generally the case with great cities, a large number of people living in adjoining towns enter the city to earn their living. They are placed on exactly the same footing with the citizens in so far as the utilization of metropolitan facilities is concerned. Besides, as most of them are salaried men belonging to middle or intelligent class, to let them stand aloof from city government means an enormous loss to both.

It was after taking into careful consideration all these practical phases of administration that on October, 1932, new Tokyo was founded by amalgamating 20 more wards. The newly annexed suburban towns then had 3,211,580 inhabitants and 469.029 sq. km., a density of 9,034 persons to the square kilometre.

The enlarged Tokyo now covers 570.-337 square kilometres divided into 35 wards.

Commerce and Industry

Retail Business At the end of July, 1936, the number of retail shops in the city was 164,438. Sweetmeats shops numbered 18,225, rice shops 8,054 and vegetables and fruits shops 6,853. Retail price index numbers based on the prices of December 16, 1929, as 100 follow :

RETAIL PRICE INDEX NUMBER IN TOKYO

(Of 100 Kinds of Commodities)

(The average retail price on Dec. 16, 1929 taken as 100)

	Foodstuffs	Clothing, etc.	Fuel	Building materials	Miscellaneous	Gross Average for Tokyo	Average for 13 cities
1933	85.6	85.0	91.3	104.1	92.2	87.8	87.1
1934	86.9	87.9	91.9	104.9	90.6	89.1	88.8
1935	90.0	87.7	92.3	100.7	89.7	90.4	90.5
1936	96.2	89.5	93.4	103.9	89.2	94.5	94.8
1937	98.1	105.8	108.6	147.7	105.4	104.7	104.2
1938	110.3	135.5	124.6	179.1	125.2	122.9	121.6

Wholesale Price The whole-sale average price index number for 100 kinds of commodities in 1938 was 130.9 against 100 of the average wholesale price index of December, 1929. Below are given detailed figures :

WHOLESALE PRICE INDEX NUMBER

	Foodstuffs	Textile goods	Metals	Building materials	Chemicals	Fertilizers	Fuel	Miscellaneous	Aggregate average in Tokyo	Average in 13 cities
1933	92	93	125	98	87	87	93	112	96.7	95.4
1934	90	93	120	101	81	83	97	103	95.2	96.3
1935	96	88	109	98	67	93	100	100	95.7	97.4
1936	103	90	107	97	50	97	104	98	98.0	101.2
1937	109	108	168	118	68	114	118	120	114.1	123.8
1938	114	141	185	140	85	124	134	144	130.9	140.2

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Banks At the end of 1936 there were 24 banks domiciled in Tokyo and 327 branch offices. Three were special banks, i. e. semi-governmental banks. The number of ordinary commercial banks was 16, with 175 branches in the city. Savings banks numbered 5 with 57 branches. The aggregate capital of the special banks was ¥225,275,000 of which the amount paid up was ¥186,-151,062. The aggregate of deposits was ¥762,648,485 and the aggregate amount of advances and discounts was ¥2,457,-916,853. The aggregate capital of the ordinary banks was ¥510,488,500, the amount paid up was ¥341,147,000, deposits ¥4,762,690,179 and advances and discounts totalled ¥2,720,116,917. The aggregate capital of savings banks was ¥15,535,000 of which ¥11,922,500 was the total sum paid up, deposits ¥861,523,601 and advances ¥160,214,962. There were 93 branches of banks domiciled in other cities, and the total number of banks and branches in the city was 351, with an aggregate deposits of ¥3,954,923,444 and advances of ¥3,009,138,140.

Industry At the end of 1936 there were, in Tokyo, 29,544 small working shops, where less than 5 operatives were employed, with 47,279 workers, and 13,-326 factories, where more than 5 operatives were employed, with 329,439 workers.

FACTORIES IN TOKYO

(At the end of 1936)

Kind of Industry	Factories	Operatives	Production (In yen)
Textile	2,460	39,007	174,370,075
Metallic	5,555	61,044	343,252,277
Machine and Tool	7,360	131,160	464,977,851
Ceramics	720	9,828	19,983,780
Chemical	2,263	40,438	377,581,735
Sawing and Wood-work	2,873	12,770	34,356,265
Printing and Book-binding	3,346	29,456	120,199,054
Foodstuff	14,234	24,118	180,630,498
Gas and Electric	7	858	32,233,354
Others	4,052	28,039	82,632,565
Total	42,870	376,718	1,830,217,454

Companies At the end of 1936 there were 16,904 companies in Tokyo, with an aggregate capital of ¥10,734,735,959 of which ¥8,023,539,609 was paid-up, and their net profits in 1935 amounted to ¥825,336,385.

COMPANIES IN TOKYO CLASSIFIED BY INDUSTRIES

(At the end of 1936)

Industry	Number	Paid-up-Capital (In Yen)
Agriculture	113	78,991,222
Aquatic	30	102,153,000
Mining	304	788,940,462
Manufacturing	6,376	3,689,576,851
Commercial and Banking	9,589	2,905,058,794
Traffic	492	458,819,280
Total	16,904	8,023,539,609

Transportation

Roads At the end of 1936 the total mileage of public roads in the city was 8,414,676 metres covering an area of 48,-005,106 square metres or 8 per cent of the total city area.

Railway Service In the fiscal year ending March 31, 1937 there were in aggregate 420,627,220 boarding passengers and 419,349,144 alighting passengers at 65 different governmental railway stations in the city, and the earnings in these 65 stations totalled ¥59,823,498 which was ¥3,300,000 more than in the previous year. The business results of 15 private railway companies in the year under review, exclusive of their bus services, were : the aggregate number of passengers, 288,014,194 and the aggregate amount of earnings ¥19,116,-547, and the total length of lines in operation 239 kilometres.

TRAFFIC SERVICE OF STATE RAILWAYS FOR TOKYO

Year	Stations	Passengers Who Got in	Passengers Who Got off	Earnings (In Yen)
1930	63	343,997,611	339,973,445	50,119,289
1931	64	333,885,569	332,022,462	48,242,225
1932	63	335,659,845	334,105,799	47,353,680
1933	66	359,549,090	357,644,525	51,364,964
1934	65	374,591,543	373,084,109	54,050,989
1935	65	394,021,234	393,414,451	56,503,686
1936	65	420,627,220	419,349,144	59,823,498

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1937	109	108	168	118	68	114	118	120	114.1	123.8
1938	114	141	185	140	85	124	134	144	130.9	140.2

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MOVEMENT OF VESSELS IN TOKYO HARBOUR

(in 1934 and 1935)

Kind		1934 Number	1934 Tonnage	1935 Number	1935 Tonnage
Steamers	In	22,430	8,353,542	22,412	9,159,265
	Out	22,439	8,375,241	22,415	9,159,984
Sailing Vessels with engines	In	8,982	486,562	8,843	453,462
	Out	8,991	487,522	8,851	454,046
Sailing Vessels	In	112	6,100	110	4,678
	Out	112	6,100	110	4,678
Total	In	31,524	8,846,204	31,365	9,617,405
	Out	31,542	8,868,863	31,376	9,618,708

GOODS CARRIED OUT FROM AND INTO TOKYO

(In metric tons)

Outgoing Goods

Year	By R'y	By Steamers	Through Rivers	Total
1933	2,647,049	102,415	61,960	2,811,424
1934	2,967,012	105,437	64,874	3,137,323
1935	3,385,452	62,773	69,002	3,517,227
1936	3,583,885	1,634,327	95,330	5,313,542

Incoming Goods

Year	By R'y	By Steamers	Through Rivers	Total
1933	6,342,816	58,675	57,306	6,458,797
1934	6,573,974	90,054	79,642	6,743,670
1935	6,614,397	55,619	81,844	6,751,860
1936	7,380,876	9,086,196	107,409	16,574,481

GOODS BY RAILWAYS IN 1936

(In metric tons)

	Outgoing goods	Incoming goods
Animals	1,755	54,049
Plants	—	—
Cereals & seeds	263,268	690,362
Comestibles & tobacco	385,549	760,884
Hides, horns. etc. and manufactures thereof	1,399	1,657
Oil tallow, wax, etc. and manufactures thereof	33,021	75,137
Chemicals and dyestuffs	60,975	57,379
Threads, cordages etc.	29,294	29,310
Piece goods & manufactures thereof	11,010	34,054
Cloth & Necessaries	—	—
Pulp & paper	64,839	179,422
Minerals & manufactures thereof	421,280	2,803,627
Metals & manufactures thereof	391,186	231,064
Pottery, and glasses and manufactures thereof	21,616	70,701
Vehicles, clocks & machinery	74,627	27,896
Fertilizers, etc.	548,299	72,577
Wood, bamboos, etc. and manufactures thereof	89,658	1,216,306
Miscellaneous	1,186,109	1,076,449
Total	3,583,885	7,380,876

Waterworks

The construction of modern water reservoirs was first commenced in 1890 and it was twenty years before the Yodobashi water reservoir was completed. But this proved inadequate to meet the ever growing water consumption and the Murayama water reservoir was constructed in 1916. It consists of two reservoirs, upper and lower, and the upper reservoir has a capacity of 3,576,000 cubic metres while the capacity of the lower one is 12,148,000 cubic metres. In 1934 another reservoir at Yamaguchimura was completed and it has a capacity of 18,824,000 cubic metres. The total volume of water which can actually be maintained by these reservoirs at any given moment reaches 30,056,000 cubic metres. The total number of hydrants in Tokyo in March, 1937, was 863,400, and the total quantity of water distributed during 1936-37 was 333,740,073 cu. m. In March, 1935, the city bought all rights of the Tamagawa Waterworks which had been supplying water to the six southern wards.

Sewerage Works

General Conditions Until half a century ago waste water used to be discharged into moats, navigable canals

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and rivers. In 1876, there was a violent outbreak of cholera which impressed upon the Government the urgent need of a general water and sewerage system, but it was not until between 1883 and 1885 that Tokyo prefecture laid the first sewers, with a government subsidy. The subject of sewage disposal was not undertaken in earnest until 1911, and it was not until ten years later that the modern Mikawajima Disposal Works were opened. Extensions and modernization are still going on. At present there are 7 sewage siphons at Sunamachi and Mikawajima.

Within the old city limits there are no longer any open street drains visible, the same, unfortunately, cannot be said of the new city area, though further development of the sewerage system is being planned.

In 1934 there were 428,155 square metres of undergrounds in use for the laying of iron pipes and the aggregate length of iron-pipes laid down was 1,402,674.57 metres in contrast to 1,146,428.24 metres in 1932. Moreover, 169,090,004 square metres of sewerages were the aggregate volume that were siphoned in the year under review and the water volume disposed of totalled 167,398,778 square metres.

SEWERAGE WORKS IN TOKYO

(For the fiscal years 1932–1935)

	1933	1934	1935
Area covered in sq. m.	427,955	530,296	586,504
Length of sewers in m.	1,265,477	1,402,624.57	1,556,371.56
Sewerage siphoned in cu. m.	155,907,470	169,090,004	
Sewerage disposed in cu. m.	148,969,959	167,398,778	
Sewerage washed out in cu. m.	6,491,972	25,227,310	

Parks

Parks The absolute necessity of parks is more keenly felt in Tokyo than in other cities in Japan because many lives were saved through the existence of parks on the occasion of the terrible earthquake of September, 1923.

At the end of 1935 Tokyo had 105 parks with an area of 2.747 square kilometres.

In the old city area there are three large parks :. Sumida, Kinshi and Hamacho and 89 others of about 2,682,136 sq. m., whereas before the earthquake the city had only Ueno, Hibiya and 32 other parks. Within the newly annexed quarters of the city there are two at Shinagawa covering an area of 3,900 tsubo.

Sumida park has an area of 174,400 sq. m., Hamacho park 36,000 sq. m. and Kinshi park 56,000 sq. m. All of the numerous small parks are laid out adjoining for the most part elementary schools. They serve as local parks, the largest being 4,700 sq. m. and the smallest 1,700 sq. m. in area.

Education

In the fiscal year 1935 there were 285 kindergartens in Tokyo of which 124 were in the old city limits. The number of elementary schools was 590, of which 217 were in the old city limits. Schools equivalent to elementary grade numbered 74, of which 44 were in the old city limits; blind, deaf, and dumb schools numbered 9; middle schools 51 and girls schools 74. Various schools of middle grade numbered 27; business and technical schools 137, normal schools 3, young people's schools 206 and various private schools 281. As for higher education there were 2 higher girls normal schools, 3 business teachers' institutes, 72 professional schools (colleges), 4 higher schools, and 22 universities.

KINDERGARTENS, AND ELEMENTARY AND SECONDARY SCHOOLS

March 1, 1936

	No.	Instructors	Pupils	Graduates
Kindergartens	285	865	16,692	10,231
Elementary schools	590	15,038	731,855	126,634

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	No.	Instructors	Pupils	Graduates
Elementary evening schools	77	115	6,303	1,931
Blind, deaf and dumb schools	9	200	1,196	315
Middle schools	51	1,441	36,938	5,725
Girls' high schools	74	1,737	46,926	8,035
Other schools of middle school grade	27	610	14,238	2,176
Vocational, business and technical schools	137	2,369	9,537	12,791
Young people's schools	206	215	37,491	11,802
Normal schools	3	108	1,661	554
Various private schools	281	3,392	9,284	36,289
Total	1,733	26,090	912,121	216,483

SCHOOLS FOR HIGHER EDUCATION

March 1, 1935

Higher Normal schools	2	157	1,589	396
Temporary teachers, institutes	3	38	269	91
Professional schools	72	3,620	52,165	13,298
Higher schools	4	231	3,140	930
Universities	22	3,495	46,625	14,769
Total	103	7,541	103,788	29,484

Public Libraries There are 31 libraries in Tokyo, of which 6 are owned by the city, 1 by the Government and the rest by private persons. In the fiscal year 1935 the number of books held in all those libraries was 1,767,597, of which 823,269 were held by the Imperial Library at Ueno and 488,694 by the 26 municipal libraries.

LIBRARIES

At the end of the fiscal year	Total Number of Banks	Japanese & Chinese Books	Western Books
1931	1,438,456	1,236,853	201,603
1932	1,509,091	1,301,440	207,651
1933	1,574,691	1,362,023	212,668
1934	1,687,237	—	—
1935	1,767,597	—	—

Social Education The Social Education Bureau of Tokyo municipality, established in 1921, looks after the social education of the capital.

Adult education is effected through the medium of Commercial and Industrial Young Men's Cultural Schools and citizens' lecture courses, both of which give lectures to citizens for a term of half a year, at night or on Sundays and holidays. At other times short time lecture or training courses are arranged for citizens in general. Free use is made of music and the cinema.

The Tokyo Self-Government Hall, Hibiya park, is a permanent organ for social education with the object of fostering an autonomous spirit among the citizens, as its principal raison d'être.

Training of Young Men In July, 1934, there were 26 Young Men's Training Institutes with 15,599 students.

Young People's Schools In 1936 there were 175 municipal young people's schools and 29 similar institutes with 31,698 aggregate number of students.

Religion

At the end of 1934 there were 1,874 Buddhist temples of various sects, the total number of priests counting 4,301 and adhering families 200,779. The Jodo sect was strongest in point of the number of temples, which were 422. The next position was occupied by the Shingon Sect with 392. Below are given details of various sects of Buddhism.

SHINTOISM BUDDHISM AND CHRISTIANITY IN TOKYO

	No. of shrines, temples or churches	No. of preachers	No. of Individual Believers
Shrines	913	353	—
Shintoism	1,207	0,130	608,425
Temples	1,881	4,459	267,701
Buddhism	289	478	112,907
Christianity	242	524	59,076

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TEMPLES, ACCORDING TO DIFFERENT SECTS

(at the end of 1935)

Sect	No. of Temples	Priests	No. of Believing Families
Tendai	145	320	11,126
Shingon	401	784	49,567
Jodo	423	895	50,829
Rinsai	99	244	10,256
Soto	215	611	26,807
Obaku	10	20	1,120
Shin	240	510	54,845
Nichiren	341	1,060	62,006
Ji	7	15	1,145
Total	1,881	4,459	267,701

Social Work

Child Welfare At the end of March, 1936 there were 26 maternity hospitals including three municipal-owned, and in 1935-36 there were 25,248 in-patients of expectant mothers, and 552 patients treated in travelling and the number of births given was 21,897 of which 1,022 were still births. In the same year there were 100 relief nurseries where working mothers and fathers can leave their children when going to their daily work. The total number of babies and children who were brought into these nurseries in the year was 7,593.

The total number of facilities for child protection was 310 which included 100 for baby protection, 11 nurseries, 17 for juvenile protection, 37 health consultation rooms, 104 for the education of the poor and deformed, 31 children's play grounds and libraries, and 10 for special protection of children.

Labour Exchanges Activities of municipal and private labour employment offices which number 49 in all can be seen from the following:

BUSINESS RESULT OF LABOUR EXCHANGE

(at the end of the fiscal year 1935)

Kinds	No. of exchange	Persons wanted		Applicants		Persons who secured work	
		Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Municipal:							
General	39	213,330	131,282	222,895	101,498	66,584	32,061
Private:							
General	10	98,980	69,212	95,794	72,133	21,920	20,036
Total	49	312,310	200,494	318,689	173,631	88,504	52,097

Administration and Government

History In July, 1868, the Emperor Meiji granted an Imperial message on the proposed removal of the capital to Tokyo. It was the beginning of the regeneration of Tokyo. At the same time the downfall of the Shogunate régime was announced and new Japan was born.

The Tokyo prefectural office was established soon after the issuing of the Imperial Rescript. In 1871, the city was divided into 6 large wards, but seven years later these wards were abolished and 15 smaller wards established. In 1879, as the governor of the prefecture saw that these 15 wards were firmly established, he issued a decree concerning the formation and functions of ward assemblies, and thus instituted the first representative government system in this country.

Legislative Body To control municipal business the city has a city council and board of aldermen with a mayor as the head. Further, there are several departments, bureaux, sections, etc., for the execution of municipal affairs and office work.

Membership of the city council is an honorary position, the term of service being 4 years. The membership at present is 144, but owing to resignation of and death of members, the actual membership at the end of 1934 was 139. The principal functions of the council are the enactment and reorganization of city regulations, decisions as to finance, approval of settled accounts, imposition and collection of city taxes; and the right of proposing any bill, except the budget for annual revenue and expenditure. The board of aldermen of Tokyo once was the executive body, but in 1911 it became a legislative body. It is composed of 15 honorary aldermen to whom the mayor is added as chairman. The functional powers include the right of proposing any bill or expressing opinions on other matters.

Executive From 1889 till 1898 the function of the mayor of Tokyo was entrusted to the governor of Tokyo pre-

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fecture, but on October 1, 1898 the city became self-governing. The mayor is elected by the city council. Under the mayor there are three deputy mayors, a city counsellor, a treasurer, directors of departments, chiefs of bureaux, ward heads and other numerous offices. There are various kinds of committees as consultative bodies. The organization of the municipality is as follows :

THE DEPARTMENTAL ORGANIZATION OF THE TOKYO MUNICIPALITY

Sections	Functions
Private secretariat	Secret matters, keeping of seals, ceremonies and reward
Personnel	Personnel administration
General secretariat	General affairs, municipal research, elections, legal affairs, etc.
Bureaux	
Supervising	Supervision and inspection of municipal affairs
Finance	Budget, loans, public land, taxation, purchasing, etc.
Industrial	Industry, promotion of industry and commerce, agriculture, fisheries and stock raising
Education	Management of schools; education, libraries, museums, etc.
Social Work	Protection and correction. Management of lodging houses, housing, labour exchanges, commercial training, etc.
Public Health	Management of hospitals, social hygiene, refuse disposal, park and playgrounds, auditoriums, cemeteries, zoological gardens, etc.
Water Works	Water supply and extension
Public Works	Roads, bridges, harbours and rivers, sewage disposal, buildings, etc.
Electric	Supply of light and power: electric cars, motor buses, subways, etc.
Divisons	
Harbour	Care of Tokyo harbour
Municipal Office Building	Building the City Hall at Tsukishima
Miscellaneous	
Central wholesale Market	Wholesale of provisions
Poor Asylum	Protection of helpless persons aged or young
Hygiene Laboratory	Investigations on epidemics, bacteria, etc.
Electric Laboratory	Examination of meters and scientific research on electricity.

Finance

The 1937-38 municipal budget was ¥239,728,780 for revenue and ¥238,455,096 for expenditure. The following table shows the settled accounts for 1928-29 to 1935-36 and budgets for 1936-37 and 1937-38. Among the enterprises tramways, bus, gas, and water works are included.

REVENUE AND EXPENDITURE OF TOKYO

(In Yen)

Fiscal Year	Total		Ordinary Account	
	Revenue	Expenditure	Revenue	Expenditure
1928-29	228,247,949	239,845,562	131,272,239	140,067,289
1929-30	203,838,221	205,390,255	91,852,580	93,260,470
1930-31	194,198,827	200,962,772	69,432,528	61,167,598
1931-32	129,076,605	134,096,981	59,600,321	47,011,904
1932-33	152,745,263	159,343,763	81,277,116	66,237,673
1933-34	165,576,185	173,344,002	95,973,326	71,827,992
1934-35	210,754,644	215,615,254	108,255,864	70,971,473
1935-36	196,497,423	180,086,912	107,457,241	78,877,884
1936-37 (Budget)	224,763,566	225,873,009	112,387,843	79,143,596
1937-38 (Budget)	239,728,780	238,455,096	124,657,897	97,942,072
1938-39 (Budget)	367,072,000	367,072,000	131,988,000	131,988,000

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Fiscal Year	Enterprises		Others	
	Revenue	Expenditure	Revenue	Expenditure
1928-29	75,821,286	67,833,706	21,154,424	31,944,567
1929-30	79,148,773	68,757,071	32,836,868	43,372,714
1930-31	65,797,406	56,846,693	58,968,893	82,948,481
1931-32	55,418,045	53,043,107	14,058,239	34,041,970
1932-33	62,676,471	57,482,765	8,761,676	35,623,325
1933-34	56,239,866	52,616,290	13,361,993	48,899,720
1934-35	94,383,118	89,649,688	8,115,662	54,994,093
1935-36	81,370,835	36,590,431	7,669,347	64,618,597
1936-37 (Budget)	95,511,388	59,356,975	16,864,335	87,372,438
1937-38 (Budget)	97,501,889	61,983,377	17,568,994	78,529,647

The International Exposition of Japan

Tokyo is actively engaged in making preparations for the International Exposition to be held in Japan in 1940. The actual work was begun early in 1938 by the sending abroad of special commissions for inviting foreign participation; and the first lot of admission tickets with lottery coupons amounting to ¥10,000,000 was issued for advance sale in March of this year.

The Exposition has the honour of having H.I.H. Prince Chichibu as Patron and Prince Fumimaro Konoé, Premier, as Vice-Patron. Hon. Shinji Yoshino, Minister of Commerce and Industry, and Baron Yoshiro Sakatani are its Honorary Presidents. Hon. Ginjiro Fujihara is the President, Hon. Sempachi Soejima is the Director-General, and Hon. Naokichi Matsunaga is the Assistant Director-General. The Exposition is to be held for 5 months from March to August, 1940, in commemoration of the 2,600th anniversary of the accession of Jimmu Tenno, Japan's first Emperor. The site is on the reclaimed grounds along the water-front of Tokyo Harbour, 10-minute drive from Ginza, the shopping centre of Tokyo, with the auxiliary site on Yamashita-cho along the water-front of Yokohama Harbour. The total area covers 900 acres including 400 acres for buildings and amusement grounds, 500 acres for aquatic sports. The construction motif of the Exposition will be the blending of the Eastern and Western modes of architecture. The exposition is estimated to cost ¥95,000,000, including ¥44,500,000 on items of direct expenditure and ¥50,500,000 for the reclamation of the grounds and civic improvements. All kinds of vehicles will be at hand for conveying guests with transportation facilities capable of handling 80,000 persons per hour and a parking accommodation for 6,000 automobiles. The total attendance is estimated at 45,000,000 with a daily average of 266,000 and a daily maximum of 532,000.

The Exposition hopes to exhibit the best products of the world with the sympathy and co-operation of all the nations of the world and to contribute to the cultural advancement of the Japanese people, and hopes, as the first international exposition to be held in Japan, to be instrumental in bringing the Oriental and Occidental civilizations closer together to give a stimulus to world industries, and to create a better understanding between Japan and other countries of the world.

The year of opening of the exposition has been postponed on account of the present international conflict, but it will be decided upon later.

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CHAPTER XXXIX

FIVE BIG CITIES

Osaka

General

Geographical Position The city of Osaka is situated nearly in the centre of Japan proper, near the eastern entrance of the Inland Sea with easy access to the Pacific Ocean, while on the other sides extend the fertile plains of the provinces of Settsu, Kawachi and Izumi. The city of Kyoto, the ancient capital of Japan, is situated 43 kilometres to the north-east, and the city of Kobé lies 32 kilometres to the west. The river Yodo runs through the city, and with the numerous canals that connect with it affords excellent transportation facilities by water. The Yodo rises in Lake Biwa, the largest fresh water lake in Japan, and branches off into the Shin Yodogawa, Okawa, Dojimagawa, Tosaborigawa, Ajikawa, Kizugawa and the Shirinashigawa, which in turn connect with numerous canals, the most famous being the Dotombori Canal.

Area The area of the city of Osaka is 187.37 square kilometres which means it ranks third so far as the area is concerned exceeded by Tokyo and Kyoto, but in point of population it is the largest, next only to Tokyo. Its city limits were extended twice in its history, the first time in 1897 and the second in 1925. The city is divided into 15 ku (wards) which are: Kita, Nishi, Minami, Higashi, Konohana, Minato Taisho, Tennoji, Naniwa, Nishiyodogawa, Higashiyodogawa, Higashinari, Asahi, Sumiyoshi, and Nishinari.

Population The estimated population of Osaka was on Oct. 1, 1938, 3,321,200 men numbering 1,773,500 and women 1,547,700, according to the Cabinet Bureau of Statistics. The comparison of the last 4 years follow:

Population, 1934-1937.

	Men	Women	Total	Households
1934 (Oct. 1)	1,445,000	1,277,700	2,722,700	—
1935 (Oct. 1) (Census)	1,594,151	1,395,716	2,989,866	630,232
1936 (Oct. 1)	1,654,900	1,447,000	3,101,900	653,900
1937 (Oct. 1)	1,715,100	1,497,900	3,213,000	677,800
1938 (Oct. 1)	1,773,500	1,547,700	3,321,200	—

Each of the 15 ku (wards) is inhabited by a population of more than 100,000, with the Minato-ku 341,800 Higashinari-ku 343,000 and Sumiyoshi-ku, 319,300, according to the investigation of 1937.

The population of Japan could be dividable in 1935 between 22, 666,307 (32.7%) of urban districts and 46,587,841 (67.3%) of rural districts and the population Osaka was 13.2% of the entire urban population.

In 1937 births numbered 87,144 (27.1 per 1,000 of population) of which 44,946 were male and 42,197 female, increase of 1,815 (2%) and decrease of 0.4% in rate of birth in comparison with the previous year. In the same year deaths numbered 49,571 (15.4 per 1,000 of population) of which 26,486 were male and 23,085 female.

In the same year still-births totalled 5,800 (1.81 per 1,000 of population) of which male numbered 3,202 and female 2,471, and 30% of the still births were of the parents unmarried.

Deaths occured most numerously in December and the least in May. 10,190 (21%) of the deaths took place in the ages under 1.

As for the causes of deaths, 96.4% were illness and 1.2% suicide. Of the deseases 13.0% were pneumonia and 12.3% tuberculosis.

Residents from Overseas territories and Foreign Countries, Coreans residing in Osaka at the end of 1936 were 224,749 (133,806 being men and 90,943 women), an increase of 22,438 over 1935. Formosans numbered 175 (107 being men

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Continents	Export		Import	
	Amount	%	Amount	%
Europe	30,466,273	3.6	87,418,469	10.5
North America	23,344,303	2.7	359,188,694	43.0
South America	27,403,846	3.2	42,636,572	5.1
Oceania	13,170,355	1.5	39,054,911	4.7
Central America	10,311,724	1.2	6,933,046	0.8
Total	853,104,864	100.0	835,182,960	100.0
1938 total	795,329,000	—	518,076,000	—

Transportation

Roads At the end of 1937 the total road area of Osaka was 13,909 square km., 7.4% of the entire area of the city and the total road length was 2,565,000 metres. The total area of paved roads was 6,280,000 sq. metres, an increase of 13.4% compared with the previous year.

Rivers, Canals and Bridges Osaka is the Venice of Japan in that there are many canals, and to that fact she owes much of her development as a big commercial and manufacturing center. Rivers that run through the city number 12 and canals four which are serving the city as effective means of transportations. The total length of rivers in 1937 was 182,980 metres and the total number of bridges was 1,318 in the same year.

Tramway and Bus Lines At the end of March, 1938 the business kilometerage of street tramways was 106.6 kilometres, the number of passenger cars in use counting 765. The total number of passengers in 1937 was 276,191,000 (5.0% increase from 1936) and the total revenue ¥15,410,000 (4.6% increase from 1936). All tramway lines and some bus lines are operated by the Municipality.

The subway work was first started in 1930 and its operation between Shinsaibashi and Umeda was inaugurated in 1933, and then the line was extended southward from Shinsaibashi to Namba in October, 1935, the total business kilometerage on December 31, 1937 being 4.1 and the number of cars 23. The total number of passengers in the whole year of 1937 was 16,644,000 with fares totalling ¥1,441,000. The subway lines are also operated by the city.

Suburban Electric Railways On March 31, 1937 there were 9 private companies operating suburban electric lines to various suburban points with a total kilometerage of 929 carrying 1,161,000 passengers per day in average and fares per day being ¥135,000.

These Companies are Nankai Railway Company, Hanshin Electric Railway Company, Hanshin Express Railway Company, Keihan Electric Railway Company, Osaka Denki Kido Company, Sangu Electric Railway Company, Osaka Railway Company, Hankyu Electric Railway Company, Hankai Electric Railway Company, Hamadera, Kishiwada, Wakayama, Nara, Yoshinoyama, Ujiyamada and Kuwana and chief points that are reached by those electric railways.

Sea Transportation The Osaka Harbor is one of the three largest ports in Japan and steamships that entered the port in 1936 numbered 24,486 (21.7% increase from 1935). Sail boats numbered 189,653 (29.1% increase from 1935).

Airways Osaka is an important airway point in Japan. The Nippon Air Transportation Company is operating its regular airway passenger service with Osaka as a center-point, Tokyo to Osaka and Osaka to Fukuoka, thence to various points of Chosen and also southward to Taiwan. The Nippon Air Transport Institute is operating the air way service between Osaka and Beppu and between Osaka and Shirahama. In 1937 passengers who left from the Kizugawa airport numbered 4,822 and those who arrived 5,302.

Education

On March 1, 1937, there were Kindergartens and schools in Osaka totalling 941 against 765 of the previous year; teachers, professors and nurses numbering 15,885 against 13,895 of the previous year; and pupils and students 517,953 against 485,201 of 1936. Schools and kindergartens established by the Municipality numbered 529: schools alone established by the Prefecture and the Government 30; and private schools and kindergartens 382.

Kindergartens numbered 121 on March 1, 1937, children enrolled numbering 14,750 and nurses 551. Attendants in elementary schools totalled 359,439, on March 1, 1937, with their teachers numbering 7,108. Middle schools and schools of the same grade totalled 79, with pupils numbering 64,244. Institutions for higher and university education were 10 in number, faculties totalling 793 and students 7,843.

Furthermore, there were on March 1, 1937, Young Men's Schools numbering

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295 in all, with teaching forces of 2,419 and pupils counting 37,933.

Educational expenditure of the Municipality for 1936 was ¥21,219,000 an increase of ¥5,430,000 (34.4%) over 1935. Of this expenditure for education 39.1% was for salaries.

Universities and colleges in Osaka are the Osaka Imperial University (governmental), the Osaka University of Commerce (municipal), Osaka Higher School (governmental), the Osaka School of Foreign Languages (governmental), the Kansai University (private), Naniwa Commercial College (private), Osaka Girls' College (prefectural), etc. At the end of March, 1936 there were 13 libraries, 1 being under governmental maintenance, 6 under municipal maintenance and 6 of private ownership. In the governmental library there were 271,170 books on March 31, 1937.

Social Welfare Works

Relief of the Poor Since the issuance by the Government in 1874 of the relief regulation, the municipality of Osaka has active interest in the relief of the poor, old-aged and deserted children. More recently it has undertaken to institute various social works directed for the prevention of poverty. In 1936 three municipal maternity homes received 5,633 expectant mothers of small means and births numbering 4,616 were obtained, still-births numbering 330.

Protection of Infants & Children At the end of 1936 there were 40 nurseries, 12 poor children educational homes; 7 blind and deaf protection homes; 9 minors protection houses; and 16 children health consultation offices. Infants who were received in the 40 nurseries totalled 2,782.

Employment Exchanges The municipality also maintain 23 employment exchanges and 2 training place for work-seekers. The employment exchanges gave work to 42,224 men and 17,609 women during 1936.

Medical Relief On March 31, 1937 there were 60 relief hospitals. The total number of patients treated in all the relief-hospitals was 4,892,546 (out-patients) and 11,340 (in-patients) in 1936.

Social Education Work In 1936 there were 19 institutes for the social education work, of which 7 were under municipal management. Protection of infants and children, assistance to advice-seekers on matters of health, law, etc. and holding of necessary lectures for social educational purposes etc. are the works that are being carried on by the 19 institutes.

Unemployment In 1936 there were 28,105 unemployed per day in average including 7,328 Coreans, according to the Municipal Social Bureau. This unemployment number was 0.91% of the entire population of the city and a reduction of 14.2% from 1935. Though there was a reduction of 19.67% in Japanese there was an increase of 5.9% in the Corean unemployment.

Municipal Finance

The fiscal year 1938 budget was formulated, taking into consideration the need of meeting all that was urgent for the healthy expansion of the city and the promotion of the welfare of the citizens and it was balanced at ¥374,312,000, 0.4% increase over the previous year. The main items for which the expenditure was alloted cover the following: ¥152,314,000 for the city planning work; ¥65,098,000 for extension of equipment work for the supply of electricity; and ¥32,086,000 for the extension of water work.

The municipal loans aggregated ¥562,422,000 on May 31, 1937.

Kyoto

Kyoto, known in antiquity by the name of "Heian" (the city of peace), was for about a thousand years the metropolis of Japan. At the Restoration, the Emperor Meiji moved his capital to Tokyo, but Kyoto retained its position as a cultural centre, and today it is looked upon as "the classic city" and the leader of culture in the western part of the country. The city, lying in what is called the Kyoto basin, is surrounded by many famous hills and mountains such as Arashiyama, Atagoyama, Kuramayama, Hiéizan and Higashiyama. The area of the city is 288.65 square kilometres, the greatest length from N. to S. is a little over 26 kilometres and the greatest breadth is about 25 kilometres, the form being roughly rectangular. Osaka lies 43 kilometres to the southwest.

Boundaries The boundaries of the city have undergone considerable changes since 1888. At that date the first annexation of adjacent villages was made, a second extension was made in 1902 and a third in 1918. In 1929 three wards, Nakagyo-ku, Sakyo-ku, and Higashiya-

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Continents	Export		Import	
	Amount	%	Amount	%
Europe	30,466,273	3.6	87,418,469	10.5
North America	23,344,303	2.7	359,188,694	43.0
South America	27,403,846	3.2	42,636,572	5.1
Oceania	13,170,355	1.5	39,054,911	4.7
Central America	10,311,724	1.2	6,933,046	0.8
Total	853,104,864	100.0	835,182,960	100.0
1938 total	795,329,000	—	518,076,000	—

Transportation

Roads At the end of 1937 the total road area of Osaka was 13,909 square km., 7.4% of the entire area of the city and the total road length was 2,565,000 metres. The total area of paved roads was 6,280,000 sq. metres, an increase of 13.4% compared with the previous year.

Rivers, Canals and Bridges Osaka is the Venice of Japan in that there are many canals, and to that fact she owes much of her development as a big commercial and manufacturing center. Rivers that run through the city number 12 and canals four which are serving the city as effective means of transportations. The total length of rivers in 1937 was 182,980 metres and the total number of bridges was 1,318 in the same year.

Tramway and Bus Lines At the end of March, 1938 the business kilometerage of street tramways was 106.6 kilometres, the number of passenger cars in use counting 765. The total number of passengers in 1937 was 276,191,000 (5.0% increase from 1936) and the total revenue ¥15,410,000 (4.6% increase from 1936). All tramway lines and some bus lines are operated by the Municipality.

The subway work was first started in 1930 and its operation between Shinsaibashi and Umeda was inaugurated in 1933, and then the line was extended southward from Shinsaibashi to Namba in October, 1935, the total business kilometerage on December 31, 1937 being 4.1 and the number of cars 23. The total number of passengers in the whole year of 1937 was 16,644,000 with fares totalling ¥1,441,000. The subway lines are also operated by the city.

Suburban Electric Railways On March 31, 1937 there were 9 private companies operating suburban electric lines to various suburban points with a total kilometerage of 929 carrying 1,161,000 passengers per day in average and fares per day being ¥135,000.

These Companies are Nankai Railway Company, Hanshin Electric Railway Company, Hanshin Express Railway Company, Keihan Electric Railway Company, Osaka Denki Kido Company, Sangu Electric Railway Company, Osaka Railway Company, Hankyu Electric Railway Company, Hankai Electric Railway Company, Hamadera, Kishiwada, Wakayama, Nara, Yoshinoyama, Ujiyamada and Kuwana and chief points that are reached by those electric railways.

Sea Transportation The Osaka Harbor is one of the three largest ports in Japan and steamships that entered the port in 1936 numbered 24,486 (21.7% increase from 1935). Sail boats numbered 189,653 (29.1% increase from 1935).

Airways Osaka is an important airway point in Japan. The Nippon Air Transportation Company is operating its regular airway passenger service with Osaka as a center-point, Tokyo to Osaka and Osaka to Fukuoka, thence to various points of Chosen and also southward to Taiwan. The Nippon Air Transport Institute is operating the air way service between Osaka and Beppu and between Osaka and Shirahama. In 1937 passengers who left from the Kizugawa airport numbered 4,822 and those who arrived 5,302.

Education

On March 1, 1937, there were Kindergartens and schools in Osaka totalling 941 against 765 of the previous year; teachers, professors and nurses numbering 15,885 against 13,895 of the previous year; and pupils and students 517,953 against 485,201 of 1936. Schools and kindergartens established by the Municipality numbered 529: schools alone established by the Prefecture and the Government 30; and private schools and kindergartens 382.

Kindergartens numbered 121 on March 1, 1937, children enrolled numbering 14,750 and nurses 551. Attendants in elementary schools totalled 359,439, on March 1, 1937, with their teachers numbering 7,108. Middle schools and schools of the same grade totalled 79, with pupils numbering 64,244. Institutions for higher and university education were 10 in number, faculties totalling 793 and students 7,843.

Furthermore, there were on March 1, 1937, Young Men's Schools numbering

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first Biwa Canal, completed in 1895 at the cost of ¥1,838,317, was designed for the conveyance of passengers and goods and for the supply of water power, while the second canal, completed lately at the cost of ¥4,477,805, supplies water for drinking, fire-brigades and for producing electricity, etc.

The waterworks were started in 1908 and completed in March, 1912, at the cost of ¥3,000,000 of which ¥750,000 came from the State treasury. The water is drawn from Lake Biwa by means of the second canal mentioned above and supplies water to 500,000 people. Further work, to cater to the needs of 200,000 people, is on the way. The supply in 1936-37 was 46,883,229 cubic metres to 154,667 households.

Education

Governmental and Prefectural: Kyoto Imperial University, the Third Higher School, Kyoto Higher Industrial and Art School, Kyoto Higher Sericultural School, Kyoto Sangyo Koshujo (School of Sericulture).

Municipal schools: Kyoto Painting School.

Private schools: Ritsumeikan University, Doshisha University, Ryukoku University, Otani University, Shingonshu University, Buddhist School, Military Arts School.

NUMBER OF EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTES

(March 1, 1937)

	No.	Instructors	Students
Kindergartens	50	180	4,484
Elementary schools	142	3,049	131,118
Blind, deaf and dumb schools	2	49	232
Girls' high schools	15	476	11,466
Middle schools	16	419	8,220
Technical schools	16	551	13,516
Normal schools	2	97	849
Higher schools	1	69	713
Colleges	16	691	6,411
Universities	6	995	9,790
Young People's schools	134	933	12,245
Miscelleneous schools	42	624	8,279
Total	442	8,133	207,323

Libraries and Museums There are also in Kyoto other institutions for educational purposes as the Imperial Gift Museum, Kyoto Municipal Library, Kyoto Fine Arts Museum, and the Memorial Zoological Garden.

Shrines and Temples In 1936 the numbers of Buddhist temples and Shinto shrines for which Kyoto is famous were 403 shrines, 334 preaching places of sectarian Shinto sects, 1,418 Buddhist temples, while Christian churches numbered 52.

Social Work

Conditions of social undertakings under municipal management in 1936-37 were:

	No. of establishments			
Public markets	13		Sales account	2,528,904
Housing	5	places	No. of houses	250
Public baths	6	houses	Bathers	1,670,330
Labour exchanges	3		Cases handled	44,620
			Employed	14,885
Lodging houses	1		Lodgers	28,169
Lunch-room	1		Meals	94,713

Finance

The annual revenue and expenditure, both general and special, of Kyoto amounted to:

Fiscal Year	Revenue (In ¥1,000)	Expenditure
1932-33	37,517	37,002
1933-34	26,083	36,302
1934-35	27,453	37,884
1935-36	28,527	42,869
1936-37	30,608	43,945
1937-38	45,187	49,753

Municipal debts outstanding on May 31, 1937 totalled ¥56,976,478 or ¥51.45 per capita of population.

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ma-ku were newly added to the city. In 1931 the last annexation was made and two more wards, Ukyo-ku and Fushimi-ku, were constituted.

Population The population grew from 717,100 in 1927, to 736,000 in 1928, to 755,200 in 1929, and due to the above mentioned extensions in the boundaries, was found in 1930, to be 952,397. On October 1, 1935 the total number of population in Kyoto was 1,080,593, that of households was 224,663. The estimated number of population on October 1, 1937, was 1,133,900, and that of households was 235,700.

Industry and Commerce

In 1936 the conditions of factories in Kyoto were as follows:

	Factories	Operatives	Production (In yen)
Textile	1,157	33,450	88,171,441
Metallurgical	124	2,918	15,575,187
Machinery	220	9,797	25,990,722
Ceramics	53	1,536	3,884,694
Chemical	84	2,159	14,607,699
Saw milling & wood work	137	1,409	4,979,190
Printing & binding	83	1,818	3,810,569
Foodstuffs	292	4,721	34,655,642
Electric & gas	25	391	6,490,995
Miscellaneous	125	1,925	5,236,286
Total	2,300	60,124	203,402,425

TOTAL INDUSTRIAL PRODUCTION OF KYOTO
(1936)

Kind of Industry	Amount in yen
Agriculture	4,986,447
Livestock	4,828,597
Forestry	380,136
Mineral	247,559
Fisheries	50,313
Factries (including all petty shops)	305,131,031
Total	315,624,083
1935	298,761,715
1934	264,128,150

Foreign Trade Not being a port Kyoto cannot carry on trade with foreign countries direct except by parcel post, but the goods consigned to and from foreign countries through other ports were (in ¥1,000).

	1933	1934	1935	1936
Exports	28,270	38,984	42,490	37,272
Imports	5,315	8,198	9,528	8,443

Banking Statistics Figures concerning the banks in the city are quoted below:

(In ¥1,000)

At the end of	No. of Banks	Deposits	Loans
1932	88	453,702	156,344
1933	85	474,504	178,553
1934	80	494,295	208,386
1935	80	535,339	179,773
1936	71	680,692	185,964

Commercial and Industrial Corporations At the end of 1936 there were 2,954 companies in Kyoto. Their paid-up capital amounted to ¥314,140,000. The Kyoto Stock Exchange sold, in the short term section, 12,514,760 shares with the value of ¥1,406,988,000 and delivered 1,563,830 sares with the value of ¥138,711,000.

Transportation

Vehicles At the end of 1936 the number of vehicles was 226,244, including 198 rikisha, 2,851 automobiles and 161,099 bicycles.

Municipal Tramways In 1936-37 the total length of the lines was 66.7 km. and carried 105,993,731 passengers, while the bus ran on 54.7 km. of the lines and carried 12,657,538.

State Railways In 1936-37 the number of passengers who moved through Kyoto and other seven stations in the city was 21,346,437.

Suburban Electric Railways On the north the Eizan Electric Railway extends from Demachi Bridge to Kurama and Mount Hiéi; on the northwest the Arashiyama line starts Shijoomiya and goes to Arashiyama and connects with the Atago Electric line. To the south Kyoto is connected with Osaka and Nara by three electric railways, i.e. Kei-han Electric, Shin (new) Keihan Electric and Nara Electric. The Kei-han line extends to the east from the terminal of Sanjō to the city of Otsu by Lake Biwa.

Rivers, Water-Power Works

Rivers Almost all the rivers that meet in the Kyoto Basin, rise in the Tamba tableland. The Hozu River, which later changes its name into the Katsura River, touches the western side of the city; the Kamo River and the Takano River, rise in the southern part of the tableland, join together and flow across the city to empty into the Katsura River. The Uji River, starting from Lake Biwa, and the Katsura River meet in the southern suburbs of the city to form the Yodo River which flows south-westwards, through Osaka, into Osaka Bay.

Canal and Water-power Work The

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In 1937, the turnover of the Stock Exchange was 122,400 shares long term transaction valued at ¥11,157,146. The Rice Exchange handled 29,100 koku (¥4,300,500) while the Cotton Yarn Exchange handled 3,155,480 bales.

Industry Commodities that are brought into city are foodstuffs and raw materials such as rice, sugar, timber, coal, ginned cotton, iron, wool, etc., while those sent out are mainly lumber, coal, cotton piecegoods, porcelain and pottery, beer, cement and other manufactures. Nagoya has been from olden times a famous place for porcelain and pottery and in 1937 the output totalled as much as ¥28,317,417. It is only since the growth of the cotton spinning industry in the city that the value of the annual output of pottery has been challenged. The total production of the cotton spinning industry reached ¥194,529,129 in 1937. An equally significant development is that of the machine and machinery. In 1937 the total output of machine industry reached ¥161,639,657, an increase of 47.1 per cent as compared with the previous year.

Number of Factories and Production Number of factories employing more than 5 operatives and productions of various industries in 1937 follow:

Kind of industries	Factories		Operatives		Output (in ¥1,000)	
	1936	1937	1936	1937	1936	1937
Textile	605	758	27,373	32,053	164,617	194,529
Metallic	384	528	6,290	9,031	17,770	33,478
Machine and tool	853	1,070	37,515	49,901	109,854	161,640
Pottery and porcelain	228	223	12,155	12,895	25,342	28,317
Chemical	142	182	3,677	6,254	25,421	48,486
Saw mills and wood works	599	769	7,712	8,195	28,602	36,274
Printing and bookbinding	203	247	2,840	2,810	13,237	16,455
Comestibles and beverages	420	521	4,012	4,573	45,470	49,088
Gas and electric	3	3	262	276	9,155	6,556
Others	737	1,009	6,290	7,428	27,305	39,922
Total	4,173	5,310	108,126	133,416	466,778	614,745

Transportation

Railways Lying as it does between Kyoto, the old capital, and Tokyo, the present capital, Nagoya is known as Chukyo (middle capital). It is an important intermediate city on the Tokaido highway. The Kwansai line, which starts from Osaka, passes through Nara and Miyé prefectures and connects at Nagoya with the main Tokaido line to Tokyo. The Chuo line, which runs through Gifu, Nagano, Yamanashi and other prefectures to Tokyo, has Nagoya as its other terminus. Nagoya is thus one of the most important railway centres of Japan. The railway station and the harbour are directly connected by rail and the importance of the city as a distributor of goods is thereby enhanced. There are 8 stations, viz., Nagoya, Nagoya-Minato, Atsuta, Chikusa, Ozoné, Hatta, Shiratori, and Horikawaguchi. The annual passenger traffic passing through these 8 stations is estimated at about fifteen million persons, and goods traffic amounts to approximately four million tons. The city is provided with an extensive network of electric railway lines to connect with outlying districts. Since 1935 the city bought several private electric railways, and now only two private ones are left, i. e. the Seto Electric Railway Co. and the Nagoyo Electric Railway Co., and most of electric car business is run by the municipality, the total mileage being 153,152 kilometres.

At the end of 1937 the total length of roads in Nagoya extended to 3,388 kilometres, the number of bridges 710, that of vehicles 191,395 in 1936 and 211,118 in 1937.

Harbour Works Nagoya has a splendid harbour well protected by Chita Peninsula from typhoons. Construction of the harbour was started in 1896 and the third stage of the entire plan was completed in 1928 after a total outlay of ¥15,490,000. The area of the wharves is 1.52 square kilometres, with anchoring space for thirty-eight steamers of ten thousand tons or so. The fourth stage of construction was undertaken at an estimated expenditure of ¥10,120,000. When the work is finished the area of the wharves will be increased to 2.23 square kilometres and there will be anchoring space for fifty-two steamers of ten thousand tons. At present direct trade is carried on with the American

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continent, Europe, China, the South Sea Islands, Australia and Africa. The number of ships which entered the Nagoya harbour in 1937 was 54,491 with an aggregate tonnage of 16,316,390.

Education and Social Work

Social Work Social undertakings in the city in 1937-38, were as follows:

	Establishment	Beneficiaries
Lodging houses	7	152,291
Public pawnshops	5	Persons 53,195 Loans ¥266,080
Labour exchanges	10	Cases handled 433,411
Public markets	14	Amount of sale ¥2,920,157

Educational Facilities In March, 1938 the number of schools and pupils in Nagoya was 410 and 245,153 respectively classified as follows: 41 kindergartens with 3,949 children; 120 elementary schools with 165,233 pupils; 180 secondary schools including the young people's schools with 62,305 pupils; 7 collegiate schools including one university with 2,964 students, 2 blind and deaf-mute schools with 384 pupils; and 58 miscellaneous schools with 10,007 students.

Among the above mentioned schools those belonging to the municipality in 1936 were:

Kind of schools	No.	Classes	Instructors	Pupils
Elementary schools	109	2,686	2,977	6,530
Girls' high schools	3	—	85	2,676
Commercial schools	3	—	99	2,594
Technical school	1	—	40	605
Young peoples' schools	100	—	1,056	12,810
Business continuation schools	29	—	417	8,517
Kindergartens	4	23	24	687

Total educational expenditure including others ¥6,639,509

Finance

Revenue and Expenditure The annual revenue and expenditure of Nagoya city has shown a marked increase of late as it is clear by the following table:

Year	Revenue	Expenditure		
		Ordinary	Special	Total
	¥	¥	¥	¥
1928-29	19,438,161	11,663,553	7,275,835	18,939,388
1929-30	25,390,085	18,219,390	7,034,796	25,254,186
1930-31	31,477,355	23,545,976	6,878,659	30,424,635
1931-32	37,963,011	28,946,961	7,126,598	36,073,559
1932-33	45,421,218	36,644,010	7,163,058	43,807,068
1933-34	84,689,082	76,511,764	7,578,021	84,089,785
1934-35	35,894,410	25,738,008	10,156,402	35,894,410
1935-36	54,043,639	44,205,138	7,838,501	54,043,639
1936-37	66,689,000	25,639,000	41,050,000	66,689,000
1937-38	59,442,000	19,435,000	40,007,000	59,442,000

Municipal Loans At the end of March, 1938, the total indebtedness of Nagoya city amounted to ¥113,610 or ¥463.33 per capita of household.

Yokohama

General

History Yokohama, in the Bunroku Era, about 1587, was a hamlet of twelve families and by the time it became an open port, July 1, 1859, it was only a small fishing village of one hundred families or 350 people. The real growth

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began with the arrival of the foreigners. The commercial treaties Japan entered into with the United States of America, the Netherlands, Russia, Great Britain, and France stipulated that Kanagawa should be an open port, because it stood on the open harbour nearest Tokyo, then known as Yedo and the seat of the Shogunate Government, but as that village was already very crowded the Tokugawa Shogunate opened up the village of Yokohama instead.

In the beginning four streets were laid out, but as more and more Western, Chinese and Japanese merchants gathered there the area was quickly extended. The population in 1877 was 30,000, five years later it had grown to 52,000, and five years after that there were more than 94,000 in the town. At the end of September, 1932, the population was 661,500. Yokohama received the status of a municipality on April 1, 1889. In 1901, the once thriving port of Kanagawa and other adjoining villages and towns were absorbed by the newly risen Yokohama, and in 1911 and 1927, further extensions took place.

Quake and Rehabilitation Yokohama and suburbs suffered severely in the great earthquake and fire which occurred on September 1, 1923. Practically the whole town was reduced to ruins and ashes, but with the untiring efforts of its citizens, together with generous support from outside, the reconstruction of the town was completed, as originally planned, within six years of the disaster. On April 22, 1929, His Majesty the Emperor honoured the city with a visit of inspection, and the following day the municipality celebrated the completion of its programme of reconstruction which, in truth, was the creation of a new city out of a pile of cinders.

On April 1, 1927, two adjoining towns and seven villages, with a population of 115,757, were annexed to the municipality, and on October 1 of the same year the whole city was re-divided into five wards; Tsurumi, Kanagawa, Naka, Hodogaya and Isogo. By that time the construction of the gigantic breakwaters, the reclamation at Namamugi and Koyasu and the extension of the waterworks was completed, and the perpetual land leases were being bought back by the municipality one after another.

Location Yokohama is situated in the south-eastern part of Honshu, the main island of Japan, on the western shore of the Bay of Tokyo about 22 miles from the entrance to the bay, in latitude 35° 27′ N., longitude 139° 38′ E. It is the seat of government of Kanagawa prefecture, of which it is also the largest population centre. It is surrounded by hills on which the better class residential districts are located.

Climate Yokohama's location on the Bay of Tokyo serves to modify the heat of summer, the nights being generally cool and comfortable. In the summer months there is an absence of rainfall. Rain is most abundant in June and September, the two rainy seasons of the year, at which times the humidity is trying, but never so bad that the climate is unbearable. In winter the sky is clear and the atmosphere crisp and invigorating. In February there is a short season of damp cold during which there are occasional snowfalls. From March spring begins, with bright sunny days and frequent strong winds. During the summer months typhoons are to be expected, but Yokohama harbour is protected from their violence.

Area and Population At the end of March, 1937 the area of Yokohama was 173.18 square kilometres. The population of Yokohama was 777,500 on October 1, 1938, of which 395,800 were male and 381,700 female.

POPULATION

October 1,	Men	Women	Total	Households
1925 (Census)	214,341	191,547	405,888	95,377
1930 (,,)	321,415	298,891	620,301	135,929
1931 (Estimate)	331,300	309,500	640,800	140,338
1932 (,,)	341,300	320,200	661,500	144,923
1933 (,,)	351,500	331,100	682,600	149,531
1934 (,,)	361,700	342,200	703,900	154,181
1935 (Census)	360,363	343,927	704,290	148,545
1936 (Estimate)	377,200	361,200	738,400	155,785
1937 (,,)	387,500	372,200	759,700	—
1938 (,,)	395,800	381,700	777,500	—

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continent, Europe, China, the South Sea Islands, Australia and Africa. The number of ships which entered the Nagoya harbour in 1937 was 54,491 with an aggregate tonnage of 16,316,390.

Education and Social Work

Social Work Social undertakings in the city in 1937-38, were as follows:

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EXPORTS

(In ¥1,000)

Articles	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936
Wheat flour	11,011	22,701	19,805	27,173	14,112
Canned Crab	10,377	17,726	13,945	18,362	15,753
Raw silk	262,252	274,691	204,640	283,771	296,601
Silk crepe	7,671	13,935	20,632	17,550	13,001
Electric lamps	9,026	7,750	6,935	5,763	8,330
Toys	9,360	15,184	17,498	17,945	20,285

IMPORTS

(¥1,000)

Articles	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936
Wheat	26,809	27,414	25,040	30,789	21,912
Crude oil & heavy oil	21,568	29,305	38,193	47,751	63,797
Rubber	3,267	5,705	12,571	11,944	17,781
Cotton	31,601	41,898	48,601	52,210	50,632
Wool	19,584	39,595	43,763	40,715	49,169
Coal	7,334	9,145	10,845	11,785	12,303
Automobiles & parts	9,226	8,988	19,073	20,581	20,020
Lumber	10,907	11,819	11,169	14,483	16,861
Soya beans	—	—	8,375	13,393	13,596

RAW SILK EXPORTED TO FOREIGN COUNTRIES FROM YOKOHAMA, 1936

Countries	Quantities Bale	Value ¥	Countries	Quantities Bale	Value ¥
U. S. A.	329,778	255,712,142	Australia	3,593	2,956,500
Canada	818	642,352	Other countries	7,456	4,414,488
Great Britain	20,338	16,527,531	Total	382,753	296,600,978
France	20,770	16,347,965	From all Japan	503,382	392,808,919

IN 1937 AND 1938

(In bales)

July—June	To U. S. A.	To Europe and others	Total
1937	353,465	47,543	401,008
1938	292,953	66,161	359,114

TRADE BOATS ENTERED YOKOHAMA DURING 1936 AND 1937

1936	Number of Ships	Tonnage
Japanese	1,686	6,341,808
Foreign	1,298	5,930,153
Total	2,984	12,271,961
1937 total	2,972	12,299,367

Industries

Factories and Production At the end of 1936 there were 152 factories for the spinning industry, 61 for the metallic industry, 169 for the machine and tool manufacturing industry and 75 for the chemical industry, all showing expansion compared with 1935, the most conspicuous one being the machine and tool which increased from 107 to 169. Both the number of workers and the amount of production also showed a corresponding increase, workers increasing from 47,625 to 57,600 and production from ¥374,409,880 to ¥433,616,100, an increase of 16 per cent.

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FACTORIES AND PRODUCTION IN YOKOHAMA

(in 1936)

Kind	Factories	Workers	Production (in yen)
Spinning	152	7,032	14,809,296
Metallic	61	8,914	68,586,385
Machine & tool	169	24,500	163,849,458
Ceramics	16	1,839	17,628,904
Chemical	75	5,990	104,486,005
Wood works	79	1,213	4,178,823
Printing & book binding	55	847	1,862,979
Commodities	128	3,881	47,739,704
Gas & Electricity	4	392	—
Miscellaneous	203	2,992	10,474,546
Total	942	57,600	433,616,100

Note: This table excludes small factories operated by less than 5 workers.

Transportation

Ships The total tonnage of vessels that entered the port of Yokohama in 1936 reached 29,896,663. Details follow :

SHIPS ENTERED AND WENT OUT THE PORT OF YOKOHAMA IN 1936

	Clearance		Entrance	
	No. of Vessels	Tonnage	No. of Vessels	Tonnage
Total	72,132	29,987,669	72,071	29,896,663
S. S. Foreign lines	3,009	20,157,022	2,970	19,927,154
S. S. Domestic lines	3,034	7,495,212	3,059	7,637,330
	1,640	80,711	16,41	80,739
Small S. S.	223	2,933	224	2,946
Motor boats	24,568	644,111	24,540	644,133
Sailing boats Foreign lines	15	23,830	11	23,366
Sailing boats Domestic lines	6,413	220,984	6,411	220,209
Lighters	32,930	1,362,866	32,915	1,360,786
1935	67,377	29,060,389	66,860	29,073,880
1934	66,176	26,294,086	65,989	26,396,672

Passengers Passengers by ocean-going vessels who landed and called at Yokohama in 1936 totalled 66,559 of whom 23,409 were those whose sea journeys ended at Yokohama and 43,150 were those who just called.

Below are given the nationalities of the passengers :

Nationalities	Number	
	Those who landed	Those who called
Japanese	12,261	6,388
Chines	1,823	15,974
British	2,673	3,331
French	121	118
German	442	396
American	4,809	12,053
Other foreigners	1,280	4,890
Total	23,409	43,150

Railway Passengers In 1936 the Government railway passenger who left and arrived at Yokohama, Sakuragicho, Tsurumi, Higashi-kanagawa and Hodogaya stations numbered 52,269,890.

Electric Tramways Tramways were first installed in July, 1904, by a private company and later were purchased by the municipality. There are now over 92 kilometres of lines and carried 45,443,591 persons in 1936. There are five private tramway companies attending to the suburban services, viz., the Keihin Electric Tramway, the Tokyo-Yokohama Electric Ry., Tsurumi-Rinko Ry. Co., Shonan-Electric Ry., and the Jinchu Electric Ry. The number of passengers of these private tramways for 1935 was 45,123,969.

Miscellaneous In 1936 the area occupied by the roads was 8,643,311 sq. m. of which 1,574,234 sq. m. was paved.

In March, 1934, the total number of vehicles was 97,524, of which automobiles numbered 1,405 while bicycles totalled 78,713.

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EXPORTS

(In ¥1,000)

Articles	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936
Wheat flour	11,011	22,701	19,805	27,173	14,112
Canned Crab	10,377	17,726	13,945	18,362	15,753
Raw silk	262,252	274,691	204,640	283,771	296,601
Silk crepe	7,671	13,935	20,632	17,550	13,001
Electric lamps	9,026	7,750	6,935	5,763	8,330
Toys	9,360	15,184	17,498	17,945	20,285

IMPORTS

(¥1,000)

Articles	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936
Wheat	26,809	27,414	25,040	30,789	21,912
Crude oil & heavy oil	21,568	29,305	38,193	47,751	63,797
Rubber	3,267	5,705	12,571	11,944	17,781
Cotton	31,601	41,898	48,601	52,210	50,632
Wool	19,584	39,595	43,763	40,715	49,169
Coal	7,334	9,145	10,845	11,785	12,303
Automobiles & parts	9,226	8,988	19,073	20,581	20,020
Lumber	10,907	11,819	11,169	14,483	16,861
Soya beans	—	—	8,375	13,393	13,596

RAW SILK EXPORTED TO FOREIGN COUNTRIES FROM YOKOHAMA, 1936

Countries	Quantities Bale	Value ¥	Countries	Quantities Bale	Value ¥
U. S. A.	329,778	255,712,142	Australia	3,593	2,956,500
Canada	818	642,352	Other countries	7,456	4,414,488
Great Britain	20,338	16,527,531	Total	382,753	296,600,978
France	20,770	16,347,965	From all Japan	503,382	392,808,919

IN 1937 AND 1938

(In bales)

July—June	To U. S. A.	To Europe and others	Total
1937	353,465	47,543	401,008
1938	292,953	66,161	359,114

TRADE BOATS ENTERED YOKOHAMA DURING 1936 AND 1937

1936	Number of Ships	Tonnage
Japanese	1,686	6,341,808
Foreign	1,298	5,930,153
Total	2,984	12,271,961
1937 total	2,972	12,299,367

Industries

Factories and Production At the end of 1936 there were 152 factories for the spinning industry, 61 for the metallic industry, 169 for the machine and tool manufacturing industry and 75 for the chemical industry, all showing expansion compared with 1935, the most conspicuous one being the machine and tool which increased from 107 to 169. Both the number of workers and the amount of production also showed a corresponding increase, workers increasing from 47,625 to 57,600 and production from ¥374,409,880 to ¥433,616,100, an increase of 16 per cent.

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FACTORIES AND PRODUCTION IN YOKOHAMA

(in 1936)

Kind	Factories	Workers	Production (in yen)
Spinning	152	7,032	14,809,296
Metallic	61	8,914	68,586,365
Machine & tool	169	24,500	163,849,458
Ceramics	16	1,839	17,628,904
Chemical	75	5,990	104,486,005
Wood works	79	1,213	4,178,823
Printing & book binding	55	847	1,862,979
Commodities	128	3,881	47,739,704
Gas & Electricity	4	392	—
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Education

Schools and Colleges At the end of April, 1936, there were 71 elementary schools, of which 68 were maintained by the municipality. The number of children at these schools was 104,980.

There were 22 kindergartens with 1,239 children.

The number of middle grade, higher, and special schools and their pupils follows :

	No.	Students or pupils
Middle schools	6	4,606
Girls' high schools	9	6,067
Technical schools	13	6,715
Yonug people's schools	41	8,459
Blind, deaf and mute schools	3	195
Colleges:	5	3,373
Prefectural normal school	1	230
Miscellaneous schools	41	6,929

Libraries The library statistics as of March 1, 1936 were as follows :

	No.	Books	Visitors
Prefectural	1	10,012	1,580
Municipal	1	42,515	260,547
Private	2	22,560	10,654
Total	4	75,087	272,781

Religion At the end of 1936 the number of Shinto shrines was 159, Buddhist temples 229, and Christian churches 33.

Social Works In 1936 the conditions of social works in Yokohama were as follows :

	Establishments		Beneficiaries
Employment exchanges	4	cases	372,153
		employed	348,670
Lunch halls	5		46,568
Pawnshops	12	Loans	¥713,885
Dwelling houses	2,014	Households	1,536
Lodging houses	2		91,016
Poor relief			17,568

Finance

Revenue and Expenditure The totals of revenue and expenditure of the city of Yokohama for the past 5 years were as follows :

	Total	Ordinary Account	Enterprises	Miscellaneous
		(In yen)		
Revenue				
1937-38 (estimate)	30,534,552	16,390,679	11,911,246	2,232,627
1936-37 („)	28,878,427	14,896,733	11,993,104	1,988,590
1935-36 (settled)	33,816,790	15,241,966	9,647,703	8,927,121
1934-35 („)	24,239,521	13,281,806	8,964,237	1,993,478
1933-34 („)	31,674,569	40,025,159	10,149,905	1,499,505
Expenditure				
1937-38 (estimate)	31,060,760	16,985,676	11,492,955	2,582,129
1936-37 („)	29,651,333	15,360,666	11,762,604	2,528,043
1935-36 (settled)	33,414,266	15,131,298	9,534,025	8,748,944
1934-35 („)	25,755,770	15,200,874	8,779,472	1,775,424
1933-34 („)	27,962,442	16,613,875	9,809,917	1,644,021

In 1937-38 budget of Yokohama the total amount of ordinary expenditure was estimated at ¥17,106,991. Itemized details follow :

Items	Amount in yen	Percentage	Items	Amount in yen	Percentage
Municipal office	1,112,157	6.5	Public works	2,134,244	12.4
Education	3,617,249	21.1	Loans	8,301,149	48.5
Industry	247,419	1.4	Miscellaneous	585,248	3.4
Hygiene	642,918	3.8	Total	17,106,991	100.0
Social works	466,607	2.7			

Note: The total differs from that given in the preceding table because of some overlappings with other accounts.

Bonded Indebtedness At the end of 1936, the total bonded indebtedness of Yokohama city amounted to ¥176,968,346.

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March 31 of	Rikisha	Wagons and Carts	Automobiles	Autocycles	Bicycles
1931	1,046	15,336	1,549	684	65,379
1932	801	12,527	1,549	771	68,847
1933	654	12,151	1,584	862	71,609
1934	489	10,792	1,598	989	74,030
1935	302	8,591	1,656	973	72,614
At the end of					
1935	334	6,652	2,333	1,572	61,988
1936	282	7,473	—	—	71,633

Railways In 1936 the total number of passengers who left from and arrived at 12 stations in Kobé was 53,334,000

Electric Tramways The tramways within the city limits are operated by the municipality, the total open mileage being 31.391 km. at the end of 1936. Attending to the suburban service, there are private companies, the Sanyo Eectric Tramway (Hyogo-Himeji), Han-Shin Electric Ry., (Kobé-Osaka), Han-Shin Express Electric Ry., (Kobé-Osaka), and the Shin-Yu Electric Railway (Kobé-Arima). Han-Shin Kokudo Ry. was laid along the national road between Osaka and Kobé in 1927 and opened business in 1932, forming a parallel line to the state railway.

Education, Religion and Social Works

Schools In 1936 the number of elementary schools was 78, including 66 municipal schools, with 2,606 teachers and 117,576 pupils. Middle schools numbered 33, of which 10 were prefectural schools and 16 were private schools, with 1,011 teachers and 25,609 students. Kindergartens numbered 46 with 180 nurses and 4,010 children. Young people's schools numbered 43, of which 7 were private schools, with 579 teachers and 17,178 students. There is a government university of commerce and a technical college. Above these schools there are 40 miscellaneous business schools with 475 teachers and 9,113 students. Budget for educational expenditure for 1937 was ¥11,781,231.

Shrines, Temples and Churches At the end of 1935 there were 100 Shinto shrines, 152 Buddhist temples, 397 Tenrikyo and Shinto churches, 254 Buddhist halls, and 55 Christian churches.

Social Welfare Work At the end of 1935 municipal establishments for social welfare work were as follows:

Markets, 11; cheap eating-houses, 6; employment exchanges, 4; public nurseries, 2; lodging-houses, 4; child consultation offices, 1; municipal dwelling-houses, 2 places; municipal pawnshops, 3; relief houses, 2; peoples' hospitals, 3; sanatorium, 1.

Finance

Budget for 1938 of Kobé was ¥63,292,113. It shows a decrease of ¥848,135 compared with the previous year. The net revenue and expenditure of the municipality for the past five years follow (in yen):

	Revenue	Expenditure
1934-35	47,859,605	44,436,858
1935-36	54,049,813	48,522,747
1936-37	62,522,556	57,118,620
1937-38 (budget)	55,570,716	59,095,264
1938-39 („)	56,606,268	58,204,774

The total amount of the city loans standing at the end of May, 1937, was ¥114,739,200. The loans and the sum borrowed in cash in the fiscal year 1936-37 was ¥125,752,600 while the sum refunded was ¥11,013,400.

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	Tonnage (in 1,000 tons)	Value (in yen) Japan proper	Chosen
Outgoing	2,436	477,315,042	32,191,212
Incoming	4,916	357,710,973	57,128,612
Total	7,352	835,026,015	89,319,824

Foreign Trade The grand total of exports and imports in 1938 reached ¥2,227,067,000 and, Kobe stood first among all ports open for foreign trade in Japan proper in recent years, but it was beaten by Yokohama in 1938.

EXPORTS AND IMPORTS OF KOBÉ IN 1929-1938

(In 1,000 yen)

	Exports	Imports	Grand total	Excess of
1929	701,893	882,331	1,584,206	im. 943
1930	523,172	563,649	1,086,821	im. 40,476
1931	409,011	457,740	866,751	,, 48,729
1932	499,303	535,647	1,034,950	,, 36,344
1933	650,539	641,122	1,291,661	ex. 9,418
1934	790,601	791,544	1,582,145	im. 943
1935	910,899	821,641	1,732,540	im. 89,258
1936	970,784	958,220	1,929,004	ex. 12,564
1937	1,107,552	1,119,515	2,227,067	im. 11,963
1938	774,038	706,257	1,480,295	ex. 67,781

Warehousing At the end of 1936 number of principal warehouse companies in Kobé was 9 and the aggregate floor area covered by the warehouses was 146,803 tsubo. In 1936, goods received by these warehouses were valued at ¥713,410,635, while ¥682,664,177 worth of goods were delivered. Goods stored at the year end amounted to ¥127,696,298.

Electricity and Gas At the end of 1937 the number of electric lamps in the city was 1,182,502 and electric motors 117,422 k.w.

In 1934, gas was supplied to 133,448 families with 347,633 spouts.

Banks and Business Firms At the end of 1936 the total number of banks and branches was 64, i.e. 3 banks, 61 branches thereof, including 4 branches of savings banks. The deposits of ordinary banks and branches outstanding at the end of 1936 amounted to ¥530,268,000 and advances and loans ¥420,597,000.

In 1936 the clearing houses turned over 3,288,483 bills with the value of ¥6,669,755,772.

At the end of 1936 the number of companies was 4,041 with the paid-up capital amounting to ¥658,758,953.

Factories and their Workers At the end of 1936 there were 1,180 factories. The total number of the staff was 7,140, that of workers 77,969, and the total production was valued at ¥476,660,189.

Transportation

Roads At the end of 1936 the total length of roads in the city reached 703.61 km.

Sea Transportation In 1935 the number of steam ships which entered the Kobé harbour was 105,642 with 52,359,980 gross tons.

Of the total number 101,224 were vessels sailing home waters and 4,418 on international courses. The foreign vessels numbered 1,272 Great Britain heading the list with 543 (2,907,690 tons), followed by the U.S.A. with 231 (1,497,666 tons).

VESSELS ENTERED KOBÉ

	Number of vessels	Tonnage
1933	90,479	46,382,542
1934	97,170	49,481,808
1935	105,642	52,359,980
1936	107,042	32,389,306

TRADE VESSELS ENTERED KOBÉ

	Number	Tonnage
1933	3,955	14,769,344
1934	4,145	15,649,444
1935	4,421	16,752,490
1936	4,603	17,289,371
1937	4,254	16,266,031

Vehicles At the end of 1935 total number of vehicles of various kinds was 72,879. The itemized table follows :

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found everywhere, but few are venomous. Insect life has been well studied, as many are harmful to trees and crops. Among butterflies over two hundred species have been identified.

Population

According to the report of the Ministry for Overseas Affairs, the population of Chosen was as follows:

POPULATION OF CHOSEN

1933—1937

At Year end	Total	Total Male	Female	Japanese Male	Japanese Female
1933	20,791,321	10,581,541	10,209,780	278,524	264,580
1934	21,125,827	10,744,439	10,381,388	287,964	273,420
1935	21,891,180	11,116,144	10,775,036	299,760	283,668
1936	22,047,836	11,205,940	10,841,896	313,211	295,778
1937	22,355,485	11,352,056	11,003,429	322,412	307,100

At Year end	Koreans Male	Koreans Female	Foreigners Male	Foreigners Female	Per Household	Men to 100 Women
1933	10,269,286	9,936,305	33,731	8,895	5.26	103.6
1934	10,416,040	10,097,764	40,435	10,204	5.27	103.5
1935	10,769,916	10,478,948	46,468	12,420	5.28	103.2
1936	10,842,097	10,531,475	50,632	14,643	5.28	103.4
1937	10,997,432	10,685,423	32,212	10,906	5.29	103.2

DISTRIBUTION BY AGE GROUPS

(1935 Census)

Ages	Total	Unmarried Males	Unmarried Females	Married Males	Married Females	Parted by Death or Divorce Males	Parted by Death or Divorce Females
	22,899,038	6,074,011	4,957,199	5,016,503	5,194,592	572,143	1,084,590
0	894,077	454,876	439,201	—	—	—	—
1	768,601	389,027	379,574	—	—	—	—
2	744,578	376,430	368,148	—	—	—	—
3	720,987	367,380	353,607	—	—	—	—
4	631,481	320,743	310,738	—	—	—	—
5	667,042	339,153	327,889	—	—	—	—
6	600,653	306,740	293,913	—	—	—	—
7	596,437	305,379	291,058	—	—	—	—
8	583,305	298,735	284,557	1	12	—	—
9	509,734	263,651	245,959	50	74	—	—
10	554,189	284,330	268,960	269	623	1	6
11	520,785	266,516	252,024	611	1,619	6	9
12	491,711	249,822	236,405	1,673	3,753	23	35
13	522,730	263,414	241,718	4,937	12,493	70	98
14	499,903	247,542	210,338	11,355	30,284	153	231
15	446,062	211,137	158,170	19,250	56,646	289	570
16	418,899	185,457	109,260	30,541	91,992	537	1,112
17	408,941	163,091	66,952	46,923	129,207	1,008	1,760
18	454,505	159,446	41,752	71,254	177,624	1,851	2,578
19	432,373	131,215	22,721	87,674	185,061	2,593	3,109
20	391,221	100,905	13,956	95,555	174,562	3,082	3,161
21	423,073	96,117	11,124	119,532	188,538	4,086	3,676
22	395,732	70,702	8,201	127,663	180,915	4,519	3,732
23	372,337	49,065	5,495	133,861	174,631	5,267	4,018
24	404,498	40,699	2,953	158,470	191,001	6,797	4,578
25	338,378	25,779	1,948	138,690	161,709	6,106	4,146
26	368,511	21,364	1,541	157,854	175,641	7,180	4,931
27	337,358	14,826	1,100	150,156	159,434	6,897	4,945
28	299,703	10,669	874	133,908	142,578	6,621	5,053

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Ages	Total	Unmarried		Married		Parted by Death or Divorce	
		Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females
29	344,499	8,724	705	158,992	161,949	8,059	6,070
30	299,689	5,784	482	139,886	140,827	6,895	5,815
31	242,352	4,486	395	113,443	112,751	6,108	5,169
32	264,638	4,056	382	124,539	122,815	6,669	6,177
33	261,871	3,558	342	123,501	120,804	6,842	6,824
34	279,146	3,424	271	132,089	127,586	7,969	7,807
35	283,894	2,690	258	135,669	128,598	7,910	8,769
36	251,116	2,570	196	118,335	114,014	7,318	8,683
37	286,448	2,537	233	136,062	127,920	8,870	10,826
38	274,533	2,271	180	130,039	121,079	9,030	11,934
39	264,031	2,066	184	125,030	114,047	9,809	12,895
40	245,475	1,538	144	117,236	104,269	9,803	12,985
41	228,550	1,535	151	108,477	95,781	9,404	13,202
42	207,607	1,077	136	97,920	86,945	7,964	13,565
43	242,183	1,325	121	113,710	99,712	10,233	17,082
44	229,390	1,211	120	105,855	93,472	10,530	18,202
45	224,661	993	123	104,430	90,434	9,744	18,937
46	203,458	906	122	94,113	79,664	10,036	18,617
47	231,562	942	121	106,962	88,429	11,753	23,355
48	199,771	842	94	91,327	74,519	10,964	22,025
49	165,969	723	86	75,358	58,773	10,648	20,381
50	152,936	531	80	69,560	53,983	9,316	19,466
51	167,565	466	87	75,989	57,425	10,592	23,006
52	161,497	426	93	72,667	53,954	10,479	23,878
53	163,164	493	113	71,434	53,615	11,349	26,160
54	177,993	562	145	77,601	55,800	13,520	30,365
55	148,471	390	112	63,293	45,716	11,344	27,616
56	181,269	445	106	77,649	52,789	14,524	35,756
57	124,627	315	106	51,587	35,746	10,786	26,087
58	106,591	382	142	42,641	29,154	9,922	24,350
59	122,706	349	142	48,845	31,571	11,956	29,843
60–64	513,378	1,120	468	194,523	115,251	58,282	143,734
65–69	387,134	621	317	124,183	64,900	57,419	139,694
70–74	250,662	262	147	66,166	28,629	48,186	107,272
75–79	147,095	136	93	28,582	10,567	34,378	73,339
80–84	49,668	37	43	7,000	2,226	12,906	27,456
85–89	12,868	6	19	1,293	340	3,441	7,769
90–94	2,084	—	4	205	95	458	1,322
95–99	537	2	—	71	42	110	312
100 and above	146	—	—	14	4	31	97

POPULATION OF CHOSEN (Dec. 31, 1937)

Province	Japanese	Koreans	Foreign (incl. the Chinese)	Total
Keiki	159,299	2,294,554	4,094	2,457,947
North Chusei	8,741	899,748	303	908,792
South Chusei	27,046	1,476,844	818	1,504,708
North Zenra	35,884	1,515,611	754	1,552,249
South Zenra	45,288	2,411,987	511	2,457,786
North Keisho	51,123	2,397,610	367	2,449,100
South Keisho	97,146	2,126,801	340	2,224,287
Kokai	22,074	1,643,548	1,365	1,666,987
South Heian	39,995	1,427,340	2,693	1,470,028
North Heian	23,663	1,599,686	19,392	1,642,741
Kogen	16,785	1,527,189	229	1,544,203
South Kankyo	53,148	1,575,844	5,863	1,634,855
North Kankyo	49,320	786,093	6,389	841,802

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found everywhere, but few are venomous. Insect life has been well studied, as many are harmful to trees and crops. Among butterflies over two hundred species have been identified.

Population

According to the report of the Ministry for Overseas Affairs, the population of Chosen was as follows:

POPULATION OF CHOSEN

1933—1937

At Year end	Total	Total Male	Female	Japanese Male	Japanese Female
1933	20,791,321	10,581,541	10,209,780	278,524	264,580
1934	21,125,827	10,744,439	10,381,388	287,964	273,420
1935	21,891,180	11,116,144	10,775,036	299,760	283,668
1936	22,047,836	11,205,940	10,841,896	313,211	295,778
1937	22,355,485	11,352,056	11,003,429	322,412	307,100

At Year end	Koreans Male	Koreans Female	Foreigners Male	Foreigners Female	Per Household	Men to 100 Women
1933	10,269,286	9,936,305	33,731	8,895	5.26	103.6
1934	10,416,040	10,097,764	40,435	10,204	5.27	103.5
1935	10,769,916	10,478,948	46,468	12,420	5.28	103.2
1936	10,842,097	10,531,475	50,632	14,643	5.28	103.4
1937	10,997,432	10,685,423	32,212	10,906	5.29	103.2

DISTRIBUTION BY AGE GROUPS

(1935 Census)

Ages	Total	Unmarried Males	Unmarried Females	Married Males	Married Females	Parted by Death or Divorce Males	Parted by Death or Divorce Females
	22,899,038	6,074,011	4,957,199	5,016,503	5,194,592	572,143	1,084,590
0	894,077	454,876	439,201	—	—	—	—
1	768,601	389,027	379,574	—	—	—	—
2	744,578	376,430	368,148	—	—	—	—
3	720,987	367,380	353,607	—	—	—	—
4	631,481	320,743	310,738	—	—	—	—
5	667,042	339,153	327,889	—	—	—	—
6	600,653	306,740	293,913	—	—	—	—
7	596,437	305,379	291,058	—	—	—	—
8	583,305	298,735	284,557	1	12	—	—
9	509,734	263,651	245,959	50	74	—	—
10	554,189	284,330	268,960	269	623	1	6
11	520,785	266,516	252,024	611	1,619	6	9
12	491,711	249,822	236,405	1,673	3,753	23	35
13	522,730	263,414	241,718	4,937	12,493	70	98
14	499,903	247,542	210,338	11,355	30,284	153	231
15	446,062	211,137	158,170	19,250	56,646	289	570
16	418,899	185,457	109,260	30,541	91,992	537	1,112
17	408,941	163,091	66,952	46,923	129,207	1,008	1,760
18	454,505	159,446	41,752	71,254	177,624	1,851	2,578
19	432,373	131,215	22,721	87,674	185,061	2,593	3,109
20	391,221	100,905	13,956	95,555	174,562	3,082	3,161
21	423,073	96,117	11,124	119,532	188,538	4,086	3,676
22	395,732	70,702	8,201	127,663	180,915	4,519	3,732
23	372,337	49,065	5,495	133,861	174,631	5,267	4,018
24	404,498	40,699	2,953	158,470	191,001	6,797	4,578
25	338,378	25,779	1,948	138,690	161,709	6,106	4,146
26	368,511	21,364	1,541	157,854	175,641	7,180	4,931
27	337,358	14,826	1,100	150,156	159,434	6,897	4,945
28	299,703	10,669	874	133,908	142,578	6,621	5,053

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Ages	Total	Unmarried		Married		Parted by Death or Divorce	
		Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females
29	344,499	8,724	705	158,992	161,949	8,059	6,070
30	299,689	5,784	482	139,886	140,827	6,895	5,815
31	242,352	4,486	395	113,443	112,751	6,108	5,169
32	264,638	4,056	382	124,539	122,815	6,669	6,177
33	261,871	3,558	342	123,501	120,804	6,842	6,824
34	279,146	3,424	271	132,089	127,586	7,969	7,807
35	283,894	2,690	258	135,669	128,598	7,910	8,769
36	251,116	2,570	196	118,335	114,014	7,318	8,683
37	286,448	2,537	233	136,062	127,920	8,870	10,826
38	274,533	2,271	180	130,039	121,079	9,030	11,934
39	264,031	2,066	184	125,030	114,047	9,809	12,895
40	245,475	1,538	144	117,236	104,269	9,803	12,985
41	228,550	1,535	151	108,477	95,781	9,404	13,202
42	207,607	1,077	136	97,920	86,945	7,964	13,565
43	242,183	1,325	121	113,710	99,712	10,233	17,082
44	229,390	1,211	120	105,855	93,472	10,530	18,202
45	224,661	993	123	104,430	90,434	9,744	18,937
46	203,458	906	122	94,113	79,664	10,036	18,617
47	231,562	942	121	106,962	88,429	11,753	23,355
48	199,771	842	94	91,327	74,519	10,964	22,025
49	165,969	723	86	75,358	58,773	10,648	20,381
50	152,936	531	80	69,560	53,983	9,316	19,466
51	167,565	466	87	75,989	57,425	10,592	23,006
52	161,497	426	93	72,667	53,954	10,479	23,878
53	163,164	493	113	71,434	53,615	11,349	26,160
54	177,993	562	145	77,601	55,800	13,520	30,365
55	148,471	390	112	63,293	45,716	11,344	27,616
56	181,269	445	106	77,649	52,789	14,524	35,756
57	124,627	315	106	51,587	35,746	10,786	26,087
58	106,591	382	142	42,641	29,154	9,922	24,350
59	122,706	349	142	48,845	31,571	11,956	29,843
60–64	513,378	1,120	468	194,523	115,251	58,282	143,734
65–69	387,134	621	317	124,183	64,900	57,419	139,694
70–74	250,662	262	147	66,166	28,629	48,186	107,272
75–79	147,095	136	93	28,582	10,567	34,378	73,339
80–84	49,668	37	43	7,000	2,226	12,906	27,456
85–89	12,868	6	19	1,293	340	3,441	7,769
90–94	2,084	—	4	205	95	458	1,322
95–99	537	2	—	71	42	110	312
100 and above	146	—	—	14	4	31	97

POPULATION OF CHOSEN (Dec. 31, 1937)

Province	Japanese	Koreans	Foreign (incl. the Chinese)	Total
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South Chusei	27,046	1,476,844	818	1,504,708
North Zenra	35,884	1,515,611	754	1,552,249
South Zenra	45,288	2,411,987	511	2,457,786
North Keisho	51,123	2,397,610	367	2,449,100
South Keisho	97,146	2,126,801	340	2,224,287
Kokai	22,074	1,643,548	1,365	1,666,987
South Heian	39,995	1,427,340	2,693	1,470,028
North Heian	23,663	1,599,686	19,392	1,642,741
Kogen	16,785	1,527,189	229	1,544,203
South Kankyo	53,148	1,575,844	5,863	1,634,855
North Kankyo	49,320	786,093	6,389	841,802

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Province	Japanese	Koreans	Foreign (incl. the Chinese)	Total
Total	629,512	21,682,855	43,118	22,355,485
1936	608,989	21,373,572	65,275	22,047,836
1935	583,428	21,248,864	58,888	21,891,180
1934	561,384	20,513,804	50,639	21,125,827
1933	543,104	20,791,321	42,626	20,791,321
1932	528,452	20,037,273	39,151	19,599,876
1925	424,740	18,543,326	47,460	19,015,528
1920	347,850	16,916,078	25,031	17,288,989

POPULATION ACCORDING TO OCCUPATION (Dec. 31, 1937)

Occupation	Japanese	Koreans	Foreign	Total
Agriculture, forestry, stock-raising, fishery, etc.	44,581	16,925,516	10,230	16,980,327
Industry	98,624	658,724	7,987	765,335
Commerce and transportation	177,759	1,524,535	13,549	1,715,843
Public service and profession	260,566	684,283	1,774	946,623
Miscellaneous occupations	24,182	1,518,811	9,327	1,552,320
Others	23,800	370,986	251	395,037
Total	629,512	21,682,855	43,118	22,355,485

At the end of 1936, the density of the population average was 99.9 per square kilometre, ranging from 186.7 in the thickly inhabited south-west to 40.0 in the north-east. The average is 81 per square kilometre less than in Japan proper.

Origin of the Korean Race

Though no conclusive opinion has ever been given as to the origin of the Korean people, it is evident that they are of the Mongolian family, and it is generally admitted that their cradle was in the neighbourhood of Changchun, Manchoukuo, in and around the place now called Petna on the River Sungari. It seems, therefore, but natural that they should have a profound liking to emigrate and settle in those parts of Manchoukuo. From various historic relics it appears that they were of the same stock with the Manchurians and those Japanese dwelling in the western half of Japan. In course of time much intermingling of blood seems to have taken place among the Koreans and the Chinese ever since Chinese colonies were first established along the north-western coast. But the latter did not supersede the native Korean race to any appreciable degree. This is clearly seen from the fact that the two races today have a distinctly different facial appearance, though both alike have black straight hair, dark oblique eyes and a tinge of bronze in the skin. The Korean language belongs to the Turanian group; it is poly-syllabic and possesses an alphabet of 11 vowels and 14 consonants, and a script known as Eunmonn. In grammatical construction it is almost identical with Japanese, though in sound and vocabulary it is quite dissimilar. From all these and other facts and evidences it may be concluded beyond any doubt that these two peoples were closely related to each other from very remote times.

Administrative Organization

Chosen is administered by the Government-General which was inaugurated on August 29, 1910, and has 8 main administrative offices, viz., (1) Governor-General's Secretariat, (2) Home Affairs Bureau, (3) Financial Affairs Bureau, (4) Industrial Bureau, (5) Agricultural and Forestry Bureau, (6) Judicial Bureau, (7) Educational Bureau, and (8) Police Bureau. There are also many affiliated offices such as (1) Central Council, (2) Communications Bureau, (3) Railway Bureau, (4) Monopoly Bureau, (5) Provincial Office, (6) Custom House, etc.

Position of Koreans For a number of years since the establishment of the Government-General in Chosen all Koreans in government service were placed under different regulations from those applying to Japanese officials. Gradually, however, almost all discriminative features in treatment and salary have been wiped out and in October, 1919, Korean officials were finally placed on the same footing as the Japanese and came under the same regulations. Moreover, prior to March, 1920, in the courts Korean judges were allowed to try only those civil cases in which both parties were Koreans and the

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Items	
Tax on Dividends	653,446
Tax on the interest of Loans (public or otherwise)	51,454
Transit-duty	1,029,447
Entrance tax	195,729
Tax on commodities	5,514,138
Compensation of damages on capital	24,000
Supplements	12,904,313
Gold fund transfered from Special Account	4,149,046
Public loans	164,768,487
Temporary loan	6,000,000
Part payment for the improvement of rivers and harbours	302,750
Brought forward	25,134,060
Total	227,961,675
Grand total	643,244,202

EXPENDITURE

Ordinary expenditure	
Shrines	76,300
Prince RI's household	1,800,000
Government-General office	6,802,005
Courts and Deposits Bureau	4,587,177
Prisons	7,090,040
Provincial offices	29,687,161
Keijo Imperial University	2,087,718
Schools and museums	2,981,486
Meteorological observatory	670,259
Police training school	296,924
Agricultural experimental stations	635,934
Cattle disease serum maunfacturing plant	291,281
Central Experimental Institute	237,652
Breeding horse and sheep pastures	346,187
Cereals inspection office	2,332,233
Fishery experimental station	235,371
Aquatic products conditioning house	308,597
Forestry experimental station	193,685
Monopoly office	42,581,877
Railways	138,123,181
Forestry Bureau	10,796,475
Communications	23,656,127
Taxation superintendence and tax offices	4,981,174
Customs Office	1,757,464
Social works	425,088
Tuberculosis sanatorium	18,493
Leper sanatorium	921,906
National debt readjustment fund	35,219,544
Pension	8,046,120
Miscellaneous	678,616
Reserve	8,000,000
Total	335,866,075
Extraordinary Expenditure	
Pension for the old Korean soldiers	35,113
Investigation and experimentation	1,666,534
Subsidies and encouragements	40,620,209
Buildings and repairs	6,822,931
Communications	6,064,752
Civil engineering works	20,265,399
Railways	150,128,487
Second protection against shifting sands	1,000,000
Private timber forest cultivation	100,000
Protection of private fire farms	115,237

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Items	
Adjustment of the cadastre	156,378
Temporary encouragement of Korean language	48,588
Improvement of land	1,521,814
Disposition of State property	166,416
Customs at frontiers	49,749
Instruction of tearchers	48,000
Instruction of volunteer soldiers	201,835
Training of young peoples	51,215
Measures for the Koreans abroad	1,823,795
Arbitration of matrimonial troubles	36,111
Against thought crime	217,300
Compilation of the Korean history	34,838
Temporary supervision	3,918,031
Adjustment of the road cadastre	44,442
Supervision of local public works	137,225
Construction of salt fields	650,000
Development of northern Korea	1,719,142
Promotion of gold production	21,145,266
Promotion of the increased production of important minerals	860,494
Improvement of farm districts	1,125,509
Fisheries	526,645
For research works of students abroad	6,780
Promotion of foreign trade	286,881
Supervision of foreign exchange	20,565
Temporary economical readjustment	38,248
Temporary control of ships	7,360
Control of cereals shipped to Japan proper	667,929
Levying Special Profit Tax	183,856
Levying special tax re North China Incident	198,951
National spiritual mobilization	253,600
National mobilization	610,602
Temporary Anti-aircraft facilities	1,174,204
Temporary Military relief	377,543
Control of labour and unemployment relief measures	331,079
Control of the distribution of commodities	392,557
Control of prices and promotion of national savings	266,571
To the Special Account for Military Affairs	32,853,196
Special addition in salary	447,503
Against calamities	6,688,242
Removal of the building on the new area of Rashin	1,270,305
Total	307,378,127
Grand total	643,244,202

Below is given the latest statement of receipts from domestic taxes.

Description	1933	1934	1935	1936
		(In yen)		
Land Tax	15,853,598	14,738,162	13,767,731	13,313,477
Income Tax	1,325,503	5,114,319	9,201,971	12,239,059
Exchange Tax	367,129	497,040	617,029	984,383
Liquor Tax	13,529,196	16,583,650	19,590,314	21,755,668
Non-alcoholic Beverage Tax	—	180,258	243,239	325,417
Sugar Consumption Tax	2,419,309	2,643,066	3,077,106	3,217,677
Business Tax	1,329,090	1,563,447	1,848,423	2,250,949
Unearned Increment Tax	483,919	447,760	476,216	483,737
Inheritance Tax	—	61,930	280,268	441,669
Mining Tax	1,009,772	1,390,773	1,796,976	2,147,375
Bank of Chosen Note Emission Tax	—	55,079	34,196	145,086

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Transit-duty	1,029,447
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Compensation of damages on capital	24,000
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Items	
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Fisheries	526,645
For research works of students abroad	6,780
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Temporary control of ships	7,360
Control of cereals shipped to Japan proper	667,929
Levying Special Profit Tax	183,856
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Exchange Tax	367,129	497,040	617,029	984,383
Liquor Tax	13,529,196	16,583,650	19,590,314	21,755,668
Non-alcoholic Beverage Tax	—	180,258	243,239	325,417
Sugar Consumption Tax	2,419,309	2,643,066	3,077,106	3,217,677
Business Tax	1,329,090	1,563,447	1,848,423	2,250,949
Unearned Increment Tax	483,919	447,760	476,216	483,737
Inheritance Tax	—	61,930	280,268	441,669
Mining Tax	1,009,772	1,390,773	1,796,976	2,147,375
Bank of Chosen Note Emission Tax	—	55,079	34,196	145,066

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Year	Foreign countries	Japan	Total	Foreign countries	Japan	Total
1929	32,773	309,891	342,664	107,767	315,325	423,092
1930	25,852	240,694	266,546	88,854	278,194	367,048
1931	12,771	294,027	261,798	52,696	217,770	270,466
1932	29,210	282,144	311,354	61,686	258,670	320,356
1933	52,773	315,854	368,627	64,368	339,817	404,185
1934	57,674	407,693	465,367	79,527	439,622	519,149
1935	64,903	485,893	550,796	44,185	558,813	659,403
1936	75,265	518,047	593,313	114,499	647,918	762,417
1937	113,098	572,445	685,543	128,139	735,414	863,553
1938	169,067	710,540	879,607	134,583	921,346	1,055,929

OVERSEAS TRADE BY COUNTRIES

Countries	Exports (¥ 1,000)				Imports (¥ 1,000)			
	1933	1934	1935	1936	1933	1934	1935	1936
Japan proper	315,854	407,693	485,893	518,047	339,817	439,622	558,813	647,918
Kwantung Peninsula	4,975	5,104	8,009	9,901	3,689	4,128	4,932	6,642
Manchoukuo	40,588	48,358	50,034	55,533	40,765	46,681	49,015	59,403
China	1,598	2,007	3,312	3,702	5,857	7,796	16,448	15,148
The U. S. A.	2,746	312	546	993	2,195	12,935	7,547	9,151
Dutch Indies	—	—	—	265	2,137	1,431	—	9,726
Asiatic Russia	—	—	—	34	1,144	113	—	335
Great Britain	—	—	—	197	988	975	—	5,457
Germany	—	—	—	10	423	380	—	1,042
Others	2,869	1,891	2,998	4,631	7,170	5,083	14,847	7,595
Total	368,627	465,367	550,796	593,313	404,185	519,149	659,403	762,417

VALUE OF PRINCIPAL EXPORTS IN 1936 AND 1937

(In thousand of yen)

Articles	1936	1937
Rice	250,955	232,474
Beans	24,651	24,527
Fish and Shell Fish	14,692	18,011
Laver	4,075	4,189
Sugar	4,019	4,480
Fruits and Nuts	4,960	5,300
Fish oil	8,261	10,029
Chemicals	8,299	16,250
Raw silk	15,421	18,962
Ginned cotton	11,469	8,271
Cotton tissues	7,541	23,102
Rayon tissues	3,348	9,744
Coal	6,628	7,306
Cement	5,915	3,229
Paper and pulp	4,450	10,481
Machinery	6,289	10,934
Timber	7,447	9,390
Fertilizers	39,924	37,906
Others and total	593,313	685,543

VALUE OF PRINCIPAL IMPORTS IN 1936 AND 1937

(In thousand of yen)

Articles	1936	1937
Rice	5,017	4,910
German millet	22,702	14,953
Soy beans	5,086	11,770
Fruits	5,012	5,580
Tobacco	5,831	4,841
Chemicals	17,050	24,362
Coatings and Dyes	5,870	6,733
Ginned cotton	22,756	32,861
Cotton yarns	6,024	3,865
Tusser yarns	5,228	8,087
Bleached calico and Bleached Sheetings	4,327	5,156
Clothes	46,211	45,962
Paper	10,894	13,755
Books	3,947	4,850
Coal	17,231	20,336
Cement	7,400	4,917
Ceramics	7,020	7,982
Glasses	4,457	5,343
Minerals and ores	54,907	89,035
Railway cars	4,960	4,454
Bicycles	8,445	7,416
Locomotives	3,114	5,332
Motors	5,138	8,380
Wood	4,801	5,696
Lumber	5,087	5,181
Rubber and rubber goods	6,539	9,558
Wood works	5,103	5,914
Sulphate ammonium	11,722	7,468
Superphosphate of lime	4,439	6,401
Bean-cake	9,173	3,567
Others and Total	762,417	863,553

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Opium Owing to the strict control of the Government-General the number of opium smokers has in recent years greatly decreased, but at the same time the number of those indulging in morphine-injection has increased. The use of morphine has of course been prohibited by the government, but owing to the activity of cunning dealers all the efforts of the government to put an end to it have been fruitless. The government thereupon has come to the decision to monopolize the manufacture and sale of morphine so as more effectively to control the spread of its use. Accordingly, in March, 1933, the government's manufacture of morphine was started at Keijo, its production being sold to certain designated pharmacies to be used for medical purposes only, and in 1937 no morphine for opium smokers was produced.

MORPHINE MANUFACTURE IN 1937

Raw opium	27,608 kg.
Manufacture	
Morphine (salt)	0
Diacethyl morphine (salt)	0
Opium for medical use	63,760 g.
Total	63,760 g.
Sale	
Morphine (salt)	53,775 g.
Diacethyl morphine (salt)	3,120 g.
Opium for medical use	51,535 g.
Total	108,430 g.

Economic Progress

The following table shows the progress during recent three years as compared with the conditions in 1910.

	1936	1935	1934	1933
		(In thousand of yen)		
Paid up Capital of Corporations:	663,569	527,048	445,229	15,909
Value of Agricultural Products	1,208,910	1,147,050	1,020,150	157,158
Value of Forest products	118,065	114,005	106,030	19,240
,, Marine products	79,879	65,966	57,798	8,466
,, Mineral products	110,429	88,039	69,172	6,068
,, Manufactures	730,806	607,476	438,000	30,964
Trade	1,355,730	1,210,199	984,517	59,696
Bank Deposits	415,530	404,450	339,561	18,355
Bank Loans	845,831	694,825	624,037	40,912
Bank Exchange Received	2,132,886	1,963,446	1,565,471	28,227
Bank Exchange Drawn	2,146,385	2,160,565	1,550,885	23,907
Amount of Bills Cleared	1,782,369	1,613,524	1,384,847	20,489
Price Index (Average in Keijo)	190.62	179.58	162.33	100.00
Wage Index (Average in Keijo)	161.15	152.46	149.46	100.00

Overseas Trade

Prior to its annexation by Japan the overseas trade of Korea amounted to about 50 millions of yen a year. Now it is approximately put at ¥1,355,000,000 as per figures for 1936 show. The following figures indicate its developments :

OVERSEAS TRADE

Year	Exports (¥ 1,000) Foreign countries	Japan	Total	Imports (¥ 1,000) Foreign Countries	Japan	Total
1912	5,616	15,369	20,985	26,359	40,753	67,112
1917	20,236	64,726	84,962	31,396	72,696	104,092
1918	18,697	137,205	155,962	43,151	117,273	160,424
1919	22,098	199,849	221,947	98,158	184,918	283,076
1920	27,639	169,381	197,020	106,174	143,112	249,286
1921	20,884	197,393	218,277	75,898	156,483	232,381
1922	17,489	197,915	215,404	95,798	160,247	256,045
1923	20,403	241,262	261,665	98,338	167,452	265,790
1924	22,379	306,660	329,039	97,776	211,817	309,593
1925	24,341	317,288	341,630	105,388	234,623	340,011
1926	24,779	338,175	362,954	123,933	248,235	372,169
1927	28,133	330,791	358,924	113,943	269,473	383,417
1928	32,147	333,829	365,974	118,181	295,839	414,020

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Year	Foreign countries	Japan	Total	Foreign countries	Japan	Total
1929	32,773	309,891	342,664	107,767	315,325	423,092
1930	25,852	240,694	266,546	88,854	278,194	367,048
1931	12,771	294,027	261,798	52,696	217,770	270,466
1932	29,210	282,144	311,354	61,686	258,670	320,356
1933	52,773	315,854	368,627	64,368	339,817	404,185
1934	57,674	407,693	465,367	79,527	439,622	519,149
1935	64,903	485,893	550,796	44,185	558,813	659,403
1936	75,265	518,047	593,313	114,499	647,918	762,417
1937	113,098	572,445	685,543	128,139	735,414	863,553
1938	169,067	710,540	879,607	134,583	921,346	1,055,929

OVERSEAS TRADE BY COUNTRIES

Countries	Exports (¥ 1,000)				Imports (¥ 1,000)			
	1933	1934	1935	1936	1933	1934	1935	1936
Japan proper	315,854	407,693	485,893	518,047	339,817	439,622	558,813	647,918
Kwantung Peninsula	4,975	5,104	8,009	9,901	3,689	4,128	4,932	6,642
Manchoukuo	40,588	48,358	50,034	55,533	40,765	46,681	49,015	59,403
China	1,598	2,007	3,312	3,702	5,857	7,796	16,448	15,148
The U. S. A.	2,746	312	546	993	2,195	12,935	7,547	9,151
Dutch Indies	—	—	—	265	2,137	1,431	—	9,726
Asiatic Russia	—	—	—	34	1,144	113	—	335
Great Britain	—	—	—	197	988	975	—	5,457
Germany	—	—	—	10	423	380	—	1,042
Others	2,869	1,891	2,998	4,631	7,170	5,083	14,847	7,595
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Cement	7,400	4,917
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Minerals and ores	54,907	89,035
Railway cars	4,960	4,454
Bicycles	8,445	7,416
Locomotives	3,114	5,352
Motors	5,138	8,380
Wood	4,801	5,696
Lumber	5,087	5,161
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Bean-cake	9,173	3,567
Others and Total	762,417	863,553

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Banking

Banking on a modern system was first introduced into Chosen in 1878 when the Dai Ichi Ginko of Tokyo established a branch office at Fusan. Later on, the Juhachi Ginko of Nagasaki opened branches at Jinsen and Gensan. After the China-Japan War these banks opened their branches in Keijo and other centres, while two native banks, the Chon-il (later renamed the Korean Commercial) and the Hansong, came into being in Keijo.

In 1902 the Dai Ichi Ginko was authorized to issue bank notes for circulation within Chosen. In 1906, to promote economic development in the provinces, agricultural and industrial banks were formed in several of the principal towns, the Government taking shares in them or granting them loans free of interest, and in the same year a third native bank called the Han-il was founded in Keijo.

In 1909 the Bank of Korea capitalized at ¥10,000,000 was founded in Keijo as a de jure central institution, and to it was transferred all the functions belonging to a central bank hitherto performed by the Dai Ichi Ginko. After the Annexation the bank was renamed the Bank of Chosen and branches were opened by it one after another in important places. Nor was its sphere of activity confined to the peninsula, for many branches were opened in Manchuria where it enjoyed free circulation of its notes, and its activity even penetrated North China and East Siberia. The Bank also made loans to China, and opened an agency in New York with a view to facilitating exchange operations and to utilizing the American money market for the development of Chosen and Manchuria. Stimulated by the steady expansion of its business, the Bank increased its capital to ¥40,000,000 in 1918, and to ¥80,000,000 in 1920, while authority was given to increase its maximum limit of note issue as occasion demanded; but owing to continued business depression the Bank suffered severe losses and was compelled in 1925 to reduce its capital by one-half. (See Chapter IX, the Bank of Chosen.)

Since then, encouraged by the economic development in general, and especially influenced by the war-time boom, many local banks were established in the country. During this time, however, the agricultural and industrial banks in existence were found much too weak to cope with the increasing demand for funds, their capital all told being only ¥2,600,000, so in 1918 they were all merged into the Industrial Bank of Chosen under special government protection, with a capital of ¥10,000,000, which has since been increased to ¥40,000,000.

The first clearing house was opened in 1910, and banks in Keijo became its members. Later additional clearing houses were established in Jinsen (Chemulpo) and other large commercial centres—the total number being nine at the present time.

In 1911 there were in Chosen 11 banks with 59 branches. The total aggregate capital was then ¥12,350,000, with total reserve funds amounting to ¥366,000 and the deposits totalling ¥18,335,000. At the end of 1937 the number of banks was 10, together with branch offices of 3 banks in Japan proper. The following gives a more detailed account of the 10 banks:

	1925	1930	1933	1934	1935	1936
			(¥ 1,000)			
Capital subscribed	102,275	101,425	101,075	100,675	99,175	99,175
Capital paid-in	58,850	60,991	61,871	61,731	65,912	65,981
Reserve funds	7,024	14,464	21,358	22,673	23,829	27,276
Deposits	217,597	226,563	458,159	567,754	609,028	386,191
Loans	429,361	457,557	730,614	1,047,339	1,013,146	712,380

The banking institution which is utilized most by the Korean masses is the Post Office Savings Bank. In 1921 there were about one million and a half depositors at this bank, their aggregate deposits reaching ¥18,726,338. In 1936 the number of depositors increased to 3,861,105, with the aggregate deposits expanding to ¥60,422,961. The following figures show the annual expansion:

March, 31	Number of depositors	Amount (yen)
1922	1,416,325	18,726,338
1923	1,590,470	19,875,093
1924	1,694,087	21,040,342
1925	1,606,740	21,029,849
1926	1,711,590	21,531,122
1927	1,795,858	22,466,126
1928	1,910,289	26,961,217
1929	2,023,977	30,787,502

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March, 31	Number of depositors	Amount (yen)
1930	2,078,602	36,286,417
1931	2,118,178	38,852,866
1932	2,283,871	41,432,670
1933	2,494,062	40,939,391
1934	2,840,656	44,807,154
1935	3,156,074	52,631,553
1936	3,571,237	54,820,710
1937	3,861,105	60,422,961

Local Credit Associations Local credit associations were first organized in 1907 by virtue of the Local Credit Association Regulations promulgated in the same year. The object of the organizations is to assist the Agricultural and Industrial Banks in the capacity of their auxiliaries, accommodate small Korean farmers with funds, and look after their interests in several other ways so as to ensure a healthy development of agriculture. Membership is confined to those who engage in agriculture, and each association is organized as a corporate juridical person. The Government endows each association with ¥10,000 as foundation fund or grants subsidy to encourage its development.

Principal business of the associations is to loan funds to the members, and store crops for them. In addition they distribute and loan seeds, seedlings, and fertilizers to their members, and also undertake consignment sales of products for the members.

At the end of 1936, there were 709 associations with 1,563,391 members and an aggregate paid capital of ¥12,462,000. The progress of these associations is illustrated in the table below.

Year	Associations	Members	Paid up capital	Deposit (in ¥1,000)	Advance (in ¥1,000)	Reserve fund	Government grant
1926-27	547	446,576	6,510	54,505	76,082	8,144	3,417
1927-28	575	489,720	7,064	63,614	85,177	9,620	3,542
1928-29	597	530,407	7,509	74,089	91,381	10,889	3,662
1929-30	621	588,560	8,561	76,892	104,931	12,295	3,777
1930-31	622	606,813	9,010	80,128	123,363	13,131	3,777
1931-32	663	726,322	9,279	88,755	123,842	13,556	3,970
1932-33	674	831,805	9,362	103,752	127,832	14,316	4,027
1933-34	685	1,003,648	9,871	124,284	133,897	15,647	4,092
1934-35	692	1,178,769	10,580	139,417	150,107	17,779	4,132
1935-36	698	1,363,537	11,496	153,417	179,325	19,070	4,162
1936-37	709	1,563,391	12,462	162,355	228,464	20,809	4,217

Agriculture

Chosen, though mountainous, is essentially an agricultural country. In 1937, more than 71 per cent of its entire population was engaged in agricultural pursuits. Though the soil is not very fertile, it is sufficiently so to produce enough foodstuffs to support its entire population.

In 1910, the year of annexation, the value of production scarcely reached ¥250,000,000, but in 1930 it more than doubled the above figure. Of all agricultural produce rice is the most important, production in 1937 reaching 26,796,950 koku and 7,432,426 koku of which was exported bringing in ¥232,473,877.

Grains In 1910 the rice fields covered a total area of 1,350,000 cho, yielding 10,400,000 koku, which rose in 1937 to 1,639,116 cho and 26,796,950 koku, its export during the same period increasing from 798,000 koku to 7,430,000 koku. This wonderful development has been achieved by the improvement made in cultivation, in the selection of seeds and manure, and in irrigation and reclamation. Next in importance come barley, wheat and rye, which are, however, mostly cultivated for home consumption. In almost every province these grains are raised in the paddy fields, after the rice crop is harvested, production of these in 1937 being 9,795,330, 2,020,875 and 2,771,878 koku respectively. Owing to the help in various ways given by the authorities to aid in the cultivation of these three cereals, their production has been on the increase year after year. Third in importance comes soy bean. In earlier times it was far from being an important produce owing to ignorance on the part of Korean farmers of the proper method of preparation, such as drying and assorting. It is now, however, in high esteem on the Japanese market where there is a demand for it not only as food, but for chemical industrial purposes, and thus the amount exported to Japan is yearly on the increase. In 1937 the total area under cultivation was 785,416 cho and the amount produced reached 4,262,688

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koku, and 1,150,000 koku of which was exported for ¥23,350,000. German millet is for most Koreans what rice is for the Japanese people. They depend more upon it than upon rice on account of its cheapness in price. The Korean farmers sell their rice, but use their millet crops for their daily diet, so that the supply of the grain hardly suffices to meet the entire demands of the Korean people. In 1937, the native production of the grain reached 5,840,088 koku, and its imports 790,000 koku valued at ¥14,950,000.

Cotton Cotton is another important agricultural produce in modern Chosen. The present scale of its growth is owing to the encouragement given by the Government-General. It was in 1906 that the first trial plantation of American cotton was carried out in the neighbourhood of Moppo. As its superiority over the old native cotton was sufficiently demonstrated, soon its cultivation was vigorously encouraged in all parts of southern Korea, so that the cotton acreage was increased from 1,200 cho in 1910 to 175,059 cho in 1937, and the crop expanded from 660,000kin in 1910 to 200,420,292 kin in 1937. If the production of the native plant is added, the total cotton production in 1937 amounted to 240,288,464 kin from the total area of 223,171 cho, as against 21,000,000 kin from 60,000 cho, in 1910.

Fruit Farming Fruit farming has also become a thriving industry of the erstwhile hermit kingdom. Soil and climate alike are suitable, especially for the growing of apples, and the government authorities are extending their assistance in this direction likewise, with the object of improving the quality of the fruit and gaining for it a world-wide market.

Many new varieties of apple, superior to the old native ones, are now cultivated, the quality being in some cases better than that of the fruit grown in Japan, the 1936 production reaching as much as 15,790,000 kwan, followed by pear 3,630,000 kwan and grapes 390,000 kwan.

Sericulture By 1910 the Government-General had done everything in its power to improve the native methods of cultivating the mulberry trees and raising silk-worms after the Japanese fashion. In 1919 a new system was instituted for carrying on a compulsory examination of egg-cards and for giving adequate care to the growing of good mulberry trees. All this paternal care and effort on the part of the Government-General for the advancement of the economic welfare of the Korean farmer was by no means thrown away. In 1910 the cocoon production was 14,000 koku and the number of households engaged in the work was figured at 76,000. In 1937 the number of households was 815,278 and the output was 722,300 koku. The production of raw silk amounted to 1,909,944 kg. valued at ¥20,712,153.

Stock Farming As Korean beef is very palatable, the demand for it is rapidly increasing in Japan and Manchoukuo as well as in Siberia. In 1910 the cattle in all Chosen numbered only 700,000 head, which in 1937 increased to 1,713,000. The export of cattle and hides totals from ¥5,000,000 to ¥8,000,000 a year. The raising of both pigs and poultry has been greatly encouraged by importing from Japan animals and birds of superior quality, with the result that in 1937 the former totalled 1,625,000 and the latter 7,221,000, both more than doubling the numbers found in 1910. Sheep were unknown in the old days in Chosen. Efforts were made since 1919 to raise them but the results were not satisfactory. Since, however, it is of great importance to make Japan self-sufficient in respect to supply of wool a new plan for encouragement of sheep was formed in 1934. Carriedale, which is suited to the climate and soil of Korea, has been decided upon as the kind to be raised in Korea. Subvention will be given to private undertakings, and the national sheep breeding grazing ground has been located at Ama, Meisen county of North Kankyo Province. In 1937 the number of sheep reached 19,627.

Conditions of Farm Households In 1937, the total number of the farming households in Chosen was 3,058,755, which consisted of 549,585 landed ones, 737,782 semi-landed, 1,581,428 tenanted, 72,919 "fire field," and 27,041 hired; divided into nationalities as 3,049,019 Korean households, 7,637 Japanese, 2,098 Manchoukuoan and Chinese and 1 white. The type and size of farm households in Chosen vary to a large extent. The average size of farm land is about one cho six tan (about four acres), which is larger than the average in Japan proper where the size is just over one cho (2½ acres). However, in Chosen, due to poor methods of cultivation, the yield per tan is only slightly over one koku (5 bushels) while it is two koku in Japan. Supplementary products are as yet hardly worth mentioning. The large ownership of farm land by a few landlords is one of the roots of the difficulties. The majority of farming population

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versal plantation of trees is encouraged throughout Chosen. In short, in the past twenty years more than a million cho have been planted with over 4,800,000,000 trees, and thus the mountain scenery in every part of Chosen is steadily undergoing a change with the accompanying effect of diminishing floods. The value of the timber and lumber sold by the Government-General in 1936 amounted to ¥8,812,592, that of timber in 1937 ¥4,821,904.

The Forest Districts There are several forest districts which escaped the almost wholesale denudation by kadenmin before 1910, the most important of which is the forest along the upper reaches of the Yalu and Tumen Rivers on the frontier. In 1906 the first systematic exploitation of the region was conducted by a joint undertaking organized by Japanese and Koreans and assisted by both the Korean and the Japanese governments with a capital of ¥1,200,000. This, combined with a similar enterprise financed by a group of Japanese and Chinese industrialists, forms one of the largest timber-supplies in the world. Since 1932, the government started the work of developing these forests with an expenditure of ¥12,183,000 to be operative for 15 years. The work consists of (1) development and utilization of forests, (2) education of kadenmin, and (3) protection of the forests.

Fisheries

Since 1910 all sorts of encouragement have been given to the Korean fishermen for the development of the fishery industry in Chosen, with the result that improvements in one way or another have been introduced in the building of fishing-boats and in the method of catching. Thus, while before 1910 the total value of catches was only about ¥8,000,000 a year, by 1937 it increased to ¥69,920,000, and other aquatic products in the meantime advanced from 2,650,000 to ¥93,440,000. The first fishery law in Chosen was issued in 1909, and this was replaced three years later by a new law providing for the definite establishment of fishing rights over a certain area of waters, the prohibition of certain actions harmful to fishing in specified areas and the prevention of individual monopolization of any fishing area. Trawling within special zones was also prohibited, and certain restrictions were made to the number of whaling-boats and to the diving apparatus carried. Mention should be made in this connection of famous "hanyo" (woman divers) of Quelpart Island. There are 7,000 of these women and they are engaged in catching sea-ears and many kind of shellfish, and gathering laver and other sea-weeds by diving into the deep sea. The total earnings of these women amount to one million yen a year.

The following shows the marine products for two years, 1936 and 1937, the value of each of which exceeds ¥2,000,000 :

Kind	1936 Value	1937 Value
	(In yen)	
Mackerel	4,780,815	6,023,216
Sardine	26,811,275	34,193,809
Sciaena	4,754,776	4,763,537
Herring	3,000,075	2,682,093
Hair-tail	2,201,312	2,541,259
Shrimps	2,552,237	2,123,950
Mintai (Alaska pollack)	5,769,259	6,483,059

Besides these, there are sea-bream, plaice, cod, isinglass, yellow-tail, glue, shark, grey, mullet, rays, oyster, sea-eel, conger-eel, etc., valued each at between ¥500,000 and ¥2,000,000. The important manufactures of sea products in 1937 were sardine-oil ¥26,784,416, sardine-cake ¥25,433,439, dried mintal ¥5,240,732, and dried laver ¥3,922,515.

Mining

The present mining law, enacted in 1916, provides that mining rights can be granted only to Japanese citizens or to legal corporations under the Japanese law, and mining rights are treated as a form of real estate. As for mining rights secured by foreign citizens under the old régime, they are well respected. Of all minerals produced in Chosen gold occupies by far the most important position, the largest gold mine being the Unsan Mine operated by an American syndicate called the Oriental Consolidated Mining Company. Next in importance are the Shojo Mine worked by Frenchmen, the Suian Mine by Englishmen, and Sansei and Koyo Mines by Japanese. Formerly the mining industry in Chosen was carried on in a very primitive way except in those mines operated by foreign concerns. Soon after Chosen had been brought under Japanese protectorate rule in 1906 the Government tried hard to induce Japanese capitalists to invest capital in the mining industry of Chosen, but it was only in 1910 that Japanese capitalists began to display their energies in that lucrative undertaking. As, however, most of the more promis-

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ing gold fields were already under operation by foreign capitalists, Japanese capitalists turned their attention to the exploitation of other minerals such as iron and coal. Iron ores in Korea hitherto found were mostly of hematite and limonite, the former being found in South Kankyo and Kokai provinces and the mixture of the two in South Heian and Kokai provinces. The amount of these ores stored, the purity of which is about 50 per cent, is estimated at about 20,000,000 metric tons. In 1933 about 570,000 metric tons of these ores were mined, of which about 394,000 metric tons were sent to the Kenjiho Iron Works and the balance of 176,000 metric tons to Japan proper. Fortunately a much greater store of magnesite ores is found in North Kankyo province. The purity of these magnesite ores is about 40 per cent on average.

As regards coal, almost unlimited quantity of brown and anthracite coals are stored in Korea, the quantity of the latter stored being especially large. Anthracite is mostly produced in the Heijo coal-field, and in South Kankyo, North Keisho and South Zenra provinces.

It must be mentioned that in Chosen nearly all kinds of minerals except sulphur, petroleum and asphalt are found in appreciable quantities, gold, coal, and iron preponderating. The following shows the value of the mineral products of Chosen :

MINERAL PRODUCTION

(In 1,000 yen)

	1911	1921	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936
Gold	3,744	2,992	17,809	26,066	33,214	38,320	49,909
Pig iron	—	4,819	4,114	5,605	7,722	7,321	7,866
Coal	388	3,192	5,970	7,205	9,940	11,925	13,300
Iron ore	421	1,716	749	1,287	1,123	1,279	1,429
Copper	—	17	307	417	933	1,535	3,272
Gold and silver ore	262	584	944	1,906	2,511	6,502	9,373
Graphite	153	208	255	465	524	1,207	1,010
Placer gold	821	359	1,823	3,327	5,323	7,136	9,443
Silver	6	4	552	721	1,468	2,558	2,830
Lead	—	—	64	120	306	388	793
Tungsten ore	—	—	29	117	734	1,388	2,293
Zinc ore	21	4	—	97	85	80	240
Steel	—	—	—	—	4,178	6,764	6,533
Others	21	374	487	961	1,111	1,636	2,212
Total	6,069	15,767	33,746	48,301	69,172	88,039	110,503

Manufacturing Industry

It is only since 1916 that there has been any manufacturing industry worthy of the name in Chosen, and in 1937 the total value of manufactures reached ¥959,300,000, being over 31 times as large as that in 1911, in which year the total output was valued at ¥30,000,000. As the land has abundance of materials and a good labour supply, Chosen may be looked upon as a promising land for the future expansion of various industries. In 1911 there were in all the land only 252 manufacturing plants employing about 14,575 workers, but in 1936 the number of factories was 5,927 and the total number of employees 188,250.

Total of industrial production of Chosen for the year 1937 was as follows:

INDUSTRIAL PRODUCTION FOR 1937.

(In 1,000 yen)

Textile industry	141,150
Metallic industry	50,760
Machinery and tools	16,560
Ceramics	25,070
Chemical industry	304,940
Wood works	11,730
Printing and book binding	16,300
Gas and electric	40,070
Foodstuffs	238,030
Others	114,650
Total	959,260

Of the total 959 million yen ¥260,210,-000 was the production by the so-called household industries, outside factories managed by industrial companies or

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where more than five operatives are employed.

Justice and Police

Chosen has now a judicial system similar to that of Japan. That is to say, in addition to the supreme court there are courts of appeal and local courts, the last-named having detached and sub-detached courts widely located. Both civil and criminal cases are first tried by local courts, while appeals against the decisions of local courts are made to the courts of appeal. The supreme court handles those appeals made against judgements rendered by the local courts or complaints against decisions or orders rendered in the second instance by the courts of appeal. Grave crimes of one sort or another have greatly diminished owing to the improvement in the work of maintenance of order and security. On the other hand, what might be called intellectual crimes such as fraud, forgery, and perjury have yearly increased. Prior to the establishment of the Japanese administration flogging was a common form of punishment. In 1912 its application to aged persons, women and children was prohibited, and in 1920 it was finally abolished as it was unsuited to modern ideas of penology.

Police The police service in Chosen had been under Japan's direction for some years even prior to the establishment of Japan's protectorate in 1906. But the system which had been in force at that period proved unsatisfactory. Accordingly, in June, 1910, a new system was introduced by which the commander-in-chief of the military police was appointed chief of police, and gendarmes and civil policemen were separately stationed as local needs required. In 1919, however, that semi-militaristic police system was displaced by the one now in force. This new and present police system is modelled on that in Japan proper, with its headquarters entrusted with the entire administration of police and sanitary affairs. The police force in 1937 was 20,643.

CRIMINAL CASES

		1934	1935	1936
Robbery	Cases	884	839	750
	Arrests	864	784	645
Theft	Cases	60,833	64,060	64,893
	Arrests	50,446	51,572	49,402
Fraud	Cases	22,190	22,060	23,558
	Arrests	23,368	22,407	23,922
Blackmail	Cases	875	800	756
	Arrests	883	812	754
Dispossession	Cases	11,049	11,170	12,436
	Arrests	11,644	11,680	12,628
Others	Cases	99,194	100,791	95,011
	Arrests	99,549	100,914	93,906
Total	Cases	195,025	199,720	197,404
	Arrests	186,754	188,170	181,267

Education

In the old days Korean children were taught in school nothing but Chinese writing and classics, but soon after the new régime was introduced they began to receive a more modern education, with such new subjects as arithmetic, geography and the Japanese language. The parents at first objected to the introduction of these revolutionary methods, and specially to the forcible teaching of the Japanese language, believing that this was a deliberate attempt on the part of the government to deprive the Korean children of their national and inherited traditions. It was due to this misconception held widely among the Korean people that the educational authorities found much difficulty in enrolling pupils despite the fact that no tuition was charged and all textbooks were supplied to the pupils free of charge. In 1930 the Government-General, animated by a desire to respect the wishes of the native race and to foster oriental morals developed by Confucius, reopened the old Meiringaku-in (Confusian Institute) at the Keigaku-in (formerly known to Koreans as the "Songkyun Kwan."), the oldest and highest seat of learning in the country for the study of the Confucian classics.

Important Reforms But many more reforms of far-reaching importance were made in 1920, when the present educational system was introduced. By it not only was the standard of educational attainment raised, but the principle of

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equality was laid down firmly though no compulsory features were adopted with regard to elementary education, as in Japan. The following differences, however, were made and are maintained out of respect for Korean sentiment.

(1) The Korean language is made an obligatory subject in schools for Korean children exclusively, while it is optional in schools for Japanese children in Chosen.

(2) The teaching of Korean history and geography is to be particularly emphasized in schools for Korean children.

(3) Different text-books, though of an equal standard, may be used in view of the difference of language and customs of the two races. That is to say, schools for Japanese children may use text-books compiled by the Education Department of Japan, but schools for Korean children those compiled at the Education Bureau of the Government-General. Koreans are mostly educated in common schools, higher common schools and girls' common schools. The term of the Common school is six years while that of the higher and girls' higher common school is two years. Korean children who prefer to receive education at the Japanese school may enter the elementary or the middle school as they chose. The system proved very efficacious in developing the education in Korea. With the gradual increase of elementary schools more teachers, especially women, are in demand; therefore in April 1935 the Keizyo Women's Normal School was established, and the training course at the Keizyo Normal School was closed.

In April 1936 a new Government Normal School was established in Zensyu, and in April 1937 the Kanko Normal School was opened.

In the following table comparison is made of the education organs existing at the time of annexation and those of to-day. While there was only 100 common schools before 1910, they number now 2,601 with 901,182 pupils. The table below shows clearly the development of educational work in Chosen since 1935:

	1935		1936		1937	
	Schools	Students	Schools	Students	Schools	Students
Elementary schools	451	84,395	501	86,775	505	89,881
Common schools	2,362	720,757	2,504	802,976	2,509	861,389
Middle schools	12	6,715	15	7,124	16	7,778
Higher common schools	26	14,504	27	14,982	27	15,629
Girls' high schools	28	10,525	28	11,173	30	11,924
Girls' higher common schools	19	6,047	20	6,514	22	7,148
Normal schools	4	2,434	5	3,172	6	3,758
Business schools	63	17,072	67	18,264	72	20,323
Elementary industrial schools	97	4,163	116	5,942	125	6,325
Colleges	15	4,501	15	4,250	15	3,986
University preparatory schools	1	309	1	448	1	461
University	1	621	1	542	1	516
Others and total	3,079	872,043	4,440	1,087,387	4,740	1,211,449

Christian mission and other private schools are included in this table.

There are still a large number of Sohtang, which are old fashioned Chinese style schools where Chinese classics and brush-writing are taught. At the end of May, 1937, the number was 5,944 with 169,999 pupils. These schools are now utilized by the Government as agencies to foster public education and are controlled by regulations on Sohtang.

Short Course Elementary School Two million Korean children of school age are still unable to attend school, most of them living in remote agricultural and mountainous districts where it is not yet possible to provide educational facilities. To give some education to these children the Government introduced a plan to establish short course elementary schools with a two year course, which was put into force in April, 1934. The plan has been very popular in the country districts and the number of these schools established was very great. In 1937 they numbered 927 with 60,077 pupils.

Korean Students in Japan The Korean students in Japan proper numbered 7,589 in October, 1937, most of them being in Tokyo. Those sent by the Government-General are comparatively few. The students sent by the Government-General are not only supplied with necessary funds by the

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Government during the period they stay in the colleges to which they have been sent, but are on graduation given official or educational positions.

Reform in 1938 In view of the advance of Korean education in recent years and the advisability of raising the position of the educated Koreans to the same standard with the Japanese, the Government-General of Chosen made a general revision of the Chosen Education Law in March, 1938, according to which all the people in Chosen, Koreans and Japanese alike, are educated in elementary and secondary schools just as in Japan proper, and the former differences in courses of study between Koreans and Japanese were altogether wiped out.

Koreans for Defence Service

Chosen has been defended by the Chosen Army which solely consisted of Japanese officials and soldiers. But the present China Affair gave Koreans an opportunity to show their loyalty to the Government-General and the Emperor, and their earnestness in requesting their share in defence services and in other relative works has been much appreciated by the authorities and the people of Japan in general. And to comply with the request an Imperial Ordinance was promulgated in March, 1938, according to which Koreans are allowed, for the first time, to enter military service as volunteers.

The Chosen Government-General announced, in April, to receive 400 Korean volunteers, for which as many as 3,000 Korean young men immediately responded. The required number was chosen from among the three thousand and 200 of which were first enlisted as military students in the Chosen Government-General Institute for Training Military Volunteers, which was established near Keijo, the capital. They were graduated from the Institute at the end of November, 1938, after 6 months training to be the pioneer Korean constituent in the Imperial Army.

Religion

Buddhism Buddhism first entered Korea about 370 A.D. It was introduced from China by a priest who brought with him a Buddhist image and the "sacred books", and it flourished greatly in the peninsula during the days of Silla and Koryu. Under the dynasty of Yi, however, it met with persecution. The number of priests was limited and members of good families were forbidden to enter the priesthood, with the consequence that it soon lost its hold among the masses to a large extent. Things remained so until Japan extended her rule throughout the country. Then in September, 1911, an ordinance on religions was promulgated giving freedom of preaching and full protection to temples, and also raising the status of the priesthood. Since then Buddhism has been revived to a marked extent, so that there were, at the end of 1937, 1,615 temples and preaching places, 6,648 monks and nuns and 194,100 Korean adherents. There are several native religions not recognized by the Government-General, among which the most influential one is the Tendokyo, which in nature is a mixture of Confucianism, Buddhism and Taoism. This religion has followers numbering 82,200. Apart from Korean Buddhism and allied sects, we find Japanese forms of Buddhism lately established in the peninsula, priests of the Shin sect being the pioneers. Later three others, Jodo, Soto and Nichiren sects, entered the new religious field in competition with other sects and religions. At present nine sects of Japanese Buddhism are working among the resident Japanese as well as among the Korean masses, and at the end of 1937 there were 122 temples, 567 preaching houses, 767 priests, and 303,700 believers including 15,400 Koreans.

Shintoism At the end of 1937 there were in Chosen 53 Shinto shrines, while 10 Shinto sects had 318 preaching halls, 571 priests and 104,600 adherents including 18,000 Koreans.

Christianity Christianity in Chosen was first brought by an official mission sent to Peking, China, by a Korean king in the latter half of the 18th century. This mission brought back with them a Bible and other Christian books. As its teaching, however, ran counter to the deep-rooted custom of ancient worship, King Seiso in 1784 issued an order prohibiting its preaching which was followed by a severe persecution. Though later occasionally the persecution was more or less relaxed, nothing for a time indicated a revival of Christianity. In 1833 a French missionary named Pierre Maubant came to Chosen to preach the Gospel. He was the first foreign missionary to tread the soil of the hermit kingdom. His energetic and devoted evangelistic work was not fruitless, but it alarmed the government officials, who in 1839 issued a prohibition edict. But it failed to suppress the spread of Christianity, and in 1863 there were as many as 18,000 converts. In 1866 the persecution against Korean converts

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was renewed with vigour, which cost the lives of 30,000 people. In 1882, however, freedom of worship was fully recognized in the country as a result of diplomatic pressure brought upon its government, and in 1885 several American missionaries came to Korea. This was the first time for Protestantism to be preached there, and it gained influence among the masses as time went on. When in 1906 Prince Ito, the foremost Japanese statesman at that time, was appointed first Resident-General, he pursued a policy of friendliness toward these foreign missionaries, this policy being pursued up to the present day under various Governors-General. The following table gives an idea on the situation of Christianity in Chosen in 1933 and after:

1937	No. of Missionaries	Number of Members
Presbyterian	140	281,939
Roman Catholic	120	109,963
Japan Episcopal Church	27	8,688
Greek Orthodox	1	230
Seventh Day Adventist	9	5,096
Methodist	67	54,654
Salvation Army	19	6,387
Others and total	406	4^9,300
1933	2,647	422,580
1934	2,653	441,419
1935	—	463,399
1936	3,195	477,100

Communications and Transportation

Highways Highways existed in Korea in olden times. The Peking highway, which was one of them, connected Peking with Gishu and Keijo, and through that way embassies were exchanged between the old Korea and China. But in later years they were left in ruin. Under the Residency-General work for new ones was started with a sum of ¥1,500,000. As the first stage plan construction of four new lines aggregating 254.80 km. in four provinces was commenced in 1907, and in 1908 on another 196 km. highway in various provinces. In 1909 construction of three more highways totalling 188.16 km. in length was started, together with widening and readjusting works of streets in Keijo, Taikyu and Jinsen. In 1910 construction of twelve roads extending 164.64 km. in length was also commenced.

Since 1910 the Governor-General devised a plan to improve highway facilities through a construction of 23 roads extending over 2,263.60 km. with a sum of ¥10,000,000. The work was to run for five years consecutively, beginning with the fiscal year 1911.

At the end of 1937, the total highways in Chosen extended 27,731 km., including 38 first class roads 3,241 km., 97 second class roads 9,966 km., and 516 third class roads 14,524 km.

Railways The construction of railways as a civilizing agency is being vigorously carried on in accordance with the 12 year programme laid in 1927. The programme covers the construction of a Tumen River line and four other lines totalling 1,384 kilometres and the purchase of five lines including the Zenshu-Riri Railway, totalling 339 kilometres. At the end of September, 1938, the total government-owned railway mileage reached 4,070.1 kilometres in active operation, 328.5 kilometres of which are run by the South Manchuria Railway Company. The following gives some idea of the development of railways run by the government up to 1936.

	Length k. m.	Passengers	Freight (tons)	Receipts (yen)
1931	3,009	19,673,704	6,025,150	36,300,512
1932	3,142	20,591,638	6,248,863	40,154,103
1933	2,935	22,238,338	7,254,859	43,611,142
1934	3,078	25,614,000	7,681,000	51,148,000
1935	3,389	29,344,188	8,667,642	56,477,897
1936	3,575	33,708,178	9,980,227	65,036,058

As for the private railway enterprises in Chosen, regulations were issued in 1912 so as to provide adequately for effective supervision and protection. In 1921 new regulations were issued by which increased state aid was extended to private railway undertakings. These have in consequence made rapid progress, and in 1936 their total mileage reached 2,108.7 kilometres operated by 8 companies, carried 8,035,041 passengers and 2,064,867 tons with the receipts of ¥7,422,229.

Tramways The main tramway lines now in operation are 5 with aggregate mileage of 81.2 km.

Bus In October, 1937, there were 179 persons engaged in bus business with

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business lines extending 26,331 km.

Navigation There are now 870 steamships with the total tonnage of 64,641 tons, their routes being interport, Korea-Japan and Korea-China-Russia. The following table shows the progress in this method of transportation in recent years :

	Steamers		Sailing-boats	
	Number	Tonnage	Number	Tonnage
1925	147	44,520	627	21,075
1929	185	47,161	694	23,083
1930	196	53,998	692	22,911
1931	202	52,302	745	24,778
1932	223	57,512	756	24,889
1933	235	57,920	796	26,573
1934	259	53,547	851	28,429
1935	870	64,641	10,502	134,386
1936	1,134	70,184	11,730	150,473

Navigable Rivers The most important river in Chosen is perhaps the Yalu or Oryokko which, forming the boundary line between Chosen and Manchoukuo, rises in the Paktusan or "Ever-white" Mountains (2,744 m.) and empties into the Yellow Sea. Its length is about 800 km. of which about 700 km. is navigable by air-propeller boats under governmental subsidy. Timber felled on the mountain slopes is made into rafts and floated down until it reaches the lumber-yards at Shingishu or Antung. Another river of importance is the River Daido which flows through Heijo and empties into he Yellow Sea in the neighbourhood of Chinnampo. The river is 400 km. long, navigable for a distance of 245 km. There are also four other rivers wide enough for navigation by sailing boats and motor boats. These are Rakuto (flowing into Chosen Channel) 344 km. (Navigable course), Kanko (flowing into Yellow Sea) 300 km., Kinko 130 km., and Tumen 85 km.

Airways There are at present three airports established in Chosen. These ports are located at Urusan, Keijo and Heijo. Besides that in the following places ground marks are set up : Urusan, Kwokan, Taiden, Tenan, Shariin, Heijo, Teishu and Shingishu. Moreover, in Urusan and Keijo there are now built wireless stations for keeping in communication with the airways. At the airport of Urusan there is installed a meteorological observatory for forecasting weather conditions in the interests of air navigators. Most of the air traffic between Chosen and Japan is being done by planes belonging to the Japan Air Transport Company.

Post, Telegraph and Telephone Prior to 1905 there were 516 postal offices in the peninsula. In September, 1938 they numbered 1,164, including 147 offices engaged for telegraph and telephone service exclusively. Number of mails accepted and delivered in 1937 amounted to 341,069,859 and 358,973,292, that of parcels to 2,878,971 and 4,298,184 and that of telegrams to 10,284,478 and 10,285,675 respectively. In November, 1926, a Radio Broadcasting Office was established in Keijo and opened to business in February, 1927. Fusan Office was opened in 1935, Heijo Office in 1936 and Seishin Office in 1937. At the end of 1937 there were 111,838 subscribers.

Public Hygiene

Prior to 1906 Chosen was a land practically without access to any medical service worthy of the name and the sick were simply placed under the care of unqualified practitioners of the old Chinese school or of witches or magicians. The situation was made worse by an entire lack of sanitary equipments and pure water, the consequence being frequent outbreaks of various infectious diseases. As soon as the protectorate was brought into existence in 1906 the first step taken by the government with a view to giving the nation the benefit of sanitation was the establishment of a modern hospital in Keijo. Since 1910 further steps have been taken to extend modern medical and sanitary benefits among the masses, even among those in very remote regions. The construction and extension of waterworks is another work pushed on by the government with vigour so as to provide the people with good drinking water. The Government-General has also taken efficient and energetic measures for the prevention of epidemics ; in consequence, small-pox which was formerly so virulent in Chosen, has almost died out. Moreover, sanitary regulations relating to foodstuffs, drinks, and drugs are rigidly enforced. Medical and hospital equipments have been greatly improved. At the end of 1937 hospitals numbered 144 including government institutions, and there were 2,906 licensed medical practitioners which meant that there was only one physician for every 7,533 of population. Dentists numbered 837. The number of deaths caused by infectious diseases was 3,321 out of 17,869 patients.

Prohibition of Opium Smoking Soon after its inauguration the Government-General made a serious effort to deal with opium-smoking. The habit of

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opium-smoking among the Korean people had been quite strong, specially among those in the frontier regions, many deaths resulting therefrom. The Government-General's drive for the abolition of this vicious habit was a thorough one. The following is the policy being pursued by the Government-General since 1929 in its effort to conquer the evil of opium-smoking :

1. Efforts shall be made to cure all morphine addicts within ten years.
2. All addicts shall be registered and a fixed quantity of morphine administered.
3. The Government-General shall monopolize the manufacture and sale of morphine which is supplied to the registered addicts above mentioned.
4. Stricter control of morphine shall be enforced and no morphine be used by persons other than registered addicts, and heavier punishments be provided for smugglers and secret sellers of morphine.
5. Schools and other institutions of social culture shall educate the public in order to prevent the development of addicts and to assist the already cured to avoid relapse.

On March 3, 1930, the Government-General issued an order forcing all addicts to be registered and in 1935 the Ordinance of Control of Narcotics was issued the result of which was very good and the number of registered addicts was only 315 at the end of 1935 as against 3,278 in 1930.

Principal Cities and Places of Interest

Keijo (Seoul) In 1392, A.D. at the old palace in Songdo Yi Taijo, the founder of the Yi Dynasty, ascended the throne after a stormy coup d'état against the former Wang Dynasty, and selected Seoul as his new seat of government. His palaces were surrounded with great walls. Seoul became the scene of the Hideyoshi Invasion of 1592 and the Ching Conquest of 1636. More recently the Sino-Japanese War was fought around it.

The age-old lofty peaks of "Hokkansan" (Pukhan) on the north and the green-clad slopes of "Nansan" on the south, permanent sentinels of the old capital, look down on the transformed city. The Kan (Han) River which encircles the site of the town tells mysterious tales of the past, but its course is now spanned by modern heavy steel bridges over which run steam trains, electric trolley cars and hooting motors. Under them fussy motor launches thread their way through drowsy sails of the tenaciously enduring junks. A glimpse from the sky reveals the city changing to modernity, but withal the historical palaces and gates remain to draw attention and provide a panorama combined of the old and new.

Keijo Station is the main entrance to Seoul. Every day ten thousand passengers rush in and out of this station. It is located outside of the South Gate between main streets of Keijo and the suburb of Ryuzan.

The Commercial Museum was built in 1929. Visitors can readily get here the first hand information on agricultural products and manufactured goods of the peninsula as well as on its methods of commercial transaction.

The Nandaimon (the South Gate) is the largest and most beautiful of eight gates on way to Keijo. During the reign of the Yi Dynasty, the gate served as the main entrance to the capital. Then, when the great bell installed at the heart of the city rang in the evening the gate was closed and traffic stopped. The walls have gradually been removed and broad paved roads laid in their place. Their remnants still exist on mountain slopes nearby. The old gate was built in 1396 under the reign of King Yi Taijo and there it proudly stands with its splendor today, a flower of the oriental art, challenging modern buildings that surround it.

The Chosen Jingu. To the right towards "Nansan" from the "Nandaimon" by the broad asphalted road and still higher through the stone "Torii" by the granite stairway of 384 steps, the threshold of the grand Chosen Jingu is reached. This shrine is dedicated to the spirits of the great Amaterasu Omikami, Sun Goddess, and of the late Emperor Meiji as Guardian Deities of the peninsula. The construction work started in May, 1920 and completed after five years and six months at the cost of two million yen.

The Great Bell. In the heart of the city at Shoro (Chongno), a red painted belfry in Korean style towers which contains the Great Bell, ten feet high with a circumference of twenty feet. Though silent now, it rang twice a day under the old régime before daybreak and at sunset. The early morning bell announced opening of the eight gates of the city, while the evening bell ordered their closing and instructed men to withdraw from the streets so that women could go out. This bell was cast in 1468 by order of King Seicho, and at first it was placed in a belfry at the Nandaimon.

The North Palace (the Keifukukyu)

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present fertile land. More than half of the arable land in Chientao is owned by the Koreans while a portion of the rest, though under Manchou ownership, is cultivated by Korean tenants. So Chientao has appearance of being a portion of Chosen.

Other groups of Koreans crossed the Yalu River and advanced to the interior of Manchuria. After the Russo-Japanese War still greater number from the north and south of Korea swarmed into Manchuria through Antung, and many have settled in the regions now traversed by the North Manchuria and the Kirin Tunwha Railways. According to the official returns for 1937, they number about 412,490, but the actual figure may be twice as large. These Korean farmers have transformed vast dreary wilds into 100,000 chobu of rich paddy fields, which form a good economic resource to Manchoukuo. The Government-General, in conjunction with the Imperial Government and the South Manchuria Railway Co. are making efforts to promote education, public health, quarantine, banking industries, relief work, police affairs, census registration, etc. for these people. With the birth of Manchoukuo the general conditions changed and the Koreans in Manchuria began to be prosperous, so that the Koreans at home began moving afresh to the new state in increasing number.

In order to provide permanent settlements for new immigrants the Government-General established between 1931 and 1934 within safety areas of north and south Manchuria four large farm villages. At the same time various facilities to look after their health, education, economic welfare, etc. have been installed. Conditions of these farm-villages follow :

(1) The Tieh-ling farm-village is on the upper basin of the Liaoho, about three miles from Lan Hsieh-Shan Station on the South Manchuria Railway line. The total area of the village is 1,019 chobu of which 916 chobu are paddy fields. At present the village has 383 Korean families with 1,909 people.

(2) Wuchimiho farm-village is near a tributary of the Sungari River lying to the east of Harbin six miles to the north-east of Wuchimiho Station on the North Manchuria Railway line. The total area is 2,538 chobu, of which 1,660 chobu are paddy fields and 800 chobu dry land. There live in this village 683 Korean families with 2,995 people.

(3) Yingkow (Newchwang) farm-village is at the mouth of the Liao River opposite Yingkow harbour. The total area is 3,000 chobu near which a vast grassland of 15,000 chobu extends along the right bank. There are 1,857 Korean families with 9,517 people.

(4) Suika farm-village is about twelve miles to the east of Chin Chia on the Hulan-Hailun Railway in north Manchuria across the Sungari River. The total area is 1,551 chobu with 2,024 people in 450 families.

The Chientao district has long been a nest for Korean malcontents and communist bandits. They used to incessantly harass Korean farmers, especially after the Manchurian Incident. In 1932 and 1933 the Government-General set about establishment in Chientao of twenty five special farming groups. Each group organized its self-defence corps and fortified their village. These groups enlarged their safety zones, and succeeded in establishing them at various strategic points, which play an important rôle in the preservation of peace in Chientao. The Government-General provides there all means to further prosperity of the farmers and assists them in making the farms ideal ones. An agreement was also made with the Oriental Development Company in 1932 with a view to installing 2,500 families of independent farmers with a grant of ¥2,000,000 spread over five years. At the end of July, 1938, 2,800 families have been settled on an area of 13,078 cho, and the expenses needed for the purpose reached ¥1,387,013.

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CHAPTER XLI

TAIWAN (FORMOSA)

General Description

Area and Topography Taiwan (Formosa) forms the westernmost part of the Japanese Empire. It is washed by the Pacific on the east, and is separated from China on the west by the Formosan Straits and on the south from the Philippines by Bashi and Balintang Channels. It extends from 119° 18′ to 122° 06′ E. longitude, and from 21° 45′ to 25° 37′ N. latitude. The Tropic of Cancer bisects the island, which is about 394.28 km. long, its greatest width being 122.31 km. The Pescadores (Bokoto) and other outlying islands form a political division of the Taiwan Government-General. They cover 126.86 sq. km. The area of Taiwan, including the Pescadores, is 35,961.21 sq. km., being about 5.3 per cent of the total area of Japan, a little smaller than Kyushu, and about one-sixth the size of Chosen (Korea). As regards its topography, Taiwan is an island which rises from the sea to a height of 3,950 metres, reached at the summit of Mount Niitaka (Mount Morrison). It consists of a mountain range with narrow valleys on both coasts which are the population centres. The valley on the west coast is the principal population centre. That on the east coast is little developed and is capable of but slight further development. The rivers are not long and their current is very swift; in the rainy season they flood the surrounding country, causing much damage. The climate is semi-tropical. In summer the north is visited by rains; in winter the south. The temperature rarely falls below the freezing point.

The Inhabitants The territorial system of Formosa was organized during five years, 1898 to 1902, by a large land-investigation enterprise made by the Government-General. The island is inhabited by Japanese, natives and foreigners. The Japanese went there after the occupation of the island by Japan, and the foreigners are mostly Chinese. The number of Western people is small. The native Chinese are mostly Mins from Fukien province and Cantonese from the China coasts across the Formosan Straits, composing 94 per cent of the total population. The aborigines consist of savages and semi-civilized tribes. The following figures show total number of the population at the end of 1935-1937:

	1935	1936	1937
Japanese	269,798	282,012	299,280
Koreans	1,604	1,694	1,985
Natives	4,990,131	5,108,914	5,261,404
Aboriginal savages	150,489	152,350	
Chinese	53,900	59,015	46,373
Foreigners	209	228	
Total	5,315,642	5,451,863	5,609,042

Including the savages, the total population at the end of 1937 in Taiwan was 5,609,042, showing an increase of 157,179 over that at the end of 1936 and 2,562,259 over the end of 1905, when the first census-taking results were announced. This means a yearly gain for the 30 years of 75,626.

The areas, population, number of counties and districts and number of towns and villages of five provinces, three districts and nine cities at the end of 1937 follow:

	Area sq. ri	Population	No. of counties or sub-districts	No. of towns and villages
Taihoku province	297.8	1,101,898	9	39
Shinchiku ,,	296.3	766,415	8	42
Taichu ,,	478.6	1,251,513	11	57
Tainan ,,	351.5	1,422,614	10	66

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	Area sq. ri	Population	No. of counties or sub-districts	No. of towns and villages
Takao province	370.9	795,735	7	43
Taito district	227.9	77,842	3	11
Karenko „	300.1	124,064	3	9
Boko „	8.2	68,761	2	5
Total	2,331.5	5,609,042	53	272
Taihoku city	3.0	302,654	—	—
Keelung „	3.0	92,928	—	—
Shinchiku „	2.3	56,376	—	—
Shoka „	4.2	56,007	—	—
Taichu „	1.3	66,790	—	—
Tainan „	3.4	120,282	—	—
Kagi „	3.6	80,252	—	—
Takao „	2.6	101,173	—	—
Heito „	4.0	48,190	—	—
Total	27.8	924,652	—	—

The Climate Being in the semi-tropical zone, the summer time is long and the winter is short. The highest temperature, however, is not very much higher than in Japan proper, but the weather is warmer during the winter time. Frost is very rare and water has been known to freeze over only twice since Taiwan came under Japanese rule. The island lies in the highway of typhoons, and is yearly visited by them, terrible damage being sometimes caused.

During a 38-year period ending in 1934, Formosa was hit by severe typhoons no less than 91 times; of these, as many as 7 occurred in the year 1914.

Typhoons originate generally in the offing northeast or east of Luzon Island of the Philippines, and cross the island or enter the Chinese mainland, passing the southern or northern extremity of the island. Taiwan forms a part of an earthquake zone connecting Kyushu, Okinawa Islands and the Philippines and naturally it is very often visited by seismic shocks. The number of earthquakes registered in the island or the neighbouring seas during 28 years ending 1936, was 9,248, which means 330 a year or nearly one every day.

Administration System

When Taiwan came under Japan's rule in April, 1895, the Japanese Government established the Taiwan Affairs Bureau in June of that year and then in August of the same year the Taiwan Government-General Act was promulgated in connection with the introduction of military administration. This was replaced by the civil administration in March of the following year. The Taiwan Government-General came under the supervision of the Minister of Overseas Affairs with the establishment of the Ministry in June, 1929. The Governor-General invested with authority to require military assistance from the commanders of the army and navy in the territory under his jurisdiction, when he deems it necessary to do so for the maintenance of peace and order in Taiwan. If the Governor-General is either a soldier or a naval man, he is able simultaneously to assume the command of the Formosan Army. The Governor-General also is invested with authority to supervise officials under him, promote them in rank, retire them from service, or recommend them for honours through the Minister of Overseas Affairs and the Premier, and to suspend or cancel orders and administrative measures of provincial governors under him, when such are deemed damaging to public interest or overstepping the sphere of their authority. The Taiwan Government-General consists, besides the secretariat to the Governor-General, of five bureaux, that is, the Home Affairs Bureau, Educational Affairs Bureau, Financial Affairs Bureau, Colonial Development Bureau and Police Affairs Bureau. The chief of general affairs, or civil governor, directors of the five bureaux and many other officials are under the supervision of the Governor-General. There is an Advisory Council to the Governor-General, which serves as a very important organ for the administration of the island. Not only does it give advice to the Governor-General on laws or regulations but also on general important business. The members consist of Government-General officials and leading persons in private circles in the island. The provincial administration extends over 5 provinces, 3 districts, 9 cities and 51 counties.

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There are the same number of provincial governors, district superintendents, city administrators and county chiefs, all under the Government-General.

Aboriginal Administration

The Taiwan aborigines are the oldest inhabitants of the island and are classified into semi-civilized aborigines and savage head-hunters. The former have now settled down as ordinary peaceful citizens and differ nothing in culture and general status from the natives who belong to the Han (Chinese) race. The head-hunters, on the other hand, live in mountainous districts and still adhere to their traditional habits and manners, their culture being very low. The Taiwan Government-General is concerned in its aboriginal administration mostly with these savage tribes. These savages lead a very primitive life, their dwelling-places being so difficult of access, and they still deter other tribes from settling near them by their traditional custom of head-hunting. Since Japan's occupation of Taiwan great efforts have been directed by the authorities to their subjugation and cultural improvement, and at the present time head-hunting is rapidly becoming extinct, and these savages are entering the first stage of civilized life. Some of them living along the mountain zone in west Taiwan, and those living on the sea coast in east Taiwan, pay taxes. These aborigines have a close resemblance to the Negritoes in the South Sea islands and are supposed by anthropologists to be of a Malay-origin. They may be classified into seven tribes: Taiyal, Saiset, Bunun, Tsuwo, Paiwan, Ami and Yami, and are entirely different in countenance, physical build, language and habits from the Han race who came over from continental China. These savages are distinguished by their extreme hatred of other tribes, and have a habit of combining together in an offensive and defensive alliance against any enemy. The number of these savages at the end of 1937 was 154,255, of whom 77,559 were male and 76,696 female. They lived in 25,343 houses in 429 villages. Their population in 1936 and 1937 was:

Tribes	1936	1937	Increase or decrease
Taiyal	36,128	36,660	532
Saiset	1,486	1,566	80
Tsuwo	2,167	2,204	37
Bunun	17,910	17,672	-238
Paiwan	43,987	44,316	329
Ami	48,898	50,052	1,154
Yami	1,713	1,725	12
Others	61	56	-5
Total	152,350	154,255	1,905

Note: (-) shows decrease

The Four Tribes The savages of the Taiyal and Bunun tribes are known as the most ferocious of all. Occasionally they quarrel with and even kill their own comrades. The Tsuwo tribe abolished the custom of head-hunting many years ago. The Saiset tribesmen are the gentlest of all, and are quickly losing their savage proclivities. The Japanese authorities have cudgelled their brains how to bring these wild people under control. When Holland occupied the south of Taiwan and Spain the north, they tried to pacify them principally through the medium of religion and medicine. During the time when the Cheng family from south China ruled the island, force and conciliation were adopted in turn, but the results were not satisfactory. Conciliation has dominated Japan's policy toward these savages in the island since her occupation of Taiwan. When the campaigns against rebels came to an end in 1902, attention was given to the aboriginal control policy. Owing to the stubborn resistance offered by the savages, the Governor-General, General Viscount Samata Sakuma, drafted a five-year plan for dealing with the aborigines and established the campaign headquarters in the Government-General in 1909 to start the enterprise on an elaborate scale. The fundamental policy was based on conciliation, and training the savages to become law-abiding people on the one hand, and chastisement of the insubordinate on the other. The confiscation of their arms was one of the important tasks. All arms were given up to the Japanese authorities by the northern aborigines in 1914. This completed the task of aboriginal pacification in January, 1915. Occasional raids on police stations and head-hunting of innocent people were committed after that, owing to the instigation of malcontents. The worst outbreak that took place was the Musha Incident in October, 1930, which culminated in the sending of troops. Many of them are engaged in farm work and pay taxes. Some of them receive special education. Policemen are stationed at various points of vantage in the savage districts and peace maintenance, job-finding, education, medical care, traffic, public works and sundry other affairs are being looked after by them.

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	Plantation areas (In ko)	Crops (In koku)
1899	360,922	2,052,970
1912	495,128	4,046,611
1917	480,642	4,833,813
1922	527,096	5,445,814
1927	603,153	6,898,672
1928	603,058	6,795,005
1929	579,274	6,480,762
1930	633,444	7,370,516
1931	653,380	7,479,846
1932	684,928	8,949,216
1933	696,423	8,361,839
1934	687,664	9,088,886
1935	699,675	9,122,152
1936	702,685	9,556,390
1937	—	9,234,244

Sweet Potatoes Sweet potatoes also are extensively produced almost everywhere and all through the year in the island. The chief producing centres are Tainan, Taichu and Takao provinces. Potatoes serve as fodder for cattle besides being used as ordinary foodstuff. Dried potatoes are shipped to Japan as material for producing alcohol and starch. The export value of dried potatoes for 1935 totalled 44,332,580 kin (one kin being 1.3 pounds), worth ¥1,290,-529. The crop of sweet potatoes for 1902 amounted to 501,160,292 kin and the amount has been increasing yearly since. The 1937 crop totalled 2,949,974,884 kin. The plantation area of 47 ko for 1902 increased to 143,308 for 1937.

Tea Tea is one of the principal exports of Taiwan. The export totalled once as much as ¥11,500,000, though it has somewhat declined in recent years. The tea production amounted to 20,808,-765 kin (in plantation area of 28,308 ko) for 1902 and that for 1936 amounted to 18,081,426 kin (in the area of 46,068 ko). Tea plantation was introduced there by immigrants from China. In 1868 some amount of tea roughly made in Taiwan was exported to Amoy, where it was refined, but later the Taiwan producers, bringing tea operators from Amoy and Foochow, began to export refined tea, and in 1869 as much as 280,000 pounds of refined tea was exported to New York. This was the first export of Taiwan tea to America. Then tea production developed considerably year after year. Export tea is classified into varieties, viz., Oolong, Pouchong, green and black. Oolong and Pouchong teas are most abundantly produced; the former, appreciated by Americans, and the latter, preferred by the people of the South Sea Islands, is exported to Java and Siam. Black tea extending its markets, and, although not as good as Ceylon tea, it is better in quality than Japanese black tea.

Other Products Other agricultural products are peanuts, beans, wheat, sesame, longan, (otherwise known as "dragon's eye") and vegetables. The yielding areas and production of these farm products for 1937, as compared with those for 1900, follow:

	Yielding area (In ko)		Production (In koku)	
	1900	1937	1900	1937
Peanuts	11,958	32,441	120,838	627,700
Beans	11,365	13,609	50,281	58,887
Barley	1,479	674	11,460	4,591
Wheat	1,857	540	11,282	4,272
Sesame seeds	6,889	3,204	36,279	11,524
Jute	1,155	5,217	1,481,548 (kin)	15,371,005 (kin)
Hemp	1,654	1,949	1,022,063 ,,	2,317,421 ,,
Tobacco	240	1,511	363,900 (kg)	2,611,461 (kg)
Oranges	.317 (1905)	—	2,025,965 (kin) (1909)	—
Pneapples	—	7,969	—	110,156,884 (pieces)
Longan	—	620,161 (trees)	—	2,569,348 (kin)
Vegetables	—	—	—	¥14,621,109

The export of raw pineapples for 1936 totalled ¥162,333 and that of canned pineapples ¥7,244,262.

Bananas are Taiwan's representative fruits. They are planted everywhere in the island, but are produced most heavily in Taichu province, where 52 per cent of the total production is got. They occupy the third position in the export list of the island, the first being rice and the second sugar. Bananas exported during 1936 totalled 3,050,000 baskets, one basket being 75 kin, worth ¥14,000,-000. In 1909 the plantation acreage was 560 ko with a crop of 10,536,062 kin, which increased in 1936 to 22,527 ko with a crop of 339,508,000 kin.

Live-stock The live-stock raising in-

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central shrine of worship for the Japanese people in the island. It is located in a suburb of Taihoku, the capital of the island, and is dedicated to Okuninushi, Oanamuchi and Sukunahikona, all legendary leaders of the early Japanese race, and to His Imperial Highness General Prince Yoshihisa Kitashirakawa, who died in the island when commanding the Japanese expeditionary force in Taiwan during the Sino-Japanese War. Shintoism, Buddhism and Christianity have been propagated by the Japanese since 1895. Confucianism is observed among the natives and Chinese people in the island.

Education The continuous efforts of the Government-General have been rewarded to such an extent that the natives have been receiving education since 1922 together with Japanese in the classes of middle-school grade and in higher institutions, although the elementary education is still given both in the vernacular and Japanese languages. Besides numerous elementary schools. Taiwan had at the end of April, 1938, 4 kindergarten, 14 middle schools, 15 girls' schools, 12 business schools of middle school grade, 4 normal schools, 4 colleges and 1 Imperial University. The Taihoku Imperial University was founded in March, 1928. It consists of two departments, one literature and politics and the other physics and agriculture. The educational expenses for the last six years are :

	Total amount	State expenses	Provinces and districts	Cities, towns and villages
		(In ¥1,000)		
1933	16,723	4,895	7,842	3,985
1934	18,026	5,042	8,391	4,593
1935	21,264	5,839	9,179	6,245
1936	23,549	6,315	10,043	7,191
1937	28,565	6,945	11,862	9,757
1938	32,910	8,923	13,662	10,325
Average	23,506	6,326	10,163	7,016

Agriculture

Agriculture is the most important industry of Taiwan. Since the island came under Japan's control, it has made a rapid development and the total farm production in 1937 was worth ¥402,990,000, composing about 50 per cent of all the industrial production of the island. The area under cultivation in 1899 was 363,290 ko(one ko being 2.377 acres or 2,934 tsubo). It increased to 883,256 ko at the end of 1937, more than double that of 36 years ago. The cultivated land is more than 20 per cent of the island's total area. The area of cultivated land since 1899 has been as follows :

Year	Paddy field	Dry land	Total
	(In 1,000 ko)		
1889	211	151	363
1907	328	345	674
1912	346	364	711
1917	330	412	742
1922	376	397	773
1927	399	422	821
1929	406	423	830
1930	408	428	836
1931	411	424	835
1932	439	400	839
1933	482	362	845
1934	463	388	851
1935	493	363	856
1936	533	338	872
1937	544	338	883

People engaged in agriculture are about 53 per cent of the total population. At the end of 1937 their number was 2,880,410 of whom tenant-farmers were 877,171, landed farmers 1,062,201, and landed tenant-farmers 941,038.

Rice Crops The climate is very well suited to rice cultivation especially in the western district, where crops are harvested twice a year. The production in 1936 was about 9,550,000 koku with a value of over ¥210,000,000. Rice forms the chief of the three most important farm products of Taiwan, that is, rice, sugar cane and potatoes. Rice known as Hōrai rice is grown heavily in recent years. Its plantation area for 1936 totalled 702,685 ko and the crop amounted to 9,558,390 koku for two crops a year. The plantation areas and rice crops since 1899 follow :

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	Plantation areas (In ko)	Crops (In koku)
1899	360,922	2,052,970
1912	495,128	4,046,611
1917	480,642	4,833,813
1922	527,096	5,445,814
1927	603,153	6,898,672
1928	603,058	6,795,005
1929	579,274	6,480,762
1930	633,444	7,370,516
1931	653,380	7,479,846
1932	684,928	8,949,216
1933	696,423	8,361,839
1934	687,664	9,088,886
1935	699,675	9,122,152
1936	702,685	9,558,390
1937	—	9,234,244

Sweet Potatoes Sweet potatoes also are extensively produced almost everywhere and all through the year in the island. The chief producing centres are Tainan, Taichu and Takao provinces. Potatoes serve as fodder for cattle besides being used as ordinary foodstuff. Dried potatoes are shipped to Japan as material for producing alcohol and starch. The export value of dried potatoes for 1935 totalled 44,332,580 kin (one kin being 1.3 pounds), worth ¥1,290,-529. The crop of sweet potatoes for 1902 amounted to 501,160,292 kin and the amount has been increasing yearly since. The 1937 crop totalled 2,949,974,884 kin. The plantation area of 47 ko for 1902 increased to 143,308 for 1937.

Tea Tea is one of the principal exports of Taiwan. The export totalled once as much as ¥11,500,000, though it has somewhat declined in recent years. The tea production amounted to 20,808,-765 kin (in plantation area of 28,308 ko) for 1902 and that for 1936 amounted to 18,081,426 kin (in the area of 46,068 ko). Tea plantation was introduced there by immigrants from China. In 1868 some amount of tea roughly made in Taiwan was exported to Amoy, where it was refined, but later the Taiwan producers, bringing tea operators from Amoy and Foochow, began to export refined tea, and in 1869 as much as 280,000 pounds of refined tea was exported to New York. This was the first export of Taiwan tea to America. Then tea production developed considerably year after year. Export tea is classified into varieties, viz., Oolong, Pouchong, green and black. Oolong and Pouchong teas are most abundantly produced; the former, appreciated by Americans, and the latter, preferred by the people of the South Sea Islands, is exported to Java and Siam. Black tea extending its markets, and, although not as good as Ceylon tea, it is better in quality than Japanese black tea.

Other Products Other agricultural products are peanuts, beans, wheat, sesame, longan, (otherwise known as "dragon's eye") and vegetables. The yielding areas and production of these farm products for 1937, as compared with those for 1900, follow:

	Yielding area (In ko)		Production (In koku)	
	1900	1937	1900	1937
Peanuts	11,958	32,441	120,838	627,700
Beans	11,365	13,609	50,281	58,887
Barley	1,479	674	11,460	4,591
Wheat	1,857	540	11,282	4,272
Sesame seeds	6,889	3,204	36,279	11,524
Jute	1,155	5,217	1,481,548 (kin)	15,371,005 (kin)
Hemp	1,654	1,949	1,022,063 ,,	2,317,421 ,,
Tobacco	240	1,511	363,900 (kg)	2,611,461 (kg)
Oranges	.317 (1905)	—	2,025,965 (kin) (1909)	—
Pneapples	—	7,969	—	110,156,884 (pieces)
Longan	—	620,161 (trees)	—	2,569,348 (kin)
Vegetables	—	—	—	¥14,621,109

The export of raw pineapples for 1936 totalled ¥162,383 and that of canned pineapples ¥7,244,262.

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Live-stock The live-stock raising in-

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Companies	Cane pressing capacity (In tons)	Production of white sugar 1935	1936 (In kin)	1937
Taiwan Sugar's Taihoku mill	Brit. 500	3,210,450	—	—
Taiwan Sugar's Sharokan mill	Amer. 1,200	25,633,887	36,107,409	38,196,246
Taiwan Sugar's Kibi mill	Brit. 1,200	19,848,625	25,211,965	25,625,026
Meiji Sugar's Shoryu mill	„ 750	—	—	—
Meiji Sugar's Nansei mill	„ 1,000	12,130,350	15,559,383	25,034,901
Meiji Sugar's Ujurin mill	„ 750	22,386,047	26,765,275	30,998,066
Dai Nippon Sugar's Toroku mill	„ 500	23,410,850	21,020,103	19,521,669
Ensuiko Sugar's Shinei mill	„ 1,000	48,998,596	43,067,770	32,116,592
Ensuiko Sugar's Kishinai No. 1 mill	„ 550	57,052,616	55,533,410	67,646,228
Kishinai No. 2 mill	„ 700			
Total	„ 6,950 Amer. 1,200	250,004,926	247,374,552	298,736,518

Summary Summarizing the status of the sugar industry, the caneplantation area at the beginning of 1902 was 26,-167 ko, and there was only one mechanically-operated mill with a daily capacity of 200 tons and capitalization of only ¥1,000,000. In 1927 such mills numbered 45 with a daily productive capacity of 39,414 American tons and total capitalization of ¥290,520,000, although this dropped to ¥233,520,000 in 1936, owing to mergers or readjustment of business. But the capacity increased to 43,528 American tons for 1935. The total production in 1902 was only 90,000,000 kin, but in 1927 it rose as high as 1,315,540,-000 kin and further to 1,648,440,000 kin in 1932. It increased to 1,678,920,000 kin in 1937.

Companies	Head offices	Capital Sub-scribed (In ¥1,000)	Paid-up	No. of mills
Taiwan Sugar	Heito, Takao province	63,000	43,080	13
Shinko Sugar	Tairyo, Takao province	1,200	1,200	1
Meiji Sugar	Mato, Tainan province	58,000	41,700	7
Dai Nippon	Sunamachi, Tokyo city	61,970	56,333	9
Ensuiko Sugar	Shinei, Tainan province	60,000	29,052	7
Téikoku Sugar	Taichu city	27,000	20,250	6
Showa Sugar	Goketsu, Taihoku province	15,000	11,250	5
Taito Sugar	Taito	3,000	2,062	2
Sango Sugar	Nirinsho, Taichu province	3,550	3,550	1
Total		292,720	208,477	51

Production of sugar for the 1936-37 fiscal year follows:

Companies	Materials used (In kin)	Sugar production	Production of molasses
Taiwan Sugar	3,385,063,090	450,322,438	87,413,276
Shinko Sugar	156,939,550	20,270,828	6,096,305
Meiji Sugar	2,471,306,370	333,438,994	55,880,265
Dai Nippon Sugar	3,253,341,680	424,672,859	79,809,908
Ensuiko Sugar	1,861,851,330	232,238,996	49,226,464
Téikoku Sugar	794,345,240	107,082,519	19,327,091
Showa Sugar	394,630,100	51,499,649	11,514,163
Taito Sugar	110,505,350	14,706,809	3,057,336
Sango Sugar	89,542,300	11,518,287	1,919,887
Total	12,517,525,010	1,645,751,379	314,244,695
Improved mills	117,115,057	17,371,682	—
Primitive mills	141,241,651	15,797,097	—
Grand total	12,775,881,718	1,678,920,158	314,244,695

Sugar production in Taiwan since 1903 is as follows:

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for the acquisition of canes became severe.

Upon Consolidated Basis In order to prevent evils arising out of this competition, the authorities issued regulations restricting the spheres of cane plantations in 1905. This caused sugar-makers to work on a consolidated basis yearly. As it was impossible for sugar manufacturers to get material from districts other than those designated for them by regulations, the makers took great care of the planters working on their fields. Planters also were placed on a definite basis of economy by the regulations, because the canes raised by them could be sold to the mills to which they belonged. When the sugar policy was established, the Extraordinary Taiwan Sugar Affairs Bureau was organized, but it was later replaced by the Sugar Refinery Section of the Colonial Development Bureau. The Government-General first established the Young Cane Seed Experimental Station in Taichu province in 1913. Seeds raised there were distributed to intermediate experimental yards, where they are further grown. Manufacturing companies are bound by duty to distribute these seeds free to farmers within their plantations. Thus the improvement of canes was realized. Young plants distributed till the end of March, 1938, totalled 657,900,000.

The Sugar Experimental Station The Taiwan Government-General Sugar Experimental Station was reorganized and was founded in Taiwan city in March, 1932, as the central organization for the promotion of sugar plantation. At first, the Hawaiian "rose bamboo" canes were adopted for the Taiwan sugar cultivation and canes of this kind occupied 96 per cent of all grown in 1913. Due to lack of adequate measures to keep the quality unchanged, and also to the fact that these canes had little power of resistance against storms they finally deteriorated. Then they were replaced by Java canes. At the end of March, 1932, the land under irrigation totalled 112,416 ko. The following are figures showing the area of sugar plantations and crop per ko since 1902:

Fiscal year	Plantation area (In ko)	Cane crop (In kin)	Crop per ko (In kin)
1905-06	35,158	1,690,206,794	48,078
1908-09	39,035	2,219,471,541	56,858
1910-11	75,329	3,159,598,569	41,944
1914-15	85,150	3,933,805,780	46,199
1917-18	150,450	6,817,535,709	45,314
1919-20	108,376	4,382,506,262	40,438
1920-21	142,032	6,752,838,826	47,544
1921-22	123,233	7,793,688,518	63,243
1923-24	130,480	8,825,641,621	67,641
1925-26	123,426	8,615,430,295	69,802
1926-27	101,531	7,411,962,535	73,002
1927-28	108,318	9,697,644,651	89,529
1928-29	120,046	12,291,944,205	102,394
1929-30	109,397	11,618,358,936	106,204
1930-31	99,094	10,944,669,505	110,447
1931-32	109,496	13,415,197,477	122,518
1932-33	83,690	8,782,001,849	104,835
1933-34	91,163	8,883,801,544	97,449
1934-35	121,628	13,477,260,178	110,807
1935-36	128,329	13,190,389,434	102,785
1936-37	124,555	14,271,874,413	114,583

Production of Sugar The sugar industry at the time of Japan's occupation of Taiwan was very primitive. Out of about 1,100 sugar mills, not a single mill had adopted the modern mechanical method of manufacturing, and all of them used animal power. Owing to insufficient pressing power, a large percentage of sugar-substance was wasted during the manufacturing process and, moreover, the product was inferior. By 1934 there were only 92 mills of this kind, as the majority of them were gradually eliminated. In these primitive mills two stone wheel cars or three metal wheel cars are employed for grinding by animal power. Improved mills use pressing machines and motors. Brown sugar is also manufactured. Such mills numbered only 6, with a total productive capacity of only 910 tons for 1934. The modernly-equipped mills have pressing capacity ranging from 300 to 3,000 tons a day and are able to produce in great quantity. The Taiwan Sugar Manufacturing Company founded in 1901 was the first of its kind. During the financial boom following the Russo-Japanese War many sugar-manufacturing concerns were established, and Japan finally leaped into a prominent position among the world's sugar-producing countries. In 1934 there were 50 mills with the daily productive capacities of 28,150 British tons and 13,400 American tons. Most of them produce crude sugar known as centrifugals. Some of them turn out white sugar by a change of milling operation. Sugar-cane pressing capacity and production of white sugar follow:

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Companies	Cane pressing capacity (In tons)	Production of white sugar 1935 (In kin)	1936 (In kin)	1937 (In kin)
Taiwan Sugar's Taihoku mill	Brit. 500	3,210,450	—	—
Taiwan Sugar's Sharokan mill	Amer. 1,200	25,633,887	36,107,409	38,196,246
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Téikoku Sugar	794,345,240	107,082,519	19,327,091
Showa Sugar	394,630,100	51,499,649	11,514,163
Taito Sugar	110,505,350	14,706,809	3,057,336
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Total	12,517,525,010	1,645,751,379	314,244,695
Improved mills	117,115,057	17,371,682	—
Primitive mills	141,241,651	15,797,097	—
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Mineral Products

The principal mineral products of Taiwan are gold, silver, placer-gold, quicksilver, copper, iron, lead, zinc, coal, petroleum, sulphur and phosphorus. The mine-lots at the end of 1937, numbered 695 with a total area of 211,655,230 tsubo, one tsubo being six feet square. Mines in operation numbered 270 covering an area of 108,530,000 tsubo. Of these 270 mines, 2 were gold mines, 2 gold and silver mines, 1 gold-copper mine, 29 placer-gold mines, 195 coal mines, 12 sulphur mines and 19 oil fields. The mineral production for 1937 totalled ¥36,223,154 showing an increase of ¥7,496,176 over 1936. The mineral production during the past five years, 1932-1936 inclusive follows:

	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936
		(In yen)			
Gold	¥22,733	1,681,592	1,581,328	3,494,040	4,223,712
Gold-copper ores	3,027,792	3,709,157	3,773,194	3,995,854	5,881,030
Placer-gold	11,611	57,017	94,730	62,477	159,509
Silver	10,003	16,632	8,472	21,542	16,746
Copper	174,419	294,388	274,484	376,072	469,830
Gold ores	70,750	—	66,633	2,330,178	2,076,851
Quicksilver	2,488	—	—	—	—
Coal	7,164,598	6,571,195	7,681,689	9,868,193	11,364,943
Sulphur	51,290	37,148	62,075	65,553	87,034
Phosphorous ores	647	—	—	365	851
Petroleum	263,631	245,944	424,677	384,860	312,159
Gasolene	1,797,275	994,003	574,857	490,383	456,396
Carbon black	43,552	205,527	341,079	516,125	291,554
Others and total	13,337,790	13,950,888	14,196,250	22,838,751	28,726,978

The Government-General conducted a mineral and geological investigation for eight years over the island following the introduction of civil administration in 1896. As a result, oil distribution was found almost all over the island. Subsidies were granted to those who had proper equipment for boring for oil to a depth of more than 2,000 feet. The subsidy was given from 1901 to 1924. It was then suspended, owing to financial reasons, but was resumed in 1930. Metal ores are found exclusively in the extreme north and the eastern district, coal in the northern and central parts and oil all over the island, especially in the central and southern districts. The mineral production in 1897 was only ¥112,000, but in 1907 it increased to ¥2,255,000, and in 1936 to as much as ¥15,196,250. Of this more than 50 per cent was coal, gold-copper ores 25 per cent; gasolene 4 per cent; gold 10 per cent; other minerals in smaller amounts in the following order: petroleum, carbon black, copper, placer-gold, gold ore, and sulphur.

Gold and Silver. Placer-gold was first discovered by Japanese invaders in Taiwan over 400 years ago, when Japanese pirates infested the neighbouring coasts of China. It was then got at Takkiri Gorge in Karenko district. In later years placer-gold was found in several localities, but at present the mining is conducted along the Keelung and other rivers. When the mining was most prosperous in 1903, the annual output reached 161 kan, one kan being 8.267 lb., valued at ¥610,000, but since then the industry has been sinking. The 1931 output was only 3.165 kan. A gold vein was first discovered at Mt. Kubu in 1893. In the following year gold deposits were found at Kinkwaseki and in 1891 another vein was discovered at Butanko. The gold mining interests at Butanko and Kinkwaseki was merged in 1913. The mining operation is done at Zuiho and Kinkwaseki. The Kinkwaseki mine is located about 10 miles east of Keelung. It is managed and operated by the Tanaka Mining Company, Ltd. The mining area at the end of 1931 was 4,053,000 tsubo. It has its own refinery.

Production at the mine for four years ending 1936 follows:

		1933	1934	1935	1936
Gold	Output in g.	32,301	—	—	—
	Value in yen	80,049	—	—	4,223,712
Silver	Output in g.	52,466	—	—	—
	Value in yen	1,886	—	—	16,746

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Gold-silver ores	Output in m.t.	115,693	—	65,085	—
	Value in yen	3,773,194	—	2,330.178	2,076,851
Gold-Silver	Out put in m.t.	—	130,297	104,384	—
-Copper ores	Value in yen	—	5,008,812	3,995,854	5,881,080
Gold ores	Output in m.t.	805	624	232	—
	Value in yen	66,633	56,286	20,127	—
Precipitated	Output in kg.	1,365,780	2,299,168	2,411,204	—
copper	Value in yen	274,484	327,970	376,072	469,830
Precipitated gold	Output in kg.	7,802	12,710	11,121	—
and silver	Value in yen	250,716	445,794	623,118	2,087,020
Total value in yen		4,446,962	5,838,862	7,345,349	14,755,239

Fujita Gumi, Osaka, first operated the Zuiho Mine in 1898, but the enterprise was transferred to the Taiyo Mining Company in 1920. Business has failed to realize satisfactory results. Its gold and silver output for four years follows:

		1932	1933	1934	1935
Gold:	Output in g.	569,749	566,907	1,002,928	1,131,862
	Value in yen	1,238,051	1,501,279	3,169,393	3,494,040
Silver:	Output in g.	180,968	178,666	296,941	329,212
	Value in yen	4,774	6,586	15,085	21,542
Total value in yen		1,242,825	1,507,865	3,184,478	3,515,582

Oil Oil in Taiwan was discovered by a Chinese about 80 years ago at Shukotan, near the Koryu valley, over an area covering 599,670 tsubo. Since 1905, 71 oil wells have been sunk. Well No. 18 is the best of all. From 1913 to 1925 the oil output from this well totalled 53,205 koku, by the Nippon Sekiyu Kaisha (Japan Oil Company, Ltd.). Owing, however, to the concentration of energy on the exploitation of the Kinsui Oil Field by the company, the output has gone off from the daily output of 300 koku. Lamp oil, gasolene, light oil and paraffin are manufactured from crude oil obtained here. The oil refinery is in Byoritsu.

The production from the crude oil is gasolene, 5 per cent, lamp oil 85 per cent, heavy oil 8 per cent and wax.

The kinsui oil field is the most important one in Taiwan. It is operated by the Japan Oil Company. A government subsidy was paid to exploit wells No. 1 to No. 5. It took eleven years for well No. 5 to realize satisfactory results. Well No. 10 produced an enormous output of 30,000,000 cubic feet a day in March, 1930, and a gasolene plant was installed there in November of the same year. When the capacity of the gasolene plants is fully developed, the daily output of gasolene will be 1,000 koku.

Other Industries

Prior to the World War, industries other than sugar and tea developed very little in the island. Since the War, however, chemical, spinning, machinery and other miscellaneous industries have developed to a considerable extent. The more important of those which are not mentioned elsewhere for 1936 follow:

	(In yen)
Spinning Industry	
Hemp tissues	1,242,685
Metal Industry:	
Tin plates	1,185,554
Gold and silver works	2,186,070
Machinery Industry:	
Machinery	4,713,860
Ceramics Industry:	
Bricks	3,525,415
Tiles	1,052,017
Cement	3,181,544
Chemical Industry:	
Oil cake	1,677,774
Vegetable oils	1,877,555
Papers	1,725,845
Mixed fertilizers	4,924,209
Food Stuff Industry:	
Soy sauce	2,286,681
Flour	2,123,297
Confectioneries	5,067,744
Macaroni	3,755,968
Ice	1,398,802
Miscellaneous Industries:	
Bamboo manufactures	1,986,196
Hats	3,776,790
Total industrial production	312,000,000

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Overseas Trade

The overseas trade of Taiwan, although it has experienced temporary set-backs from time to time, has made remarkable progress in recent years. The bulk of overseas trade is, however, with Japan proper, the rest being chiefly done with China, the United States, the Straits Settlements, the Dutch East Indies, the United Kingdom, Germany, British India, the Kwantung Leased Territory and Hongkong. The trade is carried on principally through the four large ports of Keelung, Tamsui, Anping and Takao. As Keelung is the most important port of trade in the north, so is Takao in the south. The trade volume for 1898 amounted to ¥30,000,000 which increased to ¥50,000,000 in 1906, and, owing to the phenomenal growth of the sugar industry and import of sugar milling machinery, the amount went up to more than ¥100,000,000 in 1910. In 1917 the amount recorded a further gain to ¥234,000,000, due to active trade in sugar, alcohol and rice and heavy transit trade with China. An all-time record of ¥680,634,926 was made in the trade volume for 1935. The amount gained ¥66,770,507 over the year before. In 1929, the trade figure amounted to ¥476,000,000, but declined to ¥336,000,000, affected by a great economic depression. Taiwan's overseas trade since 1925 is as follows:

OVERSEAS TRADE VALUE

	Exports abroad and exports to Japan proper and its colonies	Imports from abroad and Japan proper and its colonies	Total	Index
		(In yen)		
1910	59,962,255	48,923,289	108,885,544	349
1925	263,214,651	186,395,340	449,609,991	1,439
1926	251,425,070	183,412,450	434,837,520	1,392
1927	246,676,284	186,948,387	433,624,671	1,388
1928	248,417,285	190,653,933	439,071,218	1,406
1929	271,893,266	204,910,684	476,803,950	1,526
1930	241,441,304	168,258,310	409,699,614	1,311
1931	220,872,866	145,622,123	366,494,989	1,173
1932	240,727,988	164,497,770	405,225,758	1,298
1933	248,413,329	185,388,938	433,802,267	1,389
1934	305,928,680	215,021,701	520,950,381	1,668
1935	305,744,673	263,119,746	613,864,419	1,965
1936	387,948,978	292,685,948	680,634,926	2,178
1937	440,174,995	322,123,742	762,298,737	2,440
1938	456,454,000	366,659,000	823,113,000	—

TAIWAN'S FOREIGN TRADE

	Exports	Imports	Total	Excess of imports
		(In yen)		
1911	14,960,228	19,307,126	34,267,354	4,346,898 (export excess)
1925	47,965,844	56,489,060	104,454,904	8,523,216
1926	49,315,487	62,007,666	111,323,153	12,692,179
1927	44,597,707	65,840,396	110,438,103	21,242,689
1928	33,895,688	58,335,729	92,231,417	24,440,041
1929	33,187,977	64,541,012	97,728,989	31,353,035
1930	22,807,963	45,131,193	67,939,159	22,323,230
1931	19,448,759	30,858,816	50,307,575	11,410,057
1932	18,045,250	31,040,823	49,086,073	12,995,573
1933	17,666,418	35,142,961	53,142,961	17,810,125
1934	26,518,409	38,030,977	64,549,386	11,512,568
1935	36,544,190	44,978,909	81,523,099	8,434,719
1936	29,053,980	48,854,419	77,908,399	19,800,439
1937	29,916,109	44,228,818	74,144,927	14,312,709
1938	36,350,000	38,709,000	75,059,000	2,359,000

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LIST OF PRINCIPAL EXPORTS

(In ¥1,000)

	Oolong tea	Pouchong tea	Camphor	Coal	Sugar	Canned food	Cotton textiles	Dried and salted fish
1925	5,220	6,172	3,609	7,448	5,887	—	497	—
1926	5,407	6,771	1,949	8,437	3,177	—	499	—
1927	5,102	6,454	1,895	6,174	2,550	—	496	3,746
1928	4,315	5,493	3,215	3,964	1,252	—	314	—
1929	3,423	5,765	1,653	3,308	453	—	230	2,993
1930	2,608	5,785	1,085	2,872	67	—	111	1,436
1931	2,350	4,489	1,586	2,295	2,356	—	80	428
1932	2,802	1,836	1,547	1,315	3,174	—	1,054	544
1933	2,894	1,816	2,962	1,530	563	—	363	602
1934	3,117	2,641	2,381	1,387	122	—	1,055	1,495
1935	3,814	2,814	—	1,334	5,555	—	2,082	1,603
1936	2,954	2,279	2,514	1,216	2,621	1,507	901	570
1937	2,539	2,446	1,860	1,369	2,560	1,753	1,290	200
1938	2,891	3,435	914	2,229	11,661	2,232	—	—

Of the above, tea deserves special mention. In 1937 production of unrefined tea amounted to 21,553,995 kin, worth ¥10,285,535, and that of refined tea 18,954,536 kin, worth ¥13,451,724. Refined tea included ¥2,870,562 of Oolong tea, ¥3,162,587 of Pouchong tea, ¥7,417,575 of black tea, and ¥1,000 of green tea. The tea is almost exclusively produced in Taihoku and Shinchiku provinces. Oolong tea is appreciated by Britishers and Americans. The largest amount goes to the United States and the second largest amount to Great Britain. Pouchong tea is shipped to the South sea islands. Tea exports for 1937 show that the exports of black tea greatly increased amounting to ¥5,887,617 against ¥3,985,040 for 1936. Exports of Pouchong and Oolong tea for 1937 totalled ¥4,986,107, a decrease of ¥247,954 as compared with the previous year. Details follow :

	Exports abroad		Exports to Japan Proper and colonies		Total	
	Quantity (In kin)	Value (In yen)	Quantity (In kin)	Value (In yen)	Quantity (in kin)	Value (In yen)
Oolong	3,198,064	2,539,925	12,543	10,107	3,210,607	2,550,032
Pouchong	3,781,090	2,446,182	464,540	164,590	4,245,630	2,610,772
Black tea	8,842,353	5,887,617	839,968	1,158,657	9,682,321	7,046,274

LIST OF PRINCIPAL IMPORTS

(In ¥ 1,000)

	Beans	Brans	Lamp oil	Gunny bags	Lumber	Matches	Bean cake
1925	—	—	1,307	2,794	1,711	1,233	16,777
1926	—	—	1,107	2,485	2,332	897	13,744
1927	—	—	1,395	2,411	2,692	596	12,289
1928	—	—	1,130	2,050	2,978	524	12,326
1929	—	—	1,484	2,884	2,946	689	12,757
1930	—	—	1,014	2,407	1,499	511	10,252
1931	—	—	636	1,652	1,103	527	7,354
1932	—	—	669	1,327	556	488	10,342
1933	—	—	534	2,718	283	501	11,593
1934	—	—	375	3,270	118	—	12,204
1935	—	—	2,379	3,566	176	1,982	14,613
1936	5,168	3,833	—	3,360	643	—	14,793
1937	5,741	2,748	—	2,775	489	—	13,574
1938	5,649	1,084	—	2,607	58	—	14,684

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TAIWAN'S TRADE WITH JAPAN PROPER AND ITS COLONIES

(In yen)

	Exports	Imports	Total	Balance
1925	215,248,807	129,906,280	345,155,087	85,342,527
1926	202,109,583	121,404,784	323,514,367	80,704,799
1927	202,078,577	121,107,991	323,186,568	80,970,586
1928	214,521,597	132,318,204	346,839,801	82,203,393
1929	238,705,289	140,369,672	379,074,961	98,335,617
1930	218,633,341	123,127,117	341,760,458	95,505,224
1931	201,424,107	114,763,307	316,187,414	86,660,800
1932	222,682,738	133,456,947	356,139,685	89,225,791
1933	230,746,911	149,912,395	380,659,306	80,834,516
1934	279,410,271	176,990,724	456,400,995	102,419,547
1935	314,200,483	218,140,837	532,341,320	96,059,646
1936	358,894,998	243,831,529	602,726,527	115,063,469
1937	410,258,886	277,894,924	688,153,810	132,363,962
1938	420,104,000	327,950,000	748,054,000	92,154,000

LEADING EXPORTS TO JAPAN PROPER AND ITS COLONIES

(In ¥ 1,000)

	Rice	Sugar	Canned pineapples	Camphor	Camphor oils	Alcohol	Bananas
1925	72,110	105,651	—	2,087	2,468	3,854	9,096
1926	63,092	98,375	—	1,618	2,976	4,081	10,900
1927	67,885	96,430	3,145	1,078	1,887	3,616	8,616
1928	53,229	121,413	2,604	1,572	1,757	3,602	8,614
1929	49,320	142,601	4,407	2,612	3,040	3,505	8,419
1930	38,695	141,865	3,481	1,255	2,422	2,592	8,369
1931	41,097	120,475	4,157	766	1,824	3,054	8,329
1932	63,074	121,718	5,151	963	2,062	2,975	6,982
1933	64,627	118,614	4,791	1 174	1,554	5,455	7,899
1934	101,816	122,321	4,537	2,175	1,902	5,950	8,137
1935	105,545	145,977	7,306	—	—	6,767	9,475
1936	124 309	163,495	5,856	2,514	380	5,637	10,586
1937	126,171	188,985	7,599	2,616	1,587	7,429	11,736
1938	126,907	177,596	8,458	3,152	1,781	9,742	12,856

LEADING IMPORTS FROM JAPAN PROPER AND ITS COLONIES

(In ¥1,000)

	Wheat flour	Dried and salted fish	Iron manufactures	Cotton and silk tissues	Paper	Lumber	Fertilizers
1925	—	5,905	—	15,708	3,422	2,194	6,691
1926	—	6,056	5,764	19,805	3,065	3,395	4,745
1927	2,983	6,135	8,126	14,942	2,989	4,044	4,138
1928	2,985	5,498	8,695	15,077	3,237	4,822	4,692
1929	3,126	6,547	9,087	16,873	3,567	5,807	5,170
1930	2,374	4,032	7,901	13,394	3,254	4,535	5,832
1931	2,011	3,412	7,343	13,596	3,233	4,216	4,319
1932	2,716	3,253	8,013	13,358	3,470	5,491	7,745
1933	2,710	3,535	10,458	15,105	3,970	6,276	11,225
1934	3,413	3,956	2,517	17,250	4,515	7,271	16,582
1935	4,530	4,734	—	20,265	5,061	10,211	22,771
1936	5,511	4,902	6,528	19,324	5,413	11,948	28,491
1937	5,084	5,039	7,028	21,635	6,339	13,055	37,749
1938	6,313	5,482	9,952	23,361	7,178	19,086	44,878

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LIST OF PRINCIPAL EXPORTS

(In ¥1,000)

	Oolong tea	Pouchong tea	Camphor	Coal	Sugar	Canned food	Cotton textiles	Dried and salted fish
1925	5,220	6,172	3,609	7,448	5,887	—	497	—
1926	5,407	6,771	1,949	8,437	3,177	—	499	—
1927	5,102	6,454	1,895	6,174	2,550	—	496	3,746
1928	4,315	5,493	3,215	3,964	1,252	—	314	—
1929	3,423	5,765	1,653	3,308	453	—	230	2,993
1930	2,608	5,785	1,085	2,872	67	—	111	1,436
1931	2,350	4,489	1,586	2,295	2,356	—	80	428
1932	2,802	1,836	1,547	1,315	3,174	—	1,054	544
1933	2,894	1,816	2,962	1,530	563	—	363	602
1934	3,117	2,641	2,381	1,387	122	—	1,055	1,495
1935	3,814	2,814	—	1,334	5,555	—	2,082	1,603
1936	2,954	2,279	2,514	1,216	2,621	1,507	901	570
1937	2,539	2,446	1,860	1,369	2,560	1,753	1,290	200
1938	2,891	3,435	914	2,229	11,661	2,232	—	—

Of the above, tea deserves special mention. In 1937 production of unrefined tea amounted to 21,553,995 kin, worth ¥10,285,535, and that of refined tea 18,954,536 kin, worth ¥13,451,724. Refined tea included ¥2,870,562 of Oolong tea, ¥3,162,587 of Pouchong tea, ¥7,417,575 of black tea, and ¥1,000 of green tea. The tea is almost exclusively produced in Taihoku and Shinchiku provinces. Oolong tea is appreciated by Britishers and Americans. The largest amount goes to the United States and the second largest amount to Great Britain. Pouchong tea is shipped to the South sea islands. Tea exports for 1937 show that the exports of black tea greatly increased amounting to ¥5,887,617 against ¥3,985,040 for 1936. Exports of Pouchong and Oolong tea for 1937 totalled ¥4,986,107, a decrease of ¥247,954 as compared with the previous year. Details follow :

	Exports abroad		Exports to Japan Proper and colonies		Total	
	Quantity (In kin)	Value (In yen)	Quantity (In kin)	Value (In yen)	Quantity (in kin)	Value (In yen)
Oolong	3,198,064	2,539,925	12,543	10,107	3,210,607	2,550,032
Pouchong	3,781,090	2,446,182	464,540	164,590	4,245,630	2,610,772
Black tea	8,842,353	5,887,617	839,968	1,158,657	9,682,321	7,046,274

LIST OF PRINCIPAL IMPORTS

(In ¥ 1,000)

	Beans	Brans	Lamp oil	Gunny bags	Lumber	Matches	Bean cake
1925	—	—	1,307	2,794	1,711	1,233	16,777
1926	—	—	1,107	2,485	2,332	897	13,744
1927	—	—	1,395	2,411	2,692	596	12,289
1928	—	—	1,130	2,050	2,978	524	12,326
1929	—	—	1,484	2,884	2,946	689	12,757
1930	—	—	1,014	2,407	1,499	511	10,252
1931	—	—	636	1,652	1,103	527	7,354
1932	—	—	669	1,327	556	488	10,342
1933	—	—	534	2,718	283	501	11,593
1934	—	—	375	3,270	118	—	12,204
1935	—	—	2,379	3,566	176	1,982	14,613
1936	5,168	3,833	—	3,360	643	—	14,793
1937	5,741	2,748	—	2,775	489	—	13,574
1938	5,649	1,084	—	2,607	58	—	14,684

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TAIWAN'S TRADE WITH JAPAN PROPER AND ITS COLONIES

(In yen)

	Exports	Imports	Total	Balance
1925	215,248,807	129,906,280	345,155,087	85,342,527
1926	202,109,583	121,404,784	323,514,367	80,704,799
1927	202,078,577	121,107,991	323,186,568	80,970,586
1928	214,521,597	132,318,204	346,839,801	82,203,393
1929	238,705,289	140,369,672	379,074,961	98,335,617
1930	218,633,341	123,127,117	341,760,458	95,505,224
1931	201,424,107	114,763,307	316,187,414	86,660,800
1932	222,682,738	133,456,947	356,139,685	89,225,791
1933	230,746,911	149,912,395	380,659,306	80,834,516
1934	279,410,271	176,990,724	456,400,995	102,419,547
1935	314,200,483	218,140,837	532,341,320	96,059,646
1936	358,894,998	243,831,529	602,726,527	115,063,469
1937	410,258,886	277,894,924	688,153,810	132,363,962
1938	420,104,000	327,950,000	748,054,000	92,154,000

LEADING EXPORTS TO JAPAN PROPER AND ITS COLONIES

(In ¥ 1,000)

	Rice	Sugar	Canned pineapples	Camphor	Camphor oils	Alcohol	Bananas
1925	72,110	105,651	—	2,087	2,468	3,854	9,096
1926	63,092	98,375	—	1,618	2,976	4,081	10,900
1927	67,885	96,430	3,145	1,078	1,887	3,616	8,616
1928	53,229	121,413	2,604	1,572	1,757	3,602	8,614
1929	49,320	142,601	4,407	2,612	3,040	3,505	8,419
1930	38,695	141,865	3,481	1,255	2,422	2,592	8,369
1931	41,097	120,475	4,157	766	1,824	3,054	8,329
1932	63,074	121,718	5,151	963	2,062	2,975	6,982
1933	64,627	118,614	4,791	1 174	1,554	5,455	7,899
1934	101,816	122,321	4,537	2,175	1,902	5,950	8,137
1935	105,545	145,977	7,306	—	—	6,767	9,475
1936	124 309	163,495	5,856	2,514	380	5,637	10,586
1937	126,171	188,985	7,599	2,616	1,587	7,429	11,736
1938	126,907	177,596	8,458	3,152	1,781	9,742	12,856

LEADING IMPORTS FROM JAPAN PROPER AND ITS COLONIES

(In ¥1,000)

	Wheat flour	Dried and salted fish	Iron manufactures	Cotton and silk tissues	Paper	Lumber	Fertilizers
1925	—	5,905	—	15,708	3,422	2,194	6,691
1926	—	6,056	5,764	19,805	3,065	3,395	4,745
1927	2,983	6,135	8,126	14,942	2,989	4,044	4,138
1928	2,985	5,498	8,695	15,077	3,237	4,822	4,692
1929	3,126	6,547	9,087	16,873	3,567	5,807	5,170
1930	2,374	4,032	7,901	13,394	3,254	4,535	5,832
1931	2,011	3,412	7,343	13,596	3,233	4,216	4,319
1932	2,716	3,253	8,013	13,358	3,470	5,491	7,745
1933	2,710	3,535	10,458	15,105	3,970	6,276	11,225
1934	3,413	3,956	2,517	17,250	4,515	7,271	16,582
1935	4,530	4,734	—	20,265	5,061	10,211	22,771
1936	5,511	4,902	6,528	19,324	5,413	11,948	28,491
1937	5,084	5,039	7,028	21,635	6,339	13,055	37,749
1938	6,313	5,482	9,952	23,361	7,178	19,086	44,878

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Fiscal year	Passenger fares	Freight receipts	Others	Total	Indices
		(In ¥1,000)			
1916-17	2,575	3,544	44	6,163	1,455
1926-27	7,488	9,711	—	17,199	5,008
1927-28	8,002	10,644	—	18,646	5,428
1928-29	8,277	11,420	—	19,697	5,735
1929-30	8,349	11,915	—	20,264	5,900
1930-31	7,720	11,391	—	19,111	5,564
1931-32	6,897	11,367	—	18,264	5,317
1932-33	7,109	11,742	—	18,851	5,488
1933-34	7,468	11,862	—	19,331	5,628
1934-35	7,966	13,458	—	21,425	6,238
1935-36	9,578	14,625	—	24,204	7,047
1936-37	9,722	16,353	—	26,076	7,592
1937-38	10,537	16,481	—	27,019	7,866

PRIVATE RAILWAY STATISTICS IN TAIWAN

	Mileage (in km.)	Passenger fares (in yen)	Freight receipts	Others & total	Indices for income
1928-29	551	993,761	2,302,948	3,326,098	3,904
1929-30	554	929,023	2,345,612	3,308,648	3,884
1930-31	542	775,164	2,168,499	3,001,102	3,534
1931-32	530	544,704	1,752,781	2,332,097	3,737
1932-33	534	460,706	1,913,548	2,406,931	2,825
1933-34	502	453,595	1,499,054	1,998,246	2,346
1934-35	504	451,595	1,643,378	2,121,833	2,491
1935-36	505	521,561	1,963,034	2,540,608	2,982
1936-37	506	546,965	1,845,578	2,455,949	2,883
1937-38	509	544,352	1,861,702	2,465,858	2,895

Light Railways

	Mileage (in km.)	Passenger fares (In ¥1,000)	Freight receipts	Total	Indices for income
1928-29	1,162	945	1,652	2,597	778
1929-30	1,329	867	1,551	2,418	727
1930-31	1,327	688	1,357	2,045	613
1931-32	1,367	562	1,096	1,658	497
1932-33	1,325	520	1,049	1,569	470
1933-34	1,247	521	1,129	1,650	494
1934-35	1,232	514	1,149	1,663	498
1935-36	1,218	463	1,138	1,601	479
1936-37	1,182	345	1,953	1,298	389
1937-38	1,038	327	958	1,285	385

Formosa Development Company

In connection with Japan's economic expansion in the island, the Formosa Development Company was founded by virtue of Law No. 43 of 1936 upon approval at the Imperial Diet on May 26 of the same year. The company is capitalized at ¥30,000,000, a half of which is invested by the Government in the shape of Government-owned property, consisting of fields, farms, forests, pastures, land and other real estate. The other half was invested by private persons. The Government organized an establishment committee of 81. Formal sanction of the company's establishment was given by the Overseas Minister on August 27. Its virtual establishment took place on November 25 of the same year. The company's paid-up capitalization amounted to ¥18,750,000. Its head office is in Taihoku and it has a branch in Tokyo. Its president and vice-president are appointed by the Governor-General of Formosa on sanction of the Overseas Minister. The company is authorized to issue Formosa Development debentures three times its paid-up capitalization.

Because of its nature as a special business institution, the Government is vest-

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ed with authority to issue necessary instructions for supervision to the company. The company is not bound by duty to pay any dividend to the Government's investments until it is able to declare an annual 6 per cent dividend rate to shareholders other than the Government. When it can declare a 7 per cent dividend, it will have to pay a 4 per cent dividend to the Government, and, when it can declare more than an 8 per cent dividend, it will have to pay the same dividend to the Government. Mr. Kyohei Kato is its president.

The company engages in the following enterprises: land management, cultivation of agricultural and forest lands, mass emigration of farmers, financing and investments in promising enterprises overseas.

The company adopted a 10-year plan for the industrial development of Formosa. The plan calls for investment of ¥1,000,000,000. First-period enterprises in the 10-year plan include raw cotton cultivation, colonial development and industrial emigration. These enterprises are expected to require for the first year about ¥4,500,000, which will be supplied by the company. The company has authority to issue debentures to raise necessary funds. Later, the company will develop plantations of cinchona and cacao trees and medicinal herbs. The company has decided to found a Formosa Raw Cotton Company with a capitalization of ¥3,000,000, making it its subsidiary. Its factory will be built at Kagi. The eventual object of the cotton company is to raise 100,000,000 kin of cotton a year on a plantation covering 100,000 chobu. This amount is expected to be raised 10 years hence. Total expenditures will be about ¥30,000,000. The first year's cotton crop is estimated at about 6,000,000 kin.

Electricity

The Taiwan Electric Power Company, Ltd., was established in April, 1919, under ordinance of the Taiwan Government-General. The Government-General appraised all of its electric assets at ¥12,000,000 and offered them to the company. The Government-General owns the company's shares to that amount, being the largest shareholder. The company started a gigantic power-generating undertaking, utilizing the water of Lake Jitsugetsutan, in August of the same year, but, owing to the subsequent financial depression, the work was suspended. In 1929 the resumption of work was decided on and the necessary amount, $22,800,000 (¥45,737,211) was raised in America in July, 1931, on Government guarantee. Work was actually resumed in October of the same year on a three-year plan. Taiwan's electric enterprises at the end of 1934, are summarized as follows:

Companies	Capitalization	Lamps fitted	Power supplied kw.	Fans fitted
Taiwan Electric Power	¥34,495,000	646,994	20,822	25,934
Taiwan Electric Light	1,500,000	81,272	2,213	2,592
Taiwan Godo Electric	2,000,000	28,664	779	340
Karenko Electric	1,240,000	10,806	365	202
Koshun Electric	100,000	1,408	—	—
Nansho Electric	8,500	204	—	—
Total	39,343,500	769,348	24,179	29,068

Principal Cities

Taihoku Taihoku or Taipeh is the capital city of Taiwan. It is situated on the Tamsui River, near the northern extremity of the island. Formerly it consisted of three districts, Jonai, Daitotei and Manka, but with the introduction of the municipal system in 1920, all the surrounding villages were included in the greater Taihoku, and at present the city covers an area of about 15 square miles, embracing a population of 302,654. In Jonai are found the important public buildings, such as the official residence of the Governor-General, and many governmental buildings. Most of the Japanese residents live in this district. Daitotei is the commercial centre. It is inhabited by more than 63,000 people and is renowned for its tea trade. Manka is situated close to the Tamsui River, west of Jonai. This district was formerly the most flourishing part of the city. During the Manchu Dynasty its commercial supremacy was transferred to Daitotei. This district is populated by 37,000 inhabitants. There are many places of interest in and around Taihoku, of which the more famous are :

Taiwan Shrine. This shrine is situated at a point two miles east of Taihoku. The sanctuary is built in

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Fiscal year	Passenger fares	Freight receipts	Others	Total	Indices
		(In ¥1,000)			
1916-17	2,575	3,544	44	6,163	1,455
1926-27	7,488	9,711	—	17,199	5,008
1927-28	8,002	10,644	—	18,646	5,428
1928-29	8,277	11,420	—	19,697	5,735
1929-30	8,349	11,915	—	20,264	5,900
1930-31	7,720	11,391	—	19,111	5,564
1931-32	6,897	11,367	—	18,264	5,317
1932-33	7,109	11,742	—	18,851	5,488
1933-34	7,468	11,862	—	19,331	5,628
1934-35	7,966	13,458	—	21,425	6,238
1935-36	9,578	14,625	—	24,204	7,047
1936-37	9,722	16,353	—	26,076	7,592
1937-38	10,537	16,481	—	27,019	7,866

PRIVATE RAILWAY STATISTICS IN TAIWAN

	Mileage (in km.)	Passenger fares (in yen)	Freight receipts	Others & total	Indices for income
1928-29	551	993,761	2,302,948	3,326,098	3,904
1929-30	554	929,023	2,345,612	3,308,648	3,884
1930-31	542	775,164	2,168,499	3,001,102	3,534
1931-32	530	544,704	1,752,781	2,332,097	3,737
1932-33	534	460,706	1,913,548	2,406,931	2,825
1933-34	502	453,595	1,499,054	1,998,246	2,346
1934-35	504	451,595	1,643,378	2,121,833	2,491
1935-36	505	521,561	1,963,034	2,540,608	2,982
1936-37	506	546,965	1,845,578	2,455,949	2,883
1937-38	509	544,352	1,861,702	2,465,858	2,895

Light Railways

	Mileage (in km.)	Passenger fares	Freight receipts (In ¥1,000)	Total	Indices for income
1928-29	1,162	945	1,652	2,597	778
1929-30	1,329	867	1,551	2,418	727
1930-31	1,327	688	1,357	2,045	613
1931-32	1,367	562	1,096	1,658	497
1932-33	1,325	520	1,049	1,569	470
1933-34	1,247	521	1,129	1,650	494
1934-35	1,232	514	1,149	1,663	498
1935-36	1,218	463	1,138	1,601	479
1936-37	1,182	345	1,953	1,298	389
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income tax, business profit tax, liquor-brewing tax, liquor-export tax, consumption tax, mining business tax, and fishery tax. The revenue from all these taxes was, in the 1939-40 budget, estimated at ¥46,747,712. The revenue, other than from taxes, consists of receipts from the sales of stamps, railway traffic and freight charges, medical treatment charges at governmental hospitals, charges receivable at the Central Experiment Station, receipts from the sales of trees felled in the state forests, rents of homesteads and various Government buildings and loans. Below is given a brief fiscal history of the Karafuto government :

REVENUES (Yen)

	Taxes and non-tax elements	Replenishment from national treasury	Sum brought forward	Loans	Total
1910	1,229,705	544,714	260,524	—	2,034,943
1911	1,369,045	570,657	137,479	—	2,077,181
1912	1,534,991	591,819	169,949	—	2,296,759
1913	2,062,574	389,291	219,082	—	2,670,947
1914	1,548,748	323,575	392,901	—	2,265,224
1915	1,495,046	323,575	191,191	—	2,009,912
1916	2,058,576	293,575	329,255	—	2,681,406
1917	2,619,315	323,575	829,563	—	3,772,453
1918	2,936,793	—	1,663,970	1,091,000	5,692,761
1919	3,570,658	300,000	2,720,110	1,173,500	7,764,269
1920	5,221,674	770,000	2,022,404	3,381,209	11,395,291
1921	7,057,103	1,433,000	3,109,807	4,173,290	15,775,205
1922	8,386,012	1,100,000	3,707,623	7,607,920	20,801,558
1923	12,436,861	1,786,000	2,758,969	4,475,436	21,452,266
1924	15,772,056	1,000,000	2,168,245	416,218	19,357,520
1925	16,000,305	900,000	78,454	1,700,000	18,678,760
1926	18,339,308	1,577,343	618,814	1,786,562	22,322,027
1927	18,414,702	2,029,635	4,587,927	1,845,052	26,877,316
1928	21,963,835	2,029,635	6,894,976	1,857,924	32,646,370
1929	22,280,159	3,100,000	6,955,100	4,569	32,339,827
1930	21,192,064	1,600,000	3,752,468	—	26,544,532
1931	22,944,655	1,600,000	79,281	1,500,000	26,123,936
1932	19,001,609	1,600,000	826,744	1,000,000	22,428,353
1933	21,511,620	1,600,000	1,774,673	2,955,241	27,841,498
1934	33,408,070	1,000,000	5,626,912	4,615	40,039,597
1935	27,565,141	—	15,339,451	—	42,904,592
1936	32,842,000	185,000	15,442,000	—	48,469,000
1937	41,762,000	—	15,241,000	—	57,003,000

Expenditure

The expenditures have been increasing yearly. In 1907 they totalled only ¥1,211,968, but for the 1937-38 fiscal year the amount increased to ¥35,805,000, of which ordinary expenditures totalled ¥18,848,000 and extraordinary expenditures totalled ¥16,957,000. Items of expenditure consist of administrative, educational, forestry, employment, Karafuto development enterprises, public works and many others. Expenditures for the preceding five years are ¥19,982,340 for the 1927-28 year; ¥25,691,270 for the 1928-29 year; ¥28,587,359 for the 1929-30; ¥24,629,293 for the 1930-31 : ¥21,179,749 for the 1931-32; ¥20,863,778 for the 1932-33 year; ¥22,214,586 for the 1933-34 years; ¥24,700,146 for the 1934-35 year; ¥27,462,435 for the 1935-36 year; and ¥33,228,032 for the 1936-37 year.

Monetary Organs

The principal monetary organs in the island are the Hokkaido Colonial Bank and the Karafuto Bank. The former is represnted by its branches at Toyohara, Ohtomari, Maoka, Honto, Noda, Tomarioru, Ochiai, Shirutoru, Shisuka and Rutaka; its head office being located at Sapporo, Hokkaido. The business operation of the bank in the island at the end of 1937 showed deposits amounting to ¥44,359,381 and loans advanced to ¥28,511,609. The Karafuto Bank is the only one having its head office in the island, its deposits totalling ¥3,058,-

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322 and loans advanced ¥5,295,637 on the same date. The bank came into existence in May, 1914, with a capital stock of ¥500,000 which was increased to ¥2,000,000 in March, 1919. The Karafuto Bank has its head office at Ohtomari and a branch at Maoka. The two banks are doing good work for the development of the island. Besides these banks there is a special bank which has a branch at Toyohara, and that is the Hokumon Savings Bank. This savings bank branch was opened on April 1, 1922. Its local business operation showed at the end of 1937, advances figured at ¥396,144 and deposits at ¥2,538,186.

Military Training Camps

The military training camps ordinance was promulgated in April, 1926, providing for the establishment of camps for the military drilling of youths below the conscription age. The ordinance, however, was not promulgated in oversea territories, the only exception being Karafuto, where the local authorities in view of the almost complete lack of nationalistic social work in operation and of the smallness in the number of non-Japanese elements in the population, issued an order in May of the same year, making possible the growth of the military drilling work for the youths. Below is shown the present status of the work so far carried on :

MILITARY TRAINING CAMPS

Town	No. of Camps	Attendants
Toyohara	8	—
Ohtomari	9	—
Honto	9	—
Maoka	7	—
Tomarioru	9	—
Motodomari	3	—
Shisuka	6	—
Total	51	3,080

Overseas Trade

The history of the overseas trade of Karafuto since 1905 is a history of steady expansion, though it underwent a frequent recession in the course of those 31 years. The table below illustrates the trend in a more graphic way :

Year	To Foreign Countries	To Japan proper	Total
		(In yen)	
1928	937,710	97,000,380	97,938,090
1929	2,042,652	103,034,631	105,077,283
1930	2,335,126	82,140,506	84,475,632
1931	841,655	80,233,395	81,075,050
1932	274,447	92,626,343	92,900,790
1933	367,088	104,886,093	105,253,181
1934	430,644	133,777,256	134,207,900
1935	867,965	130,940,201	131,808,166
1936	402,848	173,207,406	173,610,254
1937	235,001	121,137,965	121,372,966

SHIPMENTS TO AND FROM JAPAN PROPER

Year	Outward-bound	Inward-bound	Total	Excess of Outward-bound
		(In yen)		
1928	50,915,329	46,085,051	97,000,380	4,830,278
1929	56,388,752	46,645,879	103,034,631	9,742,873
1930	46,812,144	35,328,362	82,140,506	11,483,782
1931	50,984,860	29,248,535	80,233,395	21,736,325
1932	63,510,076	29,116,267	92,626,343	34,393,809
1933	73,455,524	31,430,569	104,886,093	42,024,955
1934	96,648,171	37,129,083	133,777,256	59,519,086
1935	92,884,992	38,055,209	130,940,201	54,829,783
1936	119,435,796	53,771,610	173,207,406	65,664,186
1937	121,137,965	59,114,966	180,252,931	62,022,999

Principal shipments to Japan proper in 1934 consisted of pulp, lumber, paper, marine fertilizer, salt-salmon, salt-codfish, dried herring, dried codfish, fish oil, edible seaweed and canned crabs. Principal shipments from Japan proper

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during the same year consisted of rice, cotton goods, oils, beer, saké, oats, peas and beans, salt, sugar, soy (Japanese sauce), miso (bean paste), tobacco, fish and shellfish, vegetables, fruits, and mineral products.

Trade with Foreign Countries

The ports open to foreign trade in Karafuto are Ohtomari and Maoka. The countries with which Karafuto has trade relations are Chosen, China, Eastern Russia, the Kwantung Leased Territory, America, Germany, Spain, Belgium, the Dutch Indies and Egypt. The following table contains detailed information on the foreign trade of Karafuto in the past 6 years:

EXPORT TRADE OF KARAFUTO

	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936	1937
			(In yen)			
Manchoukuo	—	81,834	12,321	152	40	—
Soviet Russia	—	8,000	6,851	—	—	—
China	898	—	500	9,511	35,743	97,098
Kwantung Leased Territory	4,347	18,049	1,952	23,317	78,154	82,848
America and European Countries	212	—	—	—	—	55,055
Total	8,558	107,883	21,624	32,980	113,937	235,001

IMPORT TRADE OF KARAFUTO

	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936	1937
			(In yen)			
Manchoukuo	—	1,340	1,570	—	—	—
Soviet Russia	192	5,413	3,680	2	—	404
China	76	—	—	5	—	—
Kwantung Leased Territory	76,679	126,069	248,832	173,552	234,566	284,863
America and European Countries	188,267	126,293	154,938	661,426	54,345	3,395
Total	265,889	259,205	490,020	834,985	288,911	288,662

EXCESS OF IMPORTS OVER EXPORTS

1931	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936	1937
			(In yen)			
—	257,331	151,322	387,396	802,005	174,974	53,661

EXCESS OF EXPORTS OVER IMPORTS

1931	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936	1937
			(In yen)			
429,666	—	—	—	—	—	—

Agriculture

There was practically no agriculture in Karafuto prior to its cession to Japan in 1905. No sooner had it passed into Japan's possession than vigorous steps were taken for the reclamation work of all arable lands. In 1937 the farm production reached ¥5,811,788, farming households 10,811 and arable lands 331,317 hectares. Yet the lands under actual cultivation cover only 34,888 hectares, which shows that there is still room to accommodate more farming inhabitants. The chief agricultural products are grains, peas and beans, potatoes and green vegetables, and of the grains oats and rye are most abundantly produced. Keeping livestock goes hand in hand with agriculture in the island, for it is by pasturing that the livelihood of the agricultural settlers is made more stable. Every assistance is, therefore, being given by the Karafuto government to live-stock raising. Cattle, horses, swine and foxes are the principal animals kept, with some sheep, rabbits, chickens, ducks, etc. In 1937 the total live-stock product amounted in money value to ¥3,620,573, about one-half of the entire value of farm products.

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China	898	—	500	9,511	35,743	97,098
Kwantung Leased Territory	4,347	18,049	1,952	23,317	78,154	82,848
America and European Countries	212	—	—	—	—	55,055
Total	8,558	107,883	21,624	32,980	113,937	235,001

IMPORT TRADE OF KARAFUTO

	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936	1937
			(In yen)			
Manchoukuo	—	1,340	1,570	—	—	—
Soviet Russia	192	5,413	3,680	2	—	404
China	76	—	—	5	—	—
Kwantung Leased Territory	76,679	126,069	248,832	173,552	234,566	284,863
America and European Countries	188,267	126,293	154,938	661,426	54,345	3,395
Total	265,889	259,205	490,020	834,985	288,911	288,662

EXCESS OF IMPORTS OVER EXPORTS

1931	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936	1937
			(In yen)			
—	257,331	151,322	387,396	802,005	174,974	53,661

EXCESS OF EXPORTS OVER IMPORTS

1931	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936	1937
			(In yen)			
429,666	—	—	—	—	—	—

Agriculture

There was practically no agriculture in Karafuto prior to its cession to Japan in 1905. No sooner had it passed into Japan's possession than vigorous steps were taken for the reclamation work of all arable lands. In 1937 the farm production reached ¥5,811,788, farming households 10,811 and arable lands 331,317 hectares. Yet the lands under actual cultivation cover only 34,888 hectares, which shows that there is still room to accommodate more farming inhabitants. The chief agricultural products are grains, peas and beans, potatoes and green vegetables, and of the grains oats and rye are most abundantly produced. Keeping livestock goes hand in hand with agriculture in the island, for it is by pasturing that the livelihood of the agricultural settlers is made more stable. Every assistance is, therefore, being given by the Karafuto government to live-stock raising. Cattle, horses, swine and foxes are the principal animals kept, with some sheep, rabbits, chickens, ducks, etc. In 1937 the total live-stock product amounted in money value to ¥3,620,573, about one-half of the entire value of farm products.

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1905. Moreover, during the earlier period of the new régime, devastation by fire was not infrequent. On the other hand, the increased number of population in the island had the effect of increasing the demand for timber in various ways. The first task which confronted the Karafuto government in their forest administration was therefore how to protect the forests from devastation, how best to fell and how to re-stock. As a tentative re-stocking measure large amounts of seeds of todo-matsu, Ezo-matsu, Kara-matsu and silver birch were sown on a wide burnt patch of mountain-side in the neighbourhood of Ochiai in June, 1920. As the experiment was satisfactory, seedings were carried on a tract of 15.47 hectares and 50.01 hectares in 1921 and 1922 respectively. Then in 1923, the seeding work was carried on over a total tract of 4,285,09 hectares, then it was carried in the same way in 1926 and 1927 until in the latter year seedings were carried on over a tract of 10,460.74 hectares and the supplementary sowings made on a tract of 2,569.68 hectares. The total area of seeding up to 1937 reached 50,208.21 hectares.

Planting Work With the increased need of re-foresting with saplings, the seedling work has become quite important. Since the first sapling plantation was established at Toyohara in 1912 its number began to increase, and now there are 17 sapling-plantations established throughout Karafuto producing annually about 6 million saplings. Details follow :

Location	Acreage (Hectares)	Date of Establishment
Toyohara	15.2110	5/1912
Shimizu	4.9500	5/1920
Tokobo	13.0485	5/1920
Tominaigishi	7.9467	"
Tomarioru	4.6761	"
Takarazawa	4.9839	"
Kawakami	6.7287	"
Otomari	4.9893	5/1926
Tamagawa	69.4040	5/1927
Yamashitagawa	6.1684	5/1927
Minaminazuki	5.3328	5/1929
Obara	6.8878	5/1929
Kitakotami	13.8217	5/1929
Towada	0.1530	5/1920
Contoro	1.2500	5/1930
Nayori	7.4250	4/1931
Kamishisuka	14.9100	4/1931
Total	137.8869	—

The total area of planting up to 1937 reached 26,379.36 hectares.

Felling Work The present Government's felling work was started in May, 1927, on the estimated basis of an annual production of 535,743 cubic metres of timber. But, in view of the difficulty felt in marketing, the annual aggregate felling was reduced to the basis of 196,-370 cubic metres. The business plan for the year 1938 is as follows:

	¥
Receipts	4,020,683
Expenses	923,016

TIMBER PRODUCTION DURING 1924-1937

Year	Felling (Koku)	Shipment (Koku)	Delivery (Koku)
1924	2,366,545.98	2,502,820.31	2,547,288.54
1925	1,100,388.91	2,130,118.02	2,169,525.38
1926	744,982.00	1,274,693.17	1,319,501.38
		(cubic metres)	
1927	541,630.473	25,429.015	7,137.030
1928	459,340.777	494,156.669	509,218.133
1929	492,061.608	497,863.054	504,930.773
1930	198,742.706	455,250.462	455,250.462
1931	205,587.861	202,115.850	202,115.850
1932	201,020.000	196,532.000	196,532.000
1933	199,555.000	200,371.000	200,371.000
1935	202,413.000	169,751.000	173,367.000
		(Cubic metres)	
1937	212,507	208,303	208,303

Forests for University Field Work It was in April, 1914, that a forest tract of 20,000 hectares along the basins of the Ai-kawa (Ai River) and Odasamu-kawa (Odasamu River) was given to the Tokyo Imperial University for the field work of forestry students of its College of Agriculture.

Before or after that year the forests totalling 94,502 hectares for the field work of the Hokkaido, Kyushu and Kyoto Imperial Universities were es-

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breeding. In 1911 the hunting ban was alleviated, the annual number to be killed being limited to 550. In 1913 it became apparent to the supervisiors that the number of landing fur-seals was decreasing, so in 1915 the ban was again imposed and was maintained until 1917. It was then withdrawn, with an annual permit to kill up to 550 head. In 1924 the hunting of old, non-breeding fur-seals was started. This increased the production in the year to 824 head and that in the following year to 942. In 1937 the total reached 2,125. In accordance with the Fur-Seal Treaty concluded by Japan with the United States and Russia in 1911, Japan is paying 10 per cent annually of the profit from this fur-sealing to the governments of these two countries. Whales are principally hunted by the ships of the Oriental Whale-Hunting Company which has a base for that purpose in Aniwa Gulf. The following shows the money value of the chief fishery products :

VALUE OF FISHERY PRODUCTS, 1932—1936

(In yen)

Kind	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936
Foodstuffs	4,553,126	6,487,003	7,021,629	10,395,190	9,452,781
Dried	2,738,067	2,181,542	2,775,982	3,796,197	5,714,131
Salted and dried	38,480	63,785	98,990	147,469	106,837
Boiled and dried	37,340	97,357	132,220	309,036	370,382
Smoked	17,063	24,675	15,146	38,641	22,834
Salted	569,484	1,344,536	942,175	2,136,629	1,209,913
Canned	928,913	2,395,697	2,644,809	3,389,000	1,172,229
Others	223,779	379,411	412,307	578,218	856,455
Fertilizers	5,322,958	5,671,564	7,185,527	5,474,388	6,375,516
Fish oils	405,143	464,403	798,065	863,639	1,343,801
Seaweeds	5,687	5,816	10,109	102,663	131,927
Other non-eatables	11,731	11,805	12,509	81,876	39,018
Total	10,298,645	12,640,591	15,027,339	16,917,756	17,343,043

Source: Statistics Book of the Ministry of Overseas Affairs.

1937 FISHERY PRODUCTS

Kind	Value in Yen
Herring and manufactures	7,715,574
Trout	1,900,169
Salmon	349,057
Codfish and manufactures	1,236,231
Flatfish „ „	552,844
Crabs	1,495,717
Tangle	703,230
Sardine and manufactures	1,801,942
Shell-fishes	628,036
Isinglass	949,981
Others	1,775,758
Total	19,108,539

Timber Production

The island is so thickly and extensively covered with primeval forests that, according to an authoritative estimate, about 2,976,491 hectares, i. e., about 83 per cent of the entire area of the territory, is forest land. In this estimate is included 833,333 hectares reserved for future growth and 79,365 hectares in use for the field work of the Imperial Universities of Tokyo, Kyoto, Hokkaido and Kyushu. There are about 49 species of trees and 73 of shrubs growing on the island, but those that have any commercial value are the Ezo-matsu (Picea ajanensis, Fisch), todo-matsu (Abies sachaliensis, Mast), gui-matsu, ichii (the yew, Taxus baccata), shirakaba (the silver birch, Betula alba), doroyanagi (a willow), hannoki (the black alder) tamo, and a few others. Their distribution is regular, according to districts. In the low coastwise districts we find the yanagi, hannoki, tamo, etc.; on the higher levels grow the todo-matsu and Ezo-matsu, and as we climb the slopes forests of the graceful silver birch mix with and replace the pines (matsu), growing thicker and thicker as the mountain peaks are approached. The guimatsu (a pine species) grows principally in the lower, damper land. But the todo-matsu and Ezo-matsu are the species which predominate in nearly all parts of the island, occupying as much as 80 per cent of the total forest land. The revenue from the forestry amounted to ¥25,568,000 in 1937.

Forest Administration In ancient times the entire island of Karafuto was nothing but thick forest and the natives seem to have no rules to prevent them from felling trees whenever or wherever they chose; but they apparently felt no need to fell any large amount of standing trees. The land was almost as primeval as could be imagined when it was ceded by Russia to Japan in

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1905. Moreover, during the earlier period of the new régime, devastation by fire was not infrequent. On the other hand, the increased number of population in the island had the effect of increasing the demand for timber in various ways. The first task which confronted the Karafuto government in their forest administration was therefore how to protect the forests from devastation, how best to fell and how to re-stock. As a tentative re-stocking measure large amounts of seeds of todo-matsu, Ezo-matsu, Kara-matsu and silver birch were sown on a wide burnt patch of mountain-side in the neighbourhood of Ochiai in June, 1920. As the experiment was satisfactory, seedings were carried on a tract of 15.47 hectares and 50.01 hectares in 1921 and 1922 respectively. Then in 1923, the seeding work was carried on over a total tract of 4,285,09 hectares, then it was carried in the same way in 1926 and 1927 until in the latter year seedings were carried on over a tract of 10,460.74 hectares and the supplementary sowings made on a tract of 2,569.68 hectares. The total area of seeding up to 1937 reached 50,208.21 hectares.

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	No. of Schools	Teachers	Pupils
Girls' High schools	6	100	1,708
Takushoku (colonization) schools	1	8	60

Education of the Natives There are some 2,000 natives in Karafuto including Ainus, Gilyaks, Orochones and Tunguses. The Karafuto government is undertaking to educate the children of these backward natives. At the educational institution established at Shisuka-machi, where about 30 children of the natives are taught along the line of the primary school.

Religion

The three principal religions, i. e., Shinto, Buddhism and Christianity, are competing with one another in this promising field of labour. Tere are 42 propagating centres for Shintoism representing five sects, viz., Shinto proper, Kurosumi, Tenri, Konko and Taisha. There are three governmental shrines and these are (1) Karafuto Shrine, (2) Toyohara Shrine and (3) Ani Shrine, all of which are dedicated to Imperial ancestors. August 23 is the day set for annual festival of the Karafuto Shrine, which is also the Inauguration Day of Japanese administration in Karafuto. The shrine is located at Asahiga-oka in a quiet western hilly suburb of Toyohara, and strikes the chance visitor with a sense of admiration for its grave beauty. The anniversary of the Toyohara Shrine falls on July 11. Buddhism is represented by the Shin, Nichiren, Soto, Shingon, Jodo and other sects. There are 81 temples and 120 preaching houses. Christianity is being preached by missionaries of seven denominations, i. e., Episcopal, Methodist, Presbyterian, Roman Catholic, the Salvation Army, the Holiness Church and Japan Union Church. The number of Christian churches in Karafuto is 14.

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Brewing Early attempts to brew saké on the island were unsuccessful. The local demand for saké was so pressing, that it led enterprisers to improve all defects in equipment and to procure water of better quality. The result proved promising, and today the island-brewed saké is as good as any produced in Japan proper. There are at present about 47 breweries. The productive value for 1937 amounted to ¥4,536,485.

PRODUCTION AND SUPPLIES OF SAKÉ

	Production		Import from Japan Proper	
	Quantity (thousand deci-litre)	Value (¥)	Quantity (litre)	Value (¥)
1928	66,603	3,862,093	254,670	1,490,544
1929	65,181	3,043,598	221,470	1,367,567
1930	45,614	1,926,964	183,310	956,698
1931	41,316	1,839,171	190,530	953,183
1932	42,748	1,800,285	172,870	921,881
1933	58,876	2,662,936	393,400	—
1934	70,423	3,205,850	502,900	—
1935	72,382	3,257,035	—	—
1936	72,906	3,731,377	—	—
1937	81,988	4,536,485	—	—

Canning Industry The canning industry in this island goes back to 1909, and in 1917 the canneries numbered 111, with a total production of ¥3,370,558. Crab-canning heads the list; but the reckless catching following that year caused a falling-off in the production, which was reduced to ¥1,458,000 in 1920. The canneries were also reduced in number to 14 and amalgamated. As a result both the number of mills and products decreased. But the industry has been for a while consolidated and is developing steadily. The number of canneries and their products during the years 1933-37 follow:

Year	No. of canneries	Qty. prod'd	Value (In yen)
1933	29	38,979	1,660,643
1934	38	54,985	2,268,286
1935	28	—	3,380,000
1936	20	—	1,170,000
1937	16	—	2,185,000

Legal System and Status

Karafuto is different from other dependencies of the country in that more laws of the home land are applied there than in any of the other dependencies. But in the sense that the legal administration is different from that of Japan proper it resembles Taiwan, Chosen, Kwantung Leased Territory and the South Sea Islands. The chief point of difference is that all the laws concerning the judicial system, such as the civil law, criminal law, the laws of civil and criminal procedures, and the law of the constitution of the courts of justice are equally enforced in Karafuto and Japan proper. At present there are 181 laws of the land applied or made applicable in Karafuto, of which 27 laws are operative only partially.

There are one local court, 2 district courts, and 9 detached offices of the two district courts in Karafuto.

Education

In 1905 Japan found the island a vast, primitive desert with practically nothing done towards bringing the inhabitants to a civilized way of life. But as the immigrants settled down there arose the necessity for schooling their children. It was in August, 1906, that the first elementary school was opened at Toyohara, and in October of the same year 2 other elementary schools were opened, one at Ohtomari and the other at Maoka. At the same time, private educationists started simpler elementary schools. In 190 all elementary schools were brought under the Karafuto government. A middle school was opened at Ohtomari in 1912, a girls' high school at Toyohara in 1916, a middle school at Toyohara in 1925 and another middle school at Maoka in 1927. Meantime, girls' high schools were opened at Ohtomari, Maoka and Tomarigishi. The following tables give the main educational statistics of Karafuto:

NUMBER OF SCHOOLS, TEACHERS AND PUPILS
(March, 1937)

	No. of Schools	Teachers	Pupils
Elementary schools	253	1,453	55,868
Secondary schools			
Middle schools	3	96	2,104

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	No. of Schools	Teachers	Pupils
Girls' High schools	6	100	1,708
Takushoku (colonization) schools	1	8	60

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The three principal religions, i. e., Shinto, Buddhism and Christianity, are competing with one another in this promising field of labour. Tere are 42 propagating centres for Shintoism representing five sects, viz., Shinto proper, Kurosumi, Tenri, Konko and Taisha. There are three governmental shrines and these are (1) Karafuto Shrine, (2) Toyohara Shrine and (3) Ani Shrine, all of which are dedicated to Imperial ancestors. August 23 is the day set for annual festival of the Karafuto Shrine, which is also the Inauguration Day of Japanese administration in Karafuto. The shrine is located at Asahiga-oka in a quiet western hilly suburb of Toyohara, and strikes the chance visitor with a sense of admiration for its grave beauty. The anniversary of the Toyohara Shrine falls on July 11. Buddhism is represented by the Shin, Nichiren, Soto, Shingon, Jodo and other sects. There are 81 temples and 120 preaching houses. Christianity is being preached by missionaries of seven denominations, i. e., Episcopal, Methodist, Presbyterian, Roman Catholic, the Salvation Army, the Holiness Church and Japan Union Church. The number of Christian churches in Karafuto is 14.

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1927, swept away practically all dwellings in Peleliu and caused no small damage to other islets far and near.

History

The discovery of the islands dates back to the 16th century, when Spain and Portugal were vying with each other for discovery of untrodden soil in any corner of the world. As they are scattered and insignificant, not all of the groups were found at the same time. The Marianas were found first and the Carolines at about the same time, though exploration of the latter was neglected for a long time until about 1885, when the Marshalls were discovered.

Found by the Portuguese, the Marianas came into the possession of Spain. Toward the close of the 19th century, Germany took possession of the Marshalls and threatened to encroach on the Carolines, then under Spanish control. Spain protested, and arbitration by the Pope in 1886 terminated the dispute amicably, the whole of the Carolines remaining under Spanish rule. Assiduous efforts by the Spanish to exploit and govern the islands continued until 1899, when, financially straitened due to the war with the United States, they sold the Marianas and Carolines to Germany. The whole of the present South Sea Islands mandated by Japan was thus shifted to the possession of Germany. The German reign lasted until 1914, when a Japanese squadron occupied the islands, which were later juridically placed under Japanese mandate, following the conclusion of the Paris Peace Treaty and other relevant agreements.

German Administration It is generally agreed that the establishment of sovereignty over the Marianas and Carolines by Spain in 1886 and the complete domination by Germany of the Marshalls in 1885 should be made the starting point in historical study of the archipelagos. Until purchased by Germany, the Marianas and Carolines had no government worthy of mention, and nothing now remains to recall the Spanish administration except the defence works on Yap and Ponape and a few buildings standing here and there. After the transfer to Germany, a complete change was effected. In the manner of the British East India Company, Germany started the Jaluit Company shortly after acquiring the Marshalls. The Government took over the business in 1906, when the company's contract expired, and tried to put all the island industries under its monopoly. Thus Jaluit has naturally flourished as the business centre of the territory, reinforced by communications with Singapore, Hong-Kong, Australia and the United States.

In looking back upon the German programme in the South Sea Islands, we are struck above everything else with the largeness of its scale. A general government was first established in New Guinea, which sought to implant German authority in the Orient by embracing the numberless islets between New Guinea and Tsingtao. A step to this end was the laying in 1904 of a submarine cable connecting Yap with Shanghai, Guam and Menado, and in 1913 a radio telegraph station of gigantic size was erected on the same island. To make a scientific study of the South Sea Islands, the German Government dispatched a number of experts. One of their discoveries was phosphate, of which a deposit of 3,000,000 tons was found on Angaur. The German Phosphate Company, founded in Bremen in 1908, conducted mining operations until the Japanese occupation. Other deposits, though less valuable, were located at Peleliu, Togobei and Fais.

Germany exercised special efforts in diffusing culture among the natives, and to this end it dispatched no less than 100 missionaries, who opened churches in all the principal villages of the islands. The older natives still keep the German style of Roman letters to this day. Besides paying attention to educational advancement within the territory, the authorities sent men of talent to Tsingtao for further study.

Relations with Japan It is presumed that there must have been some early intercourse between Japan and the archipelagos because of their geographical position, but there is no reliable evidence for it. The Japanese training cruiser Ryujo in 1884 touched at Kusaie, an islet belonging to the Ponape group, where the chief of the natives enthusiastically welcomed the crew, declaring that his people were descendants of the Japanese race. In the same year, the Japanese Government, informed of the massacre of a Japanese on Raye Island, of the Marshalls, dispatched Mr. Taketaro Goto, who succeeded in settling the matter with the local chieftain. Early commercial relations were initiated by the South Island Company (Nanto Shokai), established at Ponape with the capital of ¥44,000, but its business was soon transferred to the Ichiya Shokai, which failed in 1895. In the year following the appearance of the Nanto Shokai,

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two other trading firms, the Kaitsu Sha and Koshin Sha, came into existence; the former lasted only two years, but the latter carried on business until the Japanese occupation of the islands. The Hioki South Sea Trading Company was founded in 1893 with branches at Ponape, Truk, Saipan and Guam. Since amalgamation with the Murayama Shokai in 1906, it has been operating as the South Sea Trading Company and doing an extensive business.

Population

On June 30, 1938, the total population of the mandated territory is 121,128, comprising 50,868 natives, 70,141 Japanese and 119 foreigners. Of the natives, there are 47,041 Kanaka and 3,827 Chamorro. The Chamorro enjoy high birth rate, but the Kanaka scarcely maintain the status quo. Those within the jurisdiction of the Yap branch office show yearly decrease.

When Japan took over the archipelagos, there were only a few scores of Japanese dwellers. Gradually increasing, there are now 42,418 males and 27,723 females, most of them dwelling within the jurisdiction of the Saipan branch office and being engaged in agricultural pursuits.

When placed under Japanese control, the territory had a hundred Germans, mostly engaged in missionary work and commerce. After they left, there remained fewer than 20 foreigners, chiefly Americans and British. There were, on June 30, 1938, 119 foreigners who are nearly all engaged in missionary service, cocoanut cultivation or the copra trade.

A census is taken every five years. The village officials and policemen also keep in constant touch with every change. As for Japanese settlers and foreigners, complete investigation is made in accordance with regulations. The first general census was taken in October, 1920, when the first national census was taken in Japan proper, attended with great difficulties and at enormous expense. Subsequent censuses came in 1925, 1930 and 1935.

DENSITY OF POPULATION,

(June 30, 1938)

District under Branch Office	Population	Area sq. km	Density per 1 sq. km
Saipan	49,204	639	77.5
Yap	6,939	226	30.7
Palau	22,077	478	46.2
Ponape	13,630	504	27.0
Jaluit	10,546	170	62.0
Truk	18,732	132	141.9
Total	121,128	2,149	56.4

NUMBER OF HOUSEHOLDS

(June 30, 1938)

	Saipan	Yap	Palau	Truk	Ponape	Jaluit	Total
Japanese	11,273	598	3,178	1,615	1,296	199	18,159
Natives	679	1,588	1,185	2,709	1,559	1,758	9,478
Foreign	8	4	12	12	11	4	51
Total	11,960	2,190	4,375	4,336	2,866	1,961	27,688

Chosenese are included in the figures for Japanese.

POPULATION BY GROUPS

(June 30, 1938)

		Saipan	Yap	Palau	Truk	Ponape	Jaluit	Total
Japanese	men	25,564	808	10,582	2,547	2,604	313	42,418
	women	19,427	311	5,087	1,110	1,597	191	27,723
	total	44,991	1,119	15,669	3,657	4,201	504	70,141
Natives	men	2,126	2,976	3,404	7,480	4,956	5,203	26,145
	women	2,066	2,835	2,973	7,570	4,444	4,835	24,723
	total	4,192	5,811	6,377	15,050	9,400	10,038	50,868
Foreign	men	9	6	16	17	13	4	65
	women	12	3	15	8	16	—	54
	total	21	9	31	25	29	4	119
Total	men	27,699	3,790	14,002	10,044	7,573	5,520	68,628
	women	21,505	3,149	8,075	8,688	6,057	5,026	52,500
	total	49,204	6,939	22,077	18,732	13,630	10,546	121,128

Chosenese and Taiwanese are included in the figures for Japanese.

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YEARLY INCREASE OF POPULATION

Period	Japanese	Native	Foreign	Total
1930	19,835	49,695	96	69,626
1932	25,766	50,045	98	75,909
1933	30,670	50,114	100	80,884
1934	35,328	50,174	103	85,605
1935	47,412	51,056	97	98,565
1936	56,496	50,524	117	107,137
1937	62,305	50,849	123	113,277

Tribes, Customs and Manners

Tribes Opinions differ as to the tribes residing in the mandated South Sea Islands. Some say that they immigrated from the Malay Peninsula, while others maintain that they are of the Polynesian stock. Though anthropologically named the Micronesian race, it is evident that they are a hybrid. Separate groups are clearly discernible, each with its own language and customs and manners. Roughly they are divided into the Kanaka and Chamorro. The former belong to the Micronesian race, and the latter are said to be of mixed White and Kanaka extraction, though other explanations are sometimes given.

The Chamorro are supposed to have settled first in Guam, later removing to the neighbouring isles, and the fact that they now flourish largely in the Marianas, Yap and Palau seems to endorse the supposition. Though the tribe thrived fairly well under the Spanish régime, it has gradually dwindled, due mainly to massacres, until today it numbers only 3,400. The characteristic features are yellowish brown skin and black hair. The Chamorro, unlike the Kanaka, are industrious and mild in nature. Their mode of living is advanced, and some even reside in foreign-style houses with modern improvements. Their present culture owes much to religious influences in the time of Spanish control.

Kanaka is the general term for the natives of the Pacific islands. Most of those dwelling in the mandated islands belong to this group. They have dark brown or yellowish brown skin, black hair, heavy eyebrows and a big mouth. They are not hairy, and are simple and mild in nature. Though generally of medium stature, some are fairly tall. The Kanaka are cheerful in disposition, but extremely lazy. Their cultural standards are very low, and the mode of living lingers in the primitive stage. Of the total of 50,000 natives in the islands, those belonging to the Kanaka number 46,600.

Customs and Manners Because of the warm climate, it was originally the custom of the natives to wear nothing except a piece of cloth around the waist. Contact with advanced people, however, has brought a change, and some now use foreign clothing. In Saipan and the Marshalls, the natives are clad after the fashion of Europeans, but those in Ponape, Truk, Palau and especially Yap are almost stark naked. The natives are not indifferent to personal adornment. Tattooing is an outstanding example. The more complicated the tattoo marks and the larger the space they cover, the more respected is the owner. There is also the strange ornamentation of scars deliberately cut into the flesh, which has more influence in Ponape than in the other islands. The custom of driving a hole through the ear-lobe for an earring or other dangling ornaments has been becoming less common of late years, due principally to the diffusion of education.

The staple foods of the natives are fruits, fish and meat. Nature bountifully supplies cocoanuts and tubers, which are mainly relied on, and tapioca, bananas, pineapples, mangoes, lemons and oranges, all of which are used as subsidiary food. Under such circumstances, it is but natural that little attention is given to agriculture. Fishing has made but little advance, but the supply of beef and pork is fairly sufficient. Wine and tobacco are greatly sought after, though the use of the former is almost completely prohibited. The habit of chewing areca still prevails.

The structure and appearance of dwellings vary in accordance with the cultural standard of each group of isles. In Saipan there is a street that looks like one in Europe, but in Yap one is reminded of how people lived in prehistoric ages. The dwellings in Truk and Jaluit are far inferior to those in Palau and Ponape, having not even floors. A general lack of windows leaves the interiors sombre and damp. "All-men-houses" are found everywhere in the archipelagos, which serve as a sort of rendezvous for the male villagers or as inns for travellers. On Yap there are one or two houses to every village where women live when ailing.

Social Conditions

As the natives are not yet far removed from the primitive stage, their knowledge is very limited. They adhere to the traditions handed down from their forefathers and seem incapable of assimilating with any rapidity the cultural attainments of the outside world

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two other trading firms, the Kaitsu Sha and Koshin Sha, came into existence; the former lasted only two years, but the latter carried on business until the Japanese occupation of the islands. The Hioki South Sea Trading Company was founded in 1893 with branches at Ponape, Truk, Saipan and Guam. Since amalgamation with the Murayama Shokai in 1906, it has been operating as the South Sea Trading Company and doing an extensive business.

Population

On June 30, 1938, the total population of the mandated territory is 121,128, comprising 50,868 natives, 70,141 Japanese and 119 foreigners. Of the natives, there are 47,041 Kanaka and 3,827 Chamorro. The Chamorro enjoy high birth rate, but the Kanaka scarcely maintain the status quo. Those within the jurisdiction of the Yap branch office show yearly decrease.

When Japan took over the archipelagos, there were only a few scores of Japanese dwellers. Gradually increasing, there are now 42,418 males and 27,723 females, most of them dwelling within the jurisdiction of the Saipan branch office and being engaged in agricultural pursuits.

When placed under Japanese control, the territory had a hundred Germans, mostly engaged in missionary work and commerce. After they left, there remained fewer than 20 foreigners, chiefly Americans and British. There were, on June 30, 1938, 119 foreigners who are nearly all engaged in missionary service, cocoanut cultivation or the copra trade.

A census is taken every five years. The village officials and policemen also keep in constant touch with every change. As for Japanese settlers and foreigners, complete investigation is made in accordance with regulations. The first general census was taken in October, 1920, when the first national census was taken in Japan proper, attended with great difficulties and at enormous expense. Subsequent censuses came in 1925, 1930 and 1935.

DENSITY OF POPULATION,

(June 30, 1938)

District under Branch Office	Population	Area sq. km	Density per 1 sq. km
Saipan	49,204	639	77.5
Yap	6,939	226	30.7
Palau	22,077	478	46.2
Ponape	13,630	504	27.0
Jaluit	10,546	170	62.0
Truk	18,732	132	141.9
Total	121,128	2,149	56.4

NUMBER OF HOUSEHOLDS

(June 30, 1938)

	Saipan	Yap	Palau	Truk	Ponape	Jaluit	Total
Japanese	11,273	598	3,178	1,615	1,296	199	18,159
Natives	679	1,588	1,185	2,709	1,559	1,758	9,478
Foreign	8	4	12	12	11	4	51
Total	11,960	2,190	4,375	4,336	2,866	1,961	27,688

Chosenese are included in the figures for Japanese.

POPULATION BY GROUPS

(June 30, 1938)

		Saipan	Yap	Palau	Truk	Ponape	Jaluit	Total
Japanese	men	25,564	808	10,582	2,547	2,604	313	42,418
	women	19,427	311	5,087	1,110	1,597	191	27,723
	total	44,991	1,119	15,669	3,657	4,201	504	70,141
Natives	men	2,126	2,976	3,404	7,480	4,956	5,203	26,145
	women	2,066	2,835	2,973	7,570	4,444	4,835	24,723
	total	4,192	5,811	6,377	15,050	9,400	10,038	50,868
Foreign	men	9	6	16	17	13	4	65
	women	12	3	15	8	16	—	54
	total	21	9	31	25	29	4	119
Total	men	27,699	3,790	14,002	10,044	7,573	5,520	68,628
	women	21,505	3,149	8,075	8,688	6,057	5,026	52,500
	total	49,204	6,939	22,077	18,732	13,630	10,546	121,128

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Police Administration Under the Police Affairs Section of the government there is a branch section at each of the six branch offices of the government. In addition, there are a police officer's detached station at Tinian, another at Rota, assistant police inspector's detached stations at Kusaie and Angaur and policemen's offices at 23 less important villages. The distribution of these stations was determined more by special local conditions than by the density of population, for each branch office of the government has its own peculiar geographical and cultural conditions. On June 30, 1938, the number of police officials at each branch office ranged from 9 to 60.

The regulations for control of the islanders established in 1916 to guard against immigration of persons without property and criminals were amplified and revised in 1917 and 1925. Special consideration is given to firearms and gunpowder, the possession and use of which are strictly prohibited to the insular inhabitants. Beverages of more than 3 per cent alcoholic content are forbidden except for medical use and religious rites. The possession and consumption of dangerous narcotics, save for medical purposes, are prohibited. Other regulations cover game hunting, publications, social gatherings and the formation of associations, collection of donations, fisheries and the employment of geisha and waitresses.

Finance

The expenditure for insular administration had been met by the military special account until an independent account of the South Sea Government was established in March, 1922. Since then the South Sea Government Special Account has been arranged and expenditures of the Government have been met by taxes, other revenues and the sum advanced from General Account. But its own revenue has increased so much that since 1932 the Islands have been receiving no budgetary assistance from Japan proper and have thus virtually become independent financially. The receipts and expenditure for the past several years follow:

ANNUAL REVENUE AND EXPENDITURE

(In yen)

Fiscal Year	Revenue			Expenditure		
	Ordinary Revenue	Extraordinary Revenue	Total	Ordinary expenditure	Extraordinary expenditure	Total
1932	4,819,299	3,134,687	7,953,986	2,500,544	2,233,198	4,733,743
1933	5,011,281	3,237,487	8,284,769	2,755,171	2,527,324	5,282,495
1934	5,118,466	2,979,828	8,098,295	2,914,837	2,478,924	5,393,761
1935	6,555,755	2,720,360	9,276,115	3,082,747	2,742,901	5,825,649
1936	6,505,478	3,652,264	10,157,742	3,416,554	3,189,985	6,606,539
1937	7,173,364	3,566,641	10,740,005	3,689,520	4,982,446	8,671,966
1938 (Budget)	9,408,201	496,270	9,904,471	4,548,021	5,126,648	9,674,669

The poll tax, customs duties and clearance charges on shipments constitute the premier taxes. A poll tax not exceeding ¥10 is levied on every male native aged 16 or more and from ¥2 to ¥50 on Japanese and foreigners, although there are quite a number of exceptions. All imports from foreign countries are subject to customs duty in accordance with regulations established in May, 1922. These regulations also provide that all shipments to Japan and dutiable at the destination are subject to a clearance duty at the same rate as levied at the destination.

The details of revenues are given below:

Import Duty, Clearance Dues, and Mine-Lot Tax in 1937

(In yen)

Branch office	Import duties	Clearance dues	Mine-lot tax
Saipan	41,171	4,866,092	5,490
Yap	—	—	1,304
Palau	33,018	11	15,785
Truk	11,134	—	—
Ponape	7,176	39	—
Juluit	9,272	—	—
Total	101,771	4,866,142	22,579

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Revenue from Taxes 1932-1937

(In yen)

Description of revenue	1932-33	1933-34	1934-35	1935-36	1936-37	1937-38
Poll tax	81,722	78,705	72,005	84,920	92,665	131,150
Clearance dues	3,099,000	3,037,227	2,691,536	4,052,013	3,506,053	5,256,260
Import duties	40,428	36,178	35,189	53,328	67,917	101,785
Mine-lot tax	143	143	1,005	574	5,079	23,586
Total	3,212,294	3,152,253	2,799,735	4,190,835	3,671,716	5,512,782

Revenue from Other Sources 1937-38

(In ¥1,000)

Items	Amount received
From Government properties and enterprises	1,526
Stamp receipts	58
Miscellaneous receipts	109
Sales of Government properties	15
Balance carried over from the previous year	3,551
Total	5,260

Revenue from Government Enterprises and Properties, 1937-38.

(In yen)

Branch Offices	Postal, cable and telephone receipts	Hospital	Forestry	Phosphate rocks	Gover't prop'tys	Elec. light	Total
Saipan Branch	140,823	32,430	5,997	—	74,476	49,699	303,425
Yap ,,	10,909	3,663	887	—	4,376	3,664	23,499
Palau ,,	181,521	74,691	3,774	1,778,750	18,296	59,946	970,988
Truk ,,	41,486	19,931	3,707	—	2,438	7,842	75,404
Ponape ,,	28,258	18,618	5,307	—	13,488	14,592	80,263
Jaluit ,,	11,608	13,833	—	—	7,985	6,166	39,592
Total	414,605	163,166	19,672	1,778,750	121,059	141,909	1,493,184

Land and Agriculture

All transactions in real estate owned by natives are subject to approval by the government, a practice initiated by the German administration to safeguard the interests of those whose concepts of property are rudimentary. Total acreage is put at 213,000 hectares, of which about 90,000 hectares are thought fit for cocoanut plantation and general farming. The land already cultivated is calculated at 55,600 hectares for paddy field and dry land, and for cocoanut plantation, leaving more than 34,500 hectares for future development. Engaged in agriculture are 40 per cent of the entire native population, viz., 22,600 natives and 35,400 Japanese. There being little need of depending for their daily necessaries upon farming, the agricultural technique of the natives is still in a primitive stage, but the rapid increase in the number of Japanese, who are setting good examples, will sooner or later bring about some improvement. Livestock farming is also undeveloped, though the natives raise cattle, hogs, goats, hens and ducks, the cattle for transportation and farming purposes and the hogs and hens for food.

Sugar-cane cultivation dates as far back as the beginning of the 16th century, but until the arrival of the Japanese there was no sugar refinery and the inhabitants ate the cane raw. The island of Saipan being found fully qualified in both climate and soil, there was established there by the Japanese a sugar industry, which has made a healthy development. From 20 hectares in 1916 cultivation increased to 455 hectares in 1919 and to 6,140 hectares in 1933. There were two companies, with eight factories, in 1919, but in view of the inadvisability of continuing business on so small a scale, the South Sea Development Company, Ltd., capitalized at ¥20,000,000, was established, taking over the Nishimura Colonial Company, Ltd., and purchasing

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Dried trepang	1,970
Cereals, flour, seeds etc.	642,985
" Takasé " shell	18,800
Alcohol	897,815
Phosphate	2,399,000
Copra	3,307,389
Charcoal	15,075
Totals including others	37,864,371

Imports from Japan

Cereals, flour, seeds etc.	3,022,853
Sugar	84,389
Alcholic drinks	792,158
Tobacco	785,953
Tallow, wax, etc.	1,579,400
Petroleum	231,774
Chemicals, drugs, explosives, etc.	600,429
Fabric tissues and manufactures thereof	1,865,607
Clothing, etc.	623,873
Coal	198,337
Minerals and manufactures thereof	675,421
Metal manufactures	1,008,713
Machines, ships, etc.	2,874,823
Lumber	1,401,524
Total including others	21,996,516

Trade with Foreign Countries, 1937

(In yen)

Exports to Foreign Countries

Fabric tissues and manufactures thereof	48,318
Chemicals, drugs etc.	4,682
Total including others	388,274

Imports from Foreign Countries

Cereals, flour, seeds, etc.	536,217
Chemicals, drugs, explosives. etc.	35,748
Oils, tallow, wax, etc.	430,085
Total including others	1,268,009

Representative Companies The Nanyo Kohatsu Kabushiki Kaisha, of which Mr. Harutsugu Matsué is the president, was established in November, 1921 with a capital of ¥3,000,000 succeeding the enterprises commenced by the Nishimura Takushoku and the South Sea Industrial companies on the island of Saipan under the Japanese Mandate. With sugar manufacturing as its pivotal enterprise, it has undertaken to develop the resources of the island. After less than two decades, the company has increased its capital to ¥40,000,000 taking into its hands immigration, manufacturing of starch, pure alcohol, and various marine products, mining of rock phosphate, ship building, and numerous other industries.

During the recent years, the company has advanced its enterprise far out into the Netherlands East Indies, operating cocoanut groves, collecting pearls, growing cotton, gathering gum, raising sheep, opening marine service, etc.

The head office is situated in Saipan, with its branch office in Tokyo. It has factories in Saipan, Tenian, Rota, Palau, and Ponape, and operating grounds in Agcegan, Pagan, Kusaie, Truk, Peliliu, Tokobei, Timor, New Guinea, Celebes, and even in the Philippines.

Today, the company is one of the most outstanding enterprenuer in the South Seas employing nearly 40,000 people and owes its remarkable expansion to Mr. Matsué who has been its president ever since its foundation and has shown himself to be an unusual leader.

The South Sea Development Company was founded, as a result of necessary appropriations approved by the Imperial Diet in May, 1936, following the Imperial ordinance No. 228 proclaiming its establishment was issued. An establishment committee of 28 were organized and on November 27 the company was formally founded. It is capitalized at ¥20,000,000 of which the Government invested ¥10,546,000 in the shape of its property mostly connected with the mining right of phosphate rocks in Angaur and Fuais Islands in the mandated South Seas and appended property. The remaining amount was invested by those interested in enterprises in these islands.

Its head office is in Corrol Island in Palau group and a branch in Tokyo. The company's president is appointed by the Cabinet on recommendation of the Overseas Minister. It is vested with right to issue South Sea debentures equal to thrice its paid-up capital. The Government has power to supervise the company by virtue of the Imperial ordinance. The company's business scope includes agricultural, aquatic, mining and shipping enterprises, phosphate rock mining and others, all connected with economic development of South Sea Islands. Baron Ryutaro Fukao is its president. The principal shareholders of the company are the South Sea Government, the Nanyo Kohatsu Company, the Mitsui Bussan, the Mitsubishi Goshi, the N.Y.K. and the Toyo Takushoku. The company has business relations with the Taiyo Pearl Company, the Nantaku Pineapple Com-

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pany, the Nanyo Aluminium Mining Company and 6 other companies.

Transportation and Communications

There are no roads worthy of the name on the islands, though the Government realizes that they are the first requisite for industrial development. As large appropriations will be needed, their construction will have to wait for some years to come. Nor are there railways for public use. The short one at Angaur extending for 12 miles to the phosphate mine, and that at Saipan and Tinian which extends for 93 miles are exclusively for the hauling of freight belonging to the South Sea Development Company.

Land transportation is now principally carried through the help of motor cars and other vehicles imported from Japan. The character of the roads, length of each and the number of vehicles are shown in the following tables:

Extension of Roads, Dec. 31, 1937

Branch office	Width of Road (in km.) Less than 4 m	Less than 7 m	Over 7 m	Total
Saipan	39	104	28	171
Yap	—	118	—	118
Palau	66	35	6	107
Truk	64	2	—	67
Ponape	24	13	3	40
Jaluit	43	—	—	43
Total	236	272	38	546

Number of Various Vehicles, Dec. 31, 1936.

Branch office	Motor car	Motor-cycle	Bicycle	Cart	Wagons	Others	Total
Saipan	159	25	9,351	11	3,242	—	12,788
Yap	1	4	131	9	5	—	150
Palau	30	23	2,270	58	13	—	2,394
Truk	7	3	416	22	2	—	450
Ponape	7	7	514	5	2	—	535
Jaluit	1	—	346	115	—	—	462
Total	205	62	13,028	220	3,264	—	16,779

Improvement of transportation facilities is now being concentrated on harbours. Generally speaking, the ports are favourable for mooring of steamers with a displacement of 3,000 tons, but the long distance between vessels lying at anchor and the landing places, as well as coral rocks extending far into the sea, handicaps their healthful growth as modern commercial ports. The construction of modern harbours depends upon magnanimous appropriations and years of labour. The first real harbour, started in 1926 and completed in 1932 at a cost of more than ¥1,073,000, was at Saipan. In 1933-1935 an enlargement of the wharf was completed with an expenditure of ¥579,000. The third improvement plan which is to be completed within 6 years beginning with 1938 is now carried on. The estimated expenses will reach ¥1,870,000. A second project was launched in 1927 at Corrol, where, between the vessels at anchor and the landing place, lies a coral-reef. The work came to the completion after the expenditure of ¥106,992 in 1930, as the result of which the route has been reduced to one-third of what it used to be. A new wharf was constructed then with an expenditure of ¥84,000, and in 1934-35 another improvement work was completed. For the construction of the port of Palau ¥2,710,000 was appropriated for a 6 year plan beginning with 1936.

Shipping Routes Upon the creation of the South Sea Government, all government-controlled shipping routes were placed under the Nippon Yusen Kaisha, Ltd. The schedule for these lines in 1938 follows:

(1) West Round Line: Plying between Japan and the Philippines, the ships touch at Yokohama, Osaka, Kobé, Moji, the insular ports, Menado and Davao, covering both ways in 44 days. 36 voyages are made in a year.

(2) East Round Line: Plying between Kobé and Jaluit, the ships of the line call at Saipan, Truk, Ponape Kusaie and Jaluit, covering both ways in 54 days. 15 voyages are made yearly.

(3) East and West Connecting Line: Between Kobé, Palau, Truk, Ponape, Kusaie and Jaluit, this line includes calls at various insular ports. Both ways are covered in 53 days, and 6 voyages are made in a year.

(4) Saipan Line: The ports of call are Yokohama, Osaka, Kobé, Moji, Futami, Hachijo Islands, Saipan and Tinian. 7 round-trips, each made in 30 days, are scheduled for the year.

The number of vessels on these lines is 19, ranging from 3,141 to 6,181 tons.

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Dried trepang	1,970
Cereals, flour, seeds etc.	642,985
"Takasé" shell	18,800
Alcohol	897,815
Phosphate	2,399,000
Copra	3,307,389
Charcoal	15,075
Totals including others	37,864,371

Imports from Japan

Cereals, flour, seeds etc.	3,022,853
Sugar	84,389
Alcholic drinks	792,158
Tobacco	785,953
Tallow, wax, etc.	1,579,400
Petroleum	231,774
Chemicals, drugs, explosives, etc.	600,429
Fabric tissues and manufactures thereof	1,865,607
Clothing, etc.	623,873
Coal	198,337
Minerals and manufactures thereof	675,421
Metal manufactures	1,008,713
Machines, ships, etc.	2,874,823
Lumber	1,401,524
Total including others	21,996,516

Trade with Foreign Countries, 1937

(In yen)

Exports to Foreign Countries

Fabric tissues and manufactures thereof	48,318
Chemicals, drugs etc.	4,682
Total including others	388,274

Imports from Foreign Countries

Cereals, flour, seeds, etc.	536,217
Chemicals, drugs, explosives. etc.	35,748
Oils, tallow, wax, etc.	430,085
Total including others	1,268,009

Representative Companies The Nanyo Kohatsu Kabushiki Kaisha, of which Mr. Harutsugu Matsué is the president, was established in November, 1921 with a capital of ¥3,000,000 succeeding the enterprises commenced by the Nishimura Takushoku and the South Sea Industrial companies on the island of Saipan under the Japanese Mandate. With sugar manufacturing as its pivotal enterprise, it has undertaken to develop the resources of the island. After less than two decades, the company has increased its capital to ¥40,000,000 taking into its hands immigration, manufacturing of starch, pure alcohol, and various marine products, mining of rock phosphate, ship building, and numerous other industries.

During the recent years, the company has advanced its enterprise far out into the Netherlands East Indies, operating cocoanut groves, collecting pearls, growing cotton, gathering gum, raising sheep, opening marine service, etc.

The head office is situated in Saipan, with its branch office in Tokyo. It has factories in Saipan, Tenian, Rota, Palau, and Ponape, and operating grounds in Ageegan, Pagan, Kusaie, Truk, Pelilliu, Tokobei, Timor, New Guinea, Celebes, and even in the Philippines.

Today, the company is one of the most outstanding enterprenuer in the South Seas employing nearly 40,000 people and owes its remarkable expansion to Mr. Matsué who has been its president ever since its foundation and has shown himself to be an unusual leader.

The South Sea Development Company was founded, as a result of necessary appropriations approved by the Imperial Diet in May, 1936, following the Imperial ordinance No. 228 proclaiming its establishment was issued. An establishment committee of 28 were organized and on November 27 the company was formally founded. It is capitalized at ¥20,000,000 of which the Government invested ¥10,546,000 in the shape of its property mostly connected with the mining right of phosphate rocks in Angaur and Fuais Islands in the mandated South Seas and appended property. The remaining amount was invested by those interested in enterprises in these islands.

Its head office is in Corrol Island in Palau group and a branch in Tokyo. The company's president is appointed by the Cabinet on recommendation of the Overseas Minister. It is vested with right to issue South Sea debentures equal to thrice its paid-up capital. The Government has power to supervise the company by virtue of the Imperial ordinance. The company's business scope includes agricultural, aquatic, mining and shipping enterprises, phosphate rock mining and others, all connected with economic development of South Sea Islands. Baron Ryutaro Fukao is its president. The principal shareholders of the company are the South Sea Government, the Nanyo Kohatsu Company, the Mitsui Bussan, the Mitsubishi Goshi, the N. Y. K. and the Toyo Takushoku. The company has business relations with the Taiyo Pearl Company, the Nantaku Pineapple Com-

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are the same as in Japan proper. The natives' elementary education takes three years, and after that they are free to enter continuation courses of two years. The lessons are about the same as those taught in the Japanese schools, save for the stress placed on ethics, calculation and the Japanese language. To teach carpentry, a special institute is attached to the Corrol Public School for natives.

Christian schools number 3 in Saipan, 2 in Palau, 6 in Truk, 2 in Ponape and 1 in Jaluit. All of them are attached to churches and naturally concentrate on diffusing knowledge of Christianity. They are not worthy of being called educational institutions in the strict sense.

With the object of popularizing education, a scholarship society was formed on the foundation of an Imperial donation of ¥2,000, in February, 1924. The society is headed by the Governor, who, with the interest accruing to the original and yearly scholarship grants by the government, does everything possible to encourage deserving students. There is also the South Sea Islands Educational Society, headed by the Governor and with branches at the seats of branch offices of the government. Its sole object is elevation of the educational standard of the islanders. On April 30, 1938 it had funds amounting to ¥26,438.

The elementary schools for the Japanese, according to statistics taken at the end of April, 1938, have 155 instructors and 7,688 pupils including the continuation course. The schools for natives have 65 Japanese teachers and 26 native assistant teachers, 1,513 boys and 1,110 girls attending elementary school course, and 470 boys and 258 girls in the continuation course.

There are some private institutions, mostly kindergartens, for Japanese children. Kindergartens are found in Saipan, Yap, Palau, and Ponape, having in all 21 teachers and 342 children.

As there were not very many Japanese children, no middle school was in existence in the archipelago prior to 1933. But owing to the industrial development and the increase of Japanese residents, it became necessary to establish one, and in accordance with the prefectural ordinance of March, 1933, an industrial school was established in the island of Saipan.

Religion

Among the native inhabitants there is no religion worthy of the name, but they have a sort of religious belief. Christianity was first introduced and propagated by Spaniards in 1666. A Jesuit missionary worked enthusiastically in Guam until banished in 1766 by Charles III and is said to have initiated the islanders into the methods of cultivating corn, tobacco, cocoa and potatoes. In more recent times, an American missionary group gained influence, though it finally abandoned work in Ponape and Truk, as did a Protestant mission group from Germany in the former island. Catholicism went on evangelizing side by side with Protestantism and is said to have had more funds. Priests of the Otani branch of the Shinshu Sect of Buddhism established themselves in Saipan for religious propaganda in 1919, and in 1926 a Tenrikyo church was opened in Palau.

Soon after the evacuation of the German Protestant missionaries, the Japanese Congregational Church despatched four missionaries to Ponape and Truk. American missionaries in Kusaie and Jaluit are engaged in educational as well as religious work, and Catholic missionaries, who came in 1921 from Spain, are also active. It is generally accepted that the natives' mild temperament is the result of the long and untiring efforts of the missionaries. Generally speaking, Christianity seems to have placed the entire population under its influence, but very few of the churchgoers understand its tenets.

CHURCHES, MISSIONARIES AND BELIEVERS, April, 1938

Religion		Catholic	Protestant	Buddhist	Tenrikyo	Total
Churches		10	13	10	1	34
Mission halls		41	84	1	—	126
Preachers		12	18	16	1	47
Inmates of Monasteries		27	11	—	—	38
Native Preachers		20	88	—	—	108
Japanese		111	27	46,666	19	46,820
Believers	Foreign	20	—	—	—	20
	Native	17,771	22,125	50	5	39,951
Total		17,902	22,125	46,716	24	86,791

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Since 1938, the ships of the South Sea Marine Transportation Company are ordered to make 6 visits a year at Palau on their voyages between Japan and Java.

Among the islands themselves, shipping has been entrusted to the South Sea Trading Company, Ltd., which is subsidized by the Government. The services now available are: the Mariana line, connecting scattered islets within the Mariana Archipelago, available 19 times a year; the Yap, Palau, Truk and Ponape lines, each with 5 and 4 trips a year, and the Marshall line, which make 16 trips a year. In addition there are Ponape, Truk and Palau lines. Five vessels are used, ranging from 195 to 340 tons.

Since 1938, a ship of the South Sea Development Company is ordered to run between Palau, Yap, Truk and their lone islets.

During 1933, vessels that entered and cleared the nine ports of the territory numbered 507 and 520 respectively—381 steamships, 126 sailing vessels clearing and 381 steamships, 131 sailing vessels entering. The number of passengers landing and embarking were 65,083 and 29,697 respectively.

Airway In April, 1939, an air route was opened by the Japan Airways Company. The seaplanes of the company ply twice a month, running from Yokohama to Saipan, 2,610 kilometres and from Saipan to Palau, 1,570 kilometres.

Communications All means of communication were placed under the control of the local government when it was established. The Communication Section thus takes care of (1) post, telegraph, telephone, exchange and deposit services, (2) postal insurances, and (3) sea-routes, vessels and nautical markings. There are nine post offices, situated at Saipan, Jaluit, Tinian, Rota, Palau, Yap, Ponape, and Anguar. Each handles wireless messages. The cable and wireless lines now operated are as follow:

(1) Between Yap and Bonin Islands: dispatched by the Chichi-jima Wireless, relayed at Saipan.

(2) Between Yap and all except the Bonin Islands: despatched on the submarine cable through Naha, Ryukyu (Loochoo).

(3) Between the South Sea Islands, except Yap, and Loochoo and Taiwan: sent by submarine cable.

(4) Between the South Sea Islands, except Yap, and the Bonin Islands: sent by the Chichi-jima Wireless, relayed at Saipan.

(5) Between the South Sea Islands and all outside points except the Bonin Islands, Taiwan and Loochoo: despatched by the Tokyo Wireless, relayed at Palao.

Telephone facilities are still limited, switch-boards being installed at only Palau and Saipan.

Judicial System

The judicial branch of the South Sea Government employs the double trial system, the court for the first trial being one of the Local Courts of Justice and for the second trial the High Court of Justice. To each court is attached a public procurator's office. In remote places, minor irregularities, both civil and criminal, are disposed of by the judgment of the branch office heads.

The South Sea Government's High Court of Justice is located in Palau. The Palau Local Court of Justice has jurisdiction in the Palau and Yap groups; the Saipan Local Court of Justice, in the Saipan group, and the Ponape Local Court of Justice, in the Ponape, Truk and Jaluit groups. In 1935 there were three judges, two procurators and four secretaries in the judicial system.

Most of the legal regulations are the same as those in Japan, but due consideration is given to the customs and conditions peculiar to the natives. Their civil affairs are handled quite independently of those settlers from outside; hereditary practices in land ownership are preserved, none but government officials being permitted to sell, purchase or mortgage their land; legal proceedings are made as simple as possible, and natives sentenced to less than one year of penal servitude may be subjected to labour instead of being sent to a prison.

Education

Besides elementary schools for the Japanese, there are 26 for natives throughout the insular territory. Though education is not compulsory, schools are provided, clothing and food supplied in particular cases and pupils from remote places received into dormitories. At the schools for native children, natives are employed as assistant instructors. The Japanese instructors must have the full qualifications of elementary school teachers in Japan proper.

There are schools for Japanese children in Saipan, Palau, Truk, Tinian, Yap and Ponape, and where there is no near-by Japanese school a Japanese class is attached to the native elementary school. The course of instruction, requiring six years, and the textbooks

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are the same as in Japan proper. The natives' elementary education takes three years, and after that they are free to enter continuation courses of two years. The lessons are about the same as those taught in the Japanese schools, save for the stress placed on ethics, calculation and the Japanese language. To teach carpentry, a special institute is attached to the Corrol Public School for natives.

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MANCHOUKUO

Geography

Position Extending between 38°43′ and 53°30′ North latitude and 117°50′ and 135°20′ East longitude Manchoukuo is bordered on the north by Siberia and on the east by Korea and the Maritime Province of Siberia.

On the west its borders touch Outer Mongolia, Eastern Inner Mongolia and China proper, while on the south its shores are washed by the waters of the Yellow Sea and the Gulf of Pechili, the coast line extending over 855 nautical miles.

Topography Topographically, Manchoukuo is a vast expanse of plains, traversed from north to south by the Great and Little Hsingan (Khinyan or Khingan) mountain ranges in the north-western section, and by the Changpai mountains near the south-eastern boundary.

Several great rivers with many tributaries run through Manchoukuo, irrigating the plains which they pass. The most notable of these rivers are the Heilungkiang (Amur), Sungari, Ussuri, Yalu, Tumen and Liao rivers.

Climate The climate of Manchoukuo is typically continental, despite the fact that this country lies within about the same latitudes as Japan, Korea, France and England.

Almost unaffected by ocean currents, Manchoukuo has a dry, cold climate with long severe winters and short hot summers. The spring season is windy, strong winds often carrying yellow dusts from the west.

The temperature falls as low as 49° C. below zero in winter and goes up as high as 40.0° C in some localities in summer.

Area, Population, Language, etc.

Area and Population The area of Manchoukuo is put at 1,303,143 sq. km. and is about twice as large as the combined areas of Japan proper, Korea, Formosa and Karafuto. Prior to 1932 little effort was made to obtain reliable census. In that year the population of Manchoukuo was estimated at 30,000,000 people. Rapid increase immediately followed with the great influx chiefly of Chinese, Chosenese and Japanese. The total population reached 33,933,206 at the end of 1937. Details follow:

POPULATION OF MANCHOUKUO BY PROVINCES

(December 31, 1932)

Provinces	Area sp. km.	Manchurians	Japanese	Chosenese	Others	Total
Kirin	89,656	5,121,521	25,598	76,129	310	5,223,558
Lungkiang	125,536	2,488,272	13,836	6,121	941	2,509,170
Heiho	109,813	58,342	1,521	858	785	61,506
Sankiang	107,545	1,192,467	9,340	22,525	219	1,224,551
Mutankiang	57,245	544,977	22,372	66,214	3,807	637,370
Pinkiang	87,110	4,438,469	32,971	36,194	37,803	4,545,437
Chientao	29,395	158,331	13,037	473,526	126	645,020
Tunghua	31,647	718,274	2,795	75,710	9	796,788
Antung	26,603	2,161,963	19,374	44,228	95	2,225,963
Fengtien	75,522	9,110,271	180,382	99,896	1,433	9,391,982
Chinchou	39,462	4,157,127	16,534	16,822	78	4,190,561
Jehol	66,585	3,628,361	6,367	870	66	3,635,664
West Hsingan	80,410	513,916	612	805	22	515,355
South Hsingan	79,021	818,985	1,609	3,861	11	824,486
East Hsingan	106,751	90,424	1,611	328	2,092	94,455
North Hsingan	160,396	55,458	4,565	320	16,608	76,951
Hsinking Special Municipality	446	261,691	65,235	7,032	734	334,692
Total	1,303,143	35,518,849	417,759	931,459	65,139	36,933,206

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POPULATION OF KWANTUNG LEASED TERRITORY

(As of December 31 each year)

Year	Manchurians	Japanese	Chosenese	Others	Total
1936	975,935	166,510	4,025	1,564	1,148,034
1937	1,009,870	174,587	3,917	1,629	1,190,003
1938	1,038,613	180,689	4,496	1,772	1,225,570

POPULATION OF PRINCIPAL CITIES

(December 31, 1937)

Mukden	711,085	Chiamussu	50,017
Harbin	457,980	Chengte	40,363
Hsinking	334,692	Yenchi	27,995
Antung	204,382	Heiho	25,370
Yingkou	161,903	Hailar	21,630
Kirin	122,586	Manchouli	7,091
Chinchou	108,218	Dairen	503,778
Tsitsihar	98,175		

CHINESE COOLIE IMMIGRATION INTO MANCHURIA (1936-38)

Year	Arrivals			Departures			Increase or Decrease
	Coolie Laborers	Family Members	Total	Coolie Laborers	Family Members	Total	
1936	358,122	65,323	423,445	366,761	69,745	436,506	(-) 13,061
1937	319,286	42,871	362,157	259,098	37,696	296,794	65,363
1938	492,376	81,410	573,786	252,798	29,891	282,689	291,097

Language Chinese is the official language of Manchoukuo, although native Manchus and Mongols living in the interior districts speak their own dialects and Japanese is now being taught at many native schools in Hsinking and other important centres of the country.

The original Manchus now living in the country are estimated to number between six and seven millions, but most of them speak Chinese, only those who live in some districts of Kirin province keeping to their own native dialect.

As the official, social and commercial language, the Peking mandarin language is most widely used in Manchoukuo, but the Shantung, Nanking, Shanghai, Canton and other dialects are spoken among the immigrants from these different parts of China.

Among other foreign languages Japanese and Russian are the best known in the country.

Banditry Manchoukuo has long been noted for its mounted bandits who ravaged the country. Under the old militarist régime even regular soldiers turned to banditry and quite often were enlisted among the regular troops when needed, so that the troops and bandits were not clearly distinguishable from each other.

Bandits in Manchuria once numbered as many as 200,000 after the Manchurian Incident owing to the fact that the regular troops in the army of Chang Hsueh-liang resorted to banditry. But the strenuous efforts of the Japanese and Manchoukuo troops have reduced the number to about 20,000 by the end of 1935.

As a result of the pacification of Jehol early in March, 1933, the base of operation of the major bandit groups was completely wiped out. With a view to furthering the work of restoring peace and order, a central peace preservation committee was organized in Hsinking. Between the autumn of 1933 and the early spring of 1934, an intensive campaign was directed against the remnant outlaws in Kirin province. Efforts are being made to confiscate the weapons illegally possessed by the people, to reduce the number of the so-called vigilance corps of the professional type, and to give work to the roaming outlaws who surrender to the authorities.

History

Before Ching Dynasty Nearly twenty different dynasties have ruled successively in the territory now under the sovereignty of Manchoukuo, which includes Manchuria and part of Mon-

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golia, from the Sushen dynasty to about the second and third centuries down to the Ching dynasty, which lasted from 1636 until 1911, when its rule was replaced by the new régime of the Republic of China.

The Ching dynasty was known as the Nuchen tribe before it gained hegemony in China proper. In 1636, the chief of the Nuchen tribe declared independence at Mukden against the Ming dynasty which was then in power in China proper, naming his country, which extended over the area now forming the territory of Manchoukuo, "Taching."

After rising to full stature of independence, Taching gradually expanded its territory until 1664, when conquering the Ming forces it occupied Peking and made that city its capital, after which Manchuria seemed deserted, except for the Han immigrants who came from China proper and settled there, though only sparsely.

Thus Manchuria was left neglected by the Manchus, who were almost entirely occupied in colonizing China proper, and when Russians penetrated into Manchuria they could do just as they liked in this region.

It was not until after the Russo-Japanese War that the Chinese authorities came to see the need of attending to the administration of Manchuria with any degree of seriousness. With this object in view, Hsu Shin-chang was appointed Viceroy of the Three Eastern Provinces in 1907, and notable improvements were effected in the systems of administration, communications and transport during the following few years.

The late Marshal Chang Tso-lin came into power in Manchuria after the Revolution of 1911, when Chao Erh-hsuan, then Viceroy of the Three Eastern Provinces, asked him to render military assistance to resist the advance of the revolutionary forces on Manchuria.

Rise of Chang Tso-lin The rapid ascendancy of Chang Tso-lin then followed and in 1916 he was appointed Inspector-General of the Three Eastern Provinces, thus virtually placing the entire territory of Manchuria under his autocratic rule.

After a series of three civil wars with the Chihli army, in the course of which General Kuo Sun-lin, one of his lieutenants, made an unsuccessful attempt to overthrow him, Chang Tso-lin started hostilities with the Kuomin army of Feng Yu-hsiang, the so-called "Christian General", in January, 1926, and occupying Peking in December that year, installed himself as Generalissimo at Peking in June, 1927, thus attempting to reign over the entire territory of China.

This marked the peak of the ascendancy of the Mukden war-lord, for, in June, 1928, he had to leave Peking for Mukden ostensibly with the intention of spending the rest of his life in retirement. It was on this trip back to Mukden that the Marshal was killed in a train wreck near Mukden.

Under Chang Hsueh-liang Chang Hsueh-liang, known as the young warlord of Mukden, then stepped into his father's shoes, but finding himself unable to keep effective control over the lieutenants of his late father, he declared allegiance to the National Government in December, 1928, and was appointed commander-in-chief of the North-Eastern Frontier Army. This was followed by the renaming of Fentien province as Liaoning in March, 1929. During the civil war of 1930, Chang Hsueh-liang maintained an attitude of sympathetic neutrality, thereby making it possible for the National Army to defeat the rebels under Yen Hsi-shan and Feng Yu-hsiang. Apparently in appreciation of this, the National Government appointed Chang Hsueh-liang Vice-Commander-in-Chief of the National Army, Navy and Air Forces.

In 1931, Chang Hsueh-liang moved his headquarters to Peking and during his absence, all his influence in Manchuria was overthrown following the outbreak of the Manchurian Incident on September 18, 1931.

Founding of Manchoukuo The effort directed at restoring peace and order as the Chang Hsueh-liang government was driven out of Mukden by the outbreak of the Manchurian Incident first materialized in the Committee for Preservation of Local Peace and Order organized at Mukden. This soon led to the organization of the independent government of Fengtien province, the example of which was followed by Kirin and Heilungkiang provinces. Later, an Administrative Committee composed of members coming from various provinces was organized and preparations for establishment of the new state were made.

On February 18, 1932 the Committee fulfilled its first duty by announcing the declaration of the establishment of an independent state and appointing a standing committee of seven members for discussing various detailed problems. The fundamental principles of the new state as announced by the committee on February 25 are as follows:

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the new state to be called Manchoukuo; the ruler to be called Chief Executive; the flag to be a five-coloured one; the new era to be called Tatung; and the capital to be Changchun, which later came to be called Hsinking.

Mr. Pu Yi, who was formally elected Chief Executive by the Administrative Committee, took office on March 9 of the same year. The law regulating the organization of the government and the law guaranteeing personal rights were promulgated on the same day. On the following day, Cheng Hsiao-hsu, Prime Minister, and other high officials were appointed.

At the request of the people of Manchoukuo, who appreciated and enjoyed the benevolent administration of the new régime under His Excellency Pu Yi, many of their leaders in Mukden and other principal cities and towns petitioned for his enthronement as Emperor of Manchoukuo in the beginning of 1934. This was accepted, and the Chief Executive was formally enthroned on March 1, 1934, the second anniversary of the founding of Manchoukuo. The state was thereafter called Manchoutikuo, which means the the Empire of Manchuria, the Chief Executive the Emperor Kangtê, and the new era Kangtê.

Government

Under the Organic Law of the Manchou Empire of 1934 (For the text see Fourth Report, Appendix No. 18), the State is completely centralized in the Throne. The Emperor represents the State; supervises the sovereign rights and exercises them in accordance with the Organic Law; issues or causes to be issued ordinances for the maintenance of public peace and order and for the execution of laws; possesses the power to declare war, to make peace, and to conclude treaties; enjoys the supreme command of the army, navy, and air forces; and has the power to grant amnesty, special pardon, commutation of punishment, and restoration of civil rights. The Privy Council advises the Emperor on His various functions, while the legislative, judicial, and administrative authorities execute their respective functions under His general supervision. The people are guaranteed the freedom and rights of their life and property, which guarantees were completely lacking before the establishment of Manchoukuo. The basic philosophy of the Empire is the "Wangtao" or the "Way of Benevolent Ruler."

To perpetuate the Imperial Throne thus instituted and to strengthen the foundation of the Empire, the "Law Governing Succession to the Imperial Throne of the Empire of Manchou" was promulgated on March 1, 1937, on the occasion of the fifth anniversary of the founding of the State. It (For the text, see Appendix III, No. 3) established the fundamental principle that the first ancestor of the Imperial lineage of Manchoukuo shall be H. I. M. the Emperor Kangte, and that the Imperial Throne shall be succeeded to by His Majesty's Imperial descendants for ages eternal. It then clarified the order of succession, first by the "Imperial eldest son," then by the "Imperial eldest grandson," and lastly by the "Imperial son next in age and by his descendants." In the absence of any of these descendants the succession shall revert first to the "Imperial brother and his descendants," then to the "Imperial uncle and his descendants," and lastly to the "nearest member among the rest of the Imperial Family and his descendants." The Law decreed one notable exception, namely, that "when the Imperial heir is suffering from an incurable disease of mind or body, or when any other weighty cause exists, the order of succession may be changed in accordance with the foregoing provisions with the advice of the Privy Council."

Orchid has been designated as the Imperial flower and the Imperial crest has been designed from this honoured flower.

A complete reorganization of the national administrative machinery was effected as of July 1, 1937. The main features of this reorganization were the reversion to the system of three independent branches of administration, namely, the State Council, the Legislative Council, and the Courts of Justice, and the reshuffling of the number of Departments to six, namely, Public Peace, People's Welfare, Industry, Finance and Commerce, Communications, and Justice. The salient points in the reorganization may be summarized as follows:

(1) Abolition of the practice of submitting views to the throne by the Privy Council.

(2) Abolition of the Supervisory Council and creation of a Bureau of Audit in the State Council.

(3) Establishment of an Office of Home Affairs in the State Council to take charge, under the direct supervision of the Prime Minister, of matters concerning the general guidance of local organization and the general su-

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pervision of provincial governors.

(4) Inauguration of a Planning Council, under the direct control of the Prime Minister, to study and to deliberate upon basic national policies.

(5) Abolition of the Department of Foreign Affairs and creation of a new Office of Foreign Affairs, under the direct supervision of the Prime Minister, to take charge of matters concerning the supervision of envoys and consuls abroad, international negotiations, guidance and protection of nationals abroad, and investigations of international political affairs, transferring matters concerning commercial affairs to the new Department of Finance and Commerce.

(6) Creation of the Department of Public Peace through amalgamation and reorganization of the Department of Defence and the Bureau of Police Affairs in the Department of Civil Affairs, to take charge of the police affairs of the State in addition to matters concerning national defence.

(7) Abolition of the Department of Mongolian Affairs and creation of an Office of Hsingan Affairs, under the direct control of the Prime Minister, to coordinate matters concerning the administration of the Mongols.

(8) Reorganization of the existing Departments of Civil Affairs, Industry, Finance, Communications, and Education into four Departments of People's Welfare, Industry, Finance and Commerce, and Communications: (a) the Department of People's Welfare to take charge chiefly of administration concerning education, social affairs, public health, stabilization of people's life, and elevation of national spirit; (b) the Department of Industry to take charge of administration concerning industrial activities in general and exploitation and conservation of national resources, incorporating within it the Bureau of Live-Stock Farming into which is merged the Horse Administration Bureau of the former Department of Defence, the Bureau of Forestry, the Patent Bureau, and the Hydro-Electric Power Construction Bureau, and abolishing the Provisional Industrial Research Bureau; (c) the Department of Finance and Commerce to take charge of administration concerning the financing of exploitation and conservation of natural resources and other matters connected therewith, incorporating within it the General Monopoly Office and the Weights and Measures Examination Office, formerly the Weights and Measures Bureau; (d) the Department of Communications to take charge of administration concerning communication and transportation, incorporating within it the General Postal Administration Bureau and the Bureau of Navigation.

(9) Continuation without modification of the Department of Justice and its courts.

This reorganization of the Government was followed by an almost complete change in the personnel of high officials. General Chang Ching-hui was reappointed to occupy the responsible position of the Prime Minister. Other Ministers appointed are Public Peace, General Yu Chih-shan, former Minister of Defence; People's Welfare, Sun Chih-chang, former Minister of Civil Affairs; Industry, Lu Jung-huan, former Minister of Industry; Finance and Commerce, Han Yun-chieh, former Minister of Finance; Communications, Li Shao-keng, unchanged; and Justice, Chang Huan-hsiang. Hsi Chia was reappointed the Minister of Imperial Household and Tsang Shih-yi as the President of the Privy Council, while Tsai Yun-sheng was appointed the Chief of the Foreign Affairs Office.

The new Government organization of Manchoukuo is as follows:

H. I. M. The Emperor
- Imperial Household Dept.
- Committee on Imperial House Law
- Office of the Privy Seal
- Office of Aides-de-Camp
- Legislative Council
- Privy Council
- State Council
- Bureau of Audit
- Council on Decorations
- Board of Decorations
- Office of Foreign Affairs
  - Secretariat
  - Bureau of Political Affairs
  - Bureau of Investigation
- General Affairs Board
  - Council on Planning
  - Secretariat
  - Bureau of Planning
  - Bureau of Accounts
  - Bureaus of Legislation
  - Bureau of Personnel
  - Bureau of Statistics
  - Bureau of Information
  - Cadastre Adjustment Bureau
  - Bureau of Supplies and Repairs
- Office of Home Affairs
  - Secretariat
  - Bureau of Management
  - Bureau of Supervision
- Office of Hsingan Affairs
- Dept. of Public Peace
  - Secretariat
  - Bureau of General Staff

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- Bureau of Military Affairs
- Bureau of Police Affairs

Dept. of People's Welfare
- Institute of Cultural Research
- Secretariat
- Bureau of Education
- Bureau of Social Affairs
- Bureau of Public Health
- Health Equipment Dept.

Dept. of Industry
- Central Meteorological Observatory
- Secretariat
- Bureau of Agricultural Affairs
- Bureau of Mining and Industry
- Bureau of Construction
- Bureau of Colonial Administration
- Bureau of Live-Stock Farming
- Forestry Bureau
- Patent Bureau
- Hydro-Electric Power Construction Bureau

Dept. of Finance and Commerce
- General Monopoly Office
- Secretariat
- Bureau of Commercial Affairs
- Bureau of Revenue
- Bureau of Finance

Dept. of Communications
- General Postal Administration Bureau
- Secretariat
- Bureau of Railways
- Bureau of Roads
- Bureau of Navigation

Dept. of Justice
- Secretariat
- Bureau of Civil Affairs
- Bureau of Criminal Affairs
- Bureau of Penal Administration

Courts
Procurator's Offices
Offices of Special Municipalities
Provincial Government Offices
Hsingan Provincial Government Offices
Metropolitan Police Board
Capital Construction Bureau

An efficient administration of Manchoukuo required an efficient organization of local administration. For such a purpose, the administrative divisions which existed in Manchuria under the former militarist régime were too vast and unscientific, and the need for reorganization was keenly felt from the early days of Manchoukuo's statehood. Moreover, the former provincial divisions carried with them the vivid memories of past misrule and a complete renovation of administrative divisions became a matter of pre-requisite in realizing a new and enlightened administration. Geographic factors and the trend of new development too had caused the emergence of new centres and had changed the general map of Manchoukuo decidedly since 1932.

With such a background and in line with the same spirit of general political reform, the first step toward the reorganization of local administrative system was effected on December 1, 1934, when the former "Four North-Eastern Provinces" were replaced by fourteen Sheng or Provinces (See Fifth Report, Sections 1-2). Under the new system, the Sheng became a mere administrative organ of the Central Government, while the division of administrative functions between central and local authorities were clearly demarcated. Thus, the Governor of a Sheng remains under the charge and supervision of the Prime Minister and Departmental Ministers. He is empowered to enforce all laws and to fulfill all instructions within his Sheng and superintends all affairs of administrative character. On the other hand, unlike the practices in force under the former regime, the collection of taxes, the stationing of troops, and the compilation of budgets are done under the direction of the Central Government. The realization of this nofeworthy change, not only helped to unify local administration, but also eliminated opportunities for fraudulent practices and divisional dissentions which characterized the local administration before 1932. A Sheng is further subdivided into Hsien or Prefectures and a Hsien into Chu and Tsun as the last local administrative units. In addition, the Hsinking and Harbin Special Municipalities and the North Manchuria Special District (it was abolished as of January 1, 1936) were placed under the direct jurisdiction of the Department of Civil Affairs. Moreover, in the districts where the Mongols predominate, the Mongolian tradition was followed and preserved to a large extent. Thus the administrative unit of the Hsingan Provinces is Chi or Banner, a legal body under the supervision of the State with an autonomous assembly to determine the budget and other important matters.

The second step toward the reform of local administration was taken on July 1, 1937, in conjunction with the general administrative reorganization above described. It added two new Sheng, namely, Tunghua and Mutankiang; it expanded the function of the Sheng government with the exception of four Hsingan Provinces, among other things, adding a share in the national industrial administration such as mining, forestry, and agricultural activ-

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ities, but made the constitution of the Sheng government quite elastic so as to make the functional divisions such as bureaux to conform with the local needs instead of following a standardized formula irrespective of needs; it created new offices of Deputy-Governor and Provincial Counsellor; it abolished the Harbin Special Municipality and incorporated it into the city of Harbin, thus limiting the "Special Municipality" system to Hsinking only; it created ten new cities, namely, Antung, Fushun, Yingkou, Anshan, Ssupingkai, Liaoyang, and Tiehling in anticipation of the relinquishment of Japan's extraterritorial rights within the S.M.R. Zone, and Mutankiang, Chinchou, and Chiamussu; it left the organization and functions of Chi untouched; it instituted a Police Bureau in each city; it created a fourth District Postal Administration Office at Chinchou and prepared the way for the expansion of city and village postal functions in anticipation of the relinquishment of Japan's extraterritorial rights.

National Defence

History The Manchurian army has its origin in the Lilan army which rendered great services in founding the Ching dynasty. The soldiers of this army were since then hereditary and were garrisoned in various important points. After the Chinese Revolution of 1911 the army was modernized, and in Manchuria, there were stationed two divisions of the 27th and 28th numbering from 30,000 to 40,000. When Chang Tso-lin came into power, he increased it to 200,000, which was again increased by his son to 260,000 regulars with an additional 100,000 held as provisional forces. There was kept also a small fleet of 7 gunboats to protect trade carried on the rivers. These were the military forces in service under Chang Hsueh-liang at the time of the outbreak of the Manchurian Incident.

Present Status The army and navy of the empire is under the supreme command of the Emperor, and is garrisoned in defence of particular districts prescribed by the Emperor.

The Defence Department of Manchoukuo combines both services of army and navy having the following bureaux and sections:

(1) Staff Bureau, (2) Supplies Bureau, (3) General Affairs Section, (4) Justice Section, (5) Personnel Section, (6) Survey Section, (7) Accounting Section, (8) Auditing, (9) Naval Administration, and (10) Armaments Section.

Besides there are the Military Advisory Board, where a number of Japanese officers are engaged who direct the military administration and the Investigation Board which engage in the investigations into the subjects of military affairs and also in propaganda.

STANDING ARMY

The military forces at various points are:

1. The Imperial Guards
2. The Seian Force
3. The Flying Corps
4. The Gendarmerie Corps
5. 1st Brigade in command of 1st military district
   2nd " " " " 2nd " "
   3rd " " " " 3rd " "
   4th " " " " 4th " "
   5th " " " " 5th " "
6. Kirin army
7. Heilungkiang army

The army numbers 80,000. As to the coastal and river defence, the country maintains 11 gunboats and 4 other vessels.

Foreign Relations

With Japan (1) Recognition by Japan. Japan is the only country with which Manchoukuo is exchanging envoys. Her relation with Japan is defined in the Japan-Manchoukuo Protocol signed on September 15, 1932, between the two countries at Hsinking, providing for their mutual defence. (See p. 205) The document is also notable for the fact that by virtue of it, Japan accorded recognition de jure to the new state far ahead of other nations.

(2) Emperor Kangtê's visit to Japan. In June, 1934, Prince Chichibu was sent to the Empire to convey the Imperial Message of Congratulation to the Emperor and Empress of the new state. In return for this, the Emperor Kangtê paid a visit to Japan, arriving in Tokyo on April 6, 1935, and made a formal call on the Emperor of Japan on the same day. He stayed till April 24.

(3) Abolition of Extraterritorial Privileges. Manchoukuo has confirmed, by the Japan-Manchoukuo protocol, the extraterritorial privileges which Japan had been enjoying under treaties with China. But the development and progress of the country, since its founding, in all branches of administrative system, which are connected with extraterritoriality, for instance, in judicial, police and taxation systems have been noteworthy. In fact more than ¥8,000,-

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000 was set up for the reform of these systems in the budget for 1934. Accordingly Japan decided to give up the rights of extraterritoriality and obtained the Imperial sanction for doing so on August 9, 1935.

The second treaty that completely abolished Japan's extraterritoriality in Manchoukuo was signed on November 5, 1937, only a year after the first. This Japan-Manchoukuo treaty transferred completely all administrative rights in the railway zone. It covered judicial, police, and other matters not covered in the first treaty, and went into force on December 1, 1937, when the formal abolition and transfers took place.

In the Kwantung Bureau, the Police Department was abolished with the transfer of Japanese police forces to Manchoukuo and the Education Department was created to supervise School Associations and Federation of School Associations which took over Japanese educational activities in Manchuria. In the Kwantung District Government, all offices including police and postal services which were operating in the S.M.R. Zone were transferred to Manchoukuo, two Departments of Finance and Civil Engineering were added, and the Dairen Civil Administration Office was abolished, placing the City of Dairen under the direct supervision of the Kwantung District Government which was already moved from Port Arthur to Dairen. Moreover, various activities of purely Japanese character which were carried on by post offices in the S.M.R. Zone were entrusted to similar Manchoukuo post offices for the time being.

Another far-reaching result of the relinquishment of extraterritoriality, including consular jurisdiction, was the abolition of several Japanese consulates in Manchoukuo. This decision was announced by the Japanese Embassy in Hsinking early in January, 1939. The shift included the abolition of Consulates-General at Mukden, Kirin, and Tsitsihar and Consulates or branches at Antung, Chinchou, Chengte, Chihfeng, Paichengtzu, and Yenchi, leaving open for the time being the Consulates-General at Hsinking and Harbin and Consulates in Northeast Manchuria. The Mutankiang Branch of the Harbin Consulate-General and the Hunchun Branch of the Yenki Consulate were raised to the status of a regular Consulate in view of the growing importance of north-eastern frontiers.

(4) Japan-Manchoukuo Economic Agreement. The agreement regarding the establishment of a joint Japanese-Manchoukuo economic commission was signed on July 15, 1935, at Hsinking by General Jirō Minami, Ambassador to Manchoukuo and commander of the Kwantung Army, and Mr. Chang Yen-ching, Foreign Minister of Manchoukuo. The object of the agreement is to extend to the economic field the inseparable relations between Japan and Manchoukuo that already exist in the defence and diplomatic fields and to accelerate the formation of the economic bloc between the two countries.

With Soviet Russia (1) Purchase of N.M.R. In view of ceaseless troubles concerning the North Manchuria Railway, Soviet Russia proposed to Manchoukuo to dispose of the railway. The first conference was opened at Tokyo in June, 1933, between the representatives of Manchoukuo and Soviet Russia with a few Japanese officials attending the parley. On account of the great disparity of opinions as to the value of the railway the conference had not proceeded smoothly until, at last through the mediation of Mr. Hirota, then Foreign Minister of Japan, Soviet Russia finally came to agree on March 23, 1935 to transfer the railway to Manchoukuo at ¥140,000,000. Frontier troubles between Soviet Russia and Manchoukuo are incessant, becoming quite major events at times. The descriptions are given in Chapter VI.

With Great Britain and the U. S. A. The Manchoukuo Government decided to make the Petroleum Monopoly Law effective as from April 10, 1935. The governments of Great Britian and America protested against Japan stating that the above law infringes the principles of the Open Door and Equal Opportunity established by the Nine-Power Treaty. The Japanese Government replied that it was an independent action of the state of Manchoukuo, and that Japan could do nothing about it. The reason of the protest of the British and American Governments was that the capital invested in petroleum in Manchoukuo by their nationals would be practically expelled from the country by the coming into force of this law. But the Manchoukuo Government had to issue this law to effect control over its principal industries which were absolutely necessary for her development, with no aim to expel foreign capital.

With China (1) Postal and Railway Business. Manchoukuo, when she proclaimed her independence on March 1, 1932, notified China that her relation with the latter would be the same as with any other power, and declared that she would take over the business of

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postal service on the 20th of the same month. The country made new stamps and post cards, and had actually taken over the postal business on July 25 1932. Matters in connexion with the revival of the postal business which had been pending between Manchoukuo and China were satisfactorily settled and ordinary mail service was opened between the countries as from January 10, 1935, and that on money order and parcels as from February 1. As regards cables the negotiation came to a satisfactory conclusion on October 17, 1935. As to the collection of customs duties, the business was also taken over by the Manchoukuo Government on September 25.

The question of railway, which was another important problem, came to a satisfactory solution on June 28, 1934, and the railway connection which had been severed for 2 years and 9 months since the occurrence of the Manchurian Incident was restored. Since July 1, 1934, one train each from Peiping and Mukden is being despatched every day.

(2) Exchange of Amity Commissions. The East Hopei régime decided to enter into formal relation with Manchoukuo. A goodwill commission was sent by the East Hopei Anti-Communist and Autonomous Government headed by Chih Tsung-mo which formally presented to Foreign Minister Chang Yen-ching of Manchoukuo a personal letter from Mr. Yin Ju-keng, chairman of the Tungchow Council, voicing a desire for friendship and amity with Manchoukuo. The commission was received in audience by the Emperor Kangtê on the 17th. In return the Manchoukuo Government despatched an amity mission of six headed by Mr. Kao Chung-lu which delivered a letter of amity signed by Foreign Minister Chung Yen-ching to chief Executive Yin Ju-keng on May 18.

With the occurrence of the China Affair Manchoukuo's relation with China is undergoing a radical change.

With Germany The German economic mission to East Asia headed by Dr. Otto Carl Kiep arrived at Hsingking on February 32, 1935. Since then the commission made a study of economic conditions in Manchoukuo, and later proceeded to Tokyo to take up the subject of concluding a treaty with Manchoukuo through the intermediation of Japan. As the result an announcement of the conclusion of a German-Manchoukuo trade agreement was made by the Manchoukuo Embassy on May 1, which was signed on April 30.

Formal Recognition. In his address delivered before the Reichstag on February 20, 1938, Chancellor Hitler declared that Germany would formally recognize Manchoukuo, the following being a summary of his speech concerning Germany's foreign policy :

1. On no account will Germany become entangled in conflicts in which the nation itself is not interested. Germany will remain neutral.

2. Germany demands the return of her colonial possessions. Therefore Germany will never re-enter the League of Nations which deprived her of her colonies.

3. Germany will recognize Manchoukuo.

4. Germany will extend moral support to Japan in the present Sino-Japanese conflict.

5. Germany will further buttress the Japan-Germany-Italy Anti-Comintern Pact against Soviet Russia.

Thus, Germany's recognition of Manchoukuo, which had been expected since the conclusion of the Japan-Germany Anti-Comintern Pact, was realized at last.

Five days later, Dr. Knoll, Reich Trade Commissioner in Hsinking, paid a visit to Mr. Chang, the Prime Minister of Manchoukuo, and announced that Germany's recognition of Manchoukuo would take effect from February 20, 1938, the day Chancellor Hitler made his speech referred to above.

Treaty of Amity. On May 12, 1938, Germany extended formal recognition to Manchoukuo when a treaty of amity was signed in Berlin, inaugurating diplomatic relations between the two States. The historic document was signed by Baron Ernest von Weizsaecker, State Secretary for Foreign Affairs, on behalf of the Reich, and Mr. Hiyoshi Kato, Manchoukuo's Plenipotentiary in Berlin, at the German Foreign Office. The treaty is composed of four articles and will come into force on the day when ratifications are exchanged between the Reichsfuehrer and His Majesty the Emperor of Manchoukuo. The treaty is as follows:

Article 1. Both countries, on an equal and independent footing, shall exchange Consuls to establish diplomatic and consular relations. The said Consuls shall be accorded equal treatment with the Consuls of other countries under the most-favoured-nation terms.

Article 2. Both countries shall be granted the freedom of residence, travel and business for their respective

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nationals, for whose lives and property the two Governments undertake to provide protection.

Article 3. The two Governments agree to open, immediately after the signing of the present agreement, negotiations for the conclusion of a general treaty of trade and navigation with a view to promoting friendly relations.

Article 4. The text of the present treaty is prepared in duplicate in the German and Manchou languages. The treaty shall enter into force on the date when ratifications are exchanged between the Reichsfuehrer and the Emperor of Manchoukuo.

With Italy It must be recalled that the Italian Government, with the view to helping the maintenance of peace in the Far East gave de facto recognition to the Hsinking Government when it re-opened its consulate in Mukden on December 1, 1936. Italy once more manifested an admirable power of penetrating observation on the state of affairs in East Asia by announcing de jure recognition of Manchoukuo on November 29, 1937. Italy named her first minister to Hsinking in January and Manchoukuo hers in February, 1938. The treaty of amity, commerce and navigation was concluded on July 5, 1938.

Manchoukuo Joins Anti-Red Pact The historic signing of the protocol for Manchoukuo's participation in the Anti-Commintern Agreement took place in the flag-bedecked auditorium of the State Council Building in Hsinking on February 24, 1939, between the Manchoukuo plenipotentiary, Premier Chang Ching-hui, and the plenipotentiaries of Japan, Italy and Germany, Ambassador General Kenkichi Uyeda, Minister Luigi Cortese and Minister Wilhelm Wagner, respectively, the ceremony beginning at 10 a.m. Simultancously a similar protocol was signed in Budapest whereby Hungary also formally entered the anti-Red pact. Both protocols are based upon the German-Japanese Agreement on Communism and its supplementary protocol signed in Berlin on November 25, 1936, and the Japan-Germany-Italy Protocol signed in Rome on November 6, 1937.

Diplomatic Relations with Dominica On August 16, 1934, the President of Dominica presented his autograph letter to the Emperor of Manchoukuo through the Foreign Office of that country, in return for which the Emperor sent his dated January 21, 1935, to the President. The Foreign Minister of the Republic therefore sent a letter of appreciation to the Emperor through the Foreign Office of Manchoukuo, and in this manner diplomatic relations between the two countries have been established.

Recognition by Salvador On March 3, 1934, the Republic of Salvador declared that she would recognize Manchoukuo as an independent state.

Recognition by the Holy See Under date of April 18, 1934, the Holy See notified the Manchoukuo Government of its decision to form a separate mission field in Manchoukuo, independent from that of China, and appointed the Rt. Rev. Bishop A. Gaspais as Acting Apostolic Delegate in Manchoukuo with the intention to contribute to the moral and intellectual development of the country according to the disposition of the Manchoukuo authorities. The notice was confirmed on August of the same year by His Eminence Pierre Cardinal Fumasoni-Biondi, prefet de la S. Congregation de la Propagande.

Recognition by Nationalist Spain The Manchoukuo Government took steps to recognize the Franco Government in Spain and the latter did the same with regard to Manchoukuo. Official notes to the above effect were exchanged at Tokyo on December 2, 1937. This move, as the notes clarified, is another step toward the strengthening of an international united front against the destructive policies of the Third International.

Recognition by Hungary The Hungarian recognition of Manchoukuo was officially communicated to Hsinking on January 10, 1939, by Foreign Minister Csaky of Hungary. Premier Chang Ching-hui immediately replied and extended the official recognition of Hungary by the Manchoukuo Government.

Recognition by Poland The Governments of Manchoukuo and Poland on February 5, 1938, completed arrangements for the establishment of Polish Consulate in Harbin. Informal conversations between the representatives of Manchoukuo and Poland were carried on at Tokyo through the good offices of the Tokyo Foreign Office for the purpose of concluding a treaty of amity between the two countries. General agreement was reached in October and notes were exchanged under the date of October 19, 1938, for according to each other on condition of reciprocity the most-favoured-nation treatment in diplomatic and commercial relations. Poland thus accorded a de facto recognition to Manchoukuo.

Passport Visé Meanwhile, the Department of Foreign Affairs of Manchoukuo assiduously endeavoured to

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pave the way for the opening of diplomatic relations with European and American countries, and promulgated new regulations governing the granting of passports and their visés effective June 1, 1933, and otherwise took steps to provide travelling facilities for foreigners.

Simultaneously with the enforcement of the new regulations, the Manchoukuo Foreign Office opened four passport offices in Antung, Dairen, Yingkow and Suifeng on June 1 to which Shanhaikwan, Manchuli, Tumen, Heiho and Kupeikou were added later, pursuant to the stipulations of the said regulation. Between June 1, 1933 and September 30, 1934, a total of 11,395 passports of foreigners entering or passing through the country were examined and viséd, an average of 950 a month.

Manchoukuo Consulates Another event worth mentioning in connection with Manchoukuo's foreign relations was the opening of the Manchoukuo consulate at Blagoveschensk, the first consulate to be established in a foreign country by the new nation, late in September, 1932. Mr. Kuei Heng-chin was appointed in charge of this consulate.

The number of Manchoukuo residents in Blagoveschensk, which is a Soviet city located near the Siberian border on the bank of the Amur River on the opposite side of Heiho, a Manchoukuo town, is approximately 7,000, most of them being engaged in the retail business.

Manchoukuo's second consulate in Soviet Russia was opened at Chita in January, 1933, the staff being headed by Mr. Li Yuan as consul.

Also the consulate at Shingishu, Korea, the first of the kind to be established in the Japanese Empire, was opened on November 9, 1934.

Exchange of Ambassadors The recognition of Manchoukuo by Japan on September 15, 1932, was acknowledged by the despatch of Pao Kuan-cheng to Japan by the Manchoukuo Government, to stay in Tokyo as Manchoukuo's representative, towards the end of the same month, and later by the visit to Tokyo of the Foreign Minister of Manchoukuo, Hsieh Chieh-shih, in November, 1932.

Meanwhile General Nobuyoshi Muto, commander of the Kwantung army, ambassador to Manchoukuo and governor of the Kwantung Leased Territory, who signed the Japan-Manchoukuo Protocol on September 15, 1932, presented his credentials as ambassador to the Chief Executive of the country.

This was followed by the arrival of General Ting Shih-yuan on May 10 in Tokyo as the first Manchoukuo Minister to Japan. Meanwhile Manchoukuo desired to elevate the legation at Tokyo to the status of an embassy in view of the increasing importance of her relation with Japan, which was endorsed by Japan on May 21, 1935. The first ambassador of Manchoukuo to Japan was Mr. Hsieh Chieh-shih, the former minister of Foreign Affairs.

Shortly after the conclusion of the Jehol expedition, Marshal Muto, to which rank he was promoted, fell ill in Hsinking and died on July 27. He was succeeded at his post by General Takashi Hishikari, and then by General Jirô Minami. The latter resigned and the post was taken by General Kenkichi Uyeda in March, 1936.

Diplomatic Representations Japan is the only nation which has an embassy in Manchoukuo. Consulates established by Japan and other Powers in that country and their locations follow:

Japanese Embassy at Hsinking.
Japanese Consulates-General at Hsinking, and Harbin.
Japanese Consulates at Yingkow, Tsitsihar, Paitsokuo, Tunghua, Hailung, Taolu, Hunchun, Manchouli, Chengchiatun, Toutaokou, Hsinminfu, Hailar, Suifenho, Yenki, Tumen, Tunhua and Mutankiang.
British Consulates-General at Mukden and Harbin.
British Consulate at Yingkow.
American Consulates-General at Mukden and Harbin.
French Consulates at Mukden and Harbin.
U.S.S.R. Consulates-General at Mukden and Harbin.
U.S.S.R. Consulates at Tsitsihar, Heiho, Suifenho and Manchouli.
German Consulates at Mukden and Harbin.
Italian Consulate at Harbin.
Dutch Consulates at Harbin and Yingkow.
Belgian Consulate at Harbin.
Danish Consulate at Harbin.
Norwegian Consulate at Yingkow.
Polish Consulate at Harbin.
Czechoslovak Consulate at Harbin.
Portuguese Consulate at Harbin

At Dairen, Kwantung Leased Territory

American Consulate
British Consulate
U.S.S.R. Consulate
German Consulate
French Consulate
Dutch Consulate
Swedish Consulate
Finnish Consulate
Belgian Consulate
Estonian Consulate
Norwegian Consulate

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Finance

While the finance under Chang Tso-ling was comparatively sound in his earlier administration, the expenditure commenced to increase steadily due to his army being enlarged in the latter days. Thus in 1926, the total expenditure was ¥120,000,000 and showed a budgetary deficit of ¥12,000,000. When he was succeeded by his son, Chang Hsueh-liang, the deficit was further increased. The recklessness of his finance was evidenced by the fact that, of the total expenditure of ¥142,500,000, the sum defrayed for the military purpose amounted to ¥114,720,000. The deficit thus created was met by increased taxes and inflation of currency, thereby causing the people great misery.

In view of the deplorable state of affairs, as above stated, the leaders of Manchoukuo directed their efforts for the stabilization of the financial conditions of the country without increasing tax economic pressure on the people. It is much to the credit of the new state that such a rapid and sound development has been made in finance and currency in so short a time.

Manchoukuo's national budgets since its foundation follow :

MANCHOUKUO'S NATIONAL BUDGET

(In M¥1,000)

	Revenue			Expenditure		
	Ordinary	Extra-ordinary	Total	Ordinary	Extra-ordinary	Total
1932	97,386	15,922	113,308	104,482	8,826	113,308
1933	132,134	17,035	149,169	107,449	41,720	149,169
1934	163,321	25,404	188,725	131,662	57,063	188,725
1935	88,605	16,392	104,993	62,917	42,081	104,993
1936	193,234	26,170	219,405	134,322	85,082	219,405
1937	211,631	36,467	248,098	119,112	128,986	248,098
1938	240,335	64,219	304,555	143,659	160,875	304,555
1939	299,837	103,540	403,377	182,033	221,344	403,377

Note: Manchoukuo's fiscal year corresponds with the calendar year.

Manchoukuo's Budget for 1938 and 1939 The State budget for the fifth fiscal year of Kangtê covering the period from January 1 to December 31, 1938, was published in the Official Gazette December 28, 1937.

Compiled on the principle of rational and positive finance, the new budget is designed, inter alia, to adapt the country to the situation brought about by the China Incident. It aims in the main to effect, by mobilizing all internal facilities, the strengthening of national defence, promotion of the nation's producing capacity and efficient collaboration with Japan in the adjustment of international receipts and payments, besides ensuring a smooth working of the various arrangements instituted to cope with the new situation arising from the abolition of extra-territoriality by Japan.

Much the same general trend governed the formulation of the 1939 budget now in force. This year, the Government is seeking some 396,428,000 yuan through the floatation of loans. Of this amount 42,300,000 yuan have been assigned to the new special account known as the Colonial Development Enterprise Special Account for various subsidized activities in connection with Japanese and Chosenese immigration. Of the balance, 250,000,000 yuan are taken up by the Investment Special Account, 30,000,000 yuan by the Hydro-Electric Power Enterprise Special Account, and 65,000,000 yuan by the General Accounts.

MANCHOUKUO'S BUDGETS, 1937-1939

(A) General Account Budget

(Unit: Yuan)

REVENUE ESTIMATES

Classifications	1937	1938	1939
Ordinary:			
Taxes and Duties	153,029,000	172,956,824	203,293,000
Customs Revenue	89,658,000	96,447,824	107,551,000
Internal Revenue	63,371,000	76,509,000	95,742,000

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Classifications	1937	1938	1939
Stamp Revenue	9,097,032	9,887,890	14,986,598
Monopoly Profits	44,367,752	52,325,370	76,607,944
Revenues from State Industries and Other Sources	5,138,020	5,165,224	4,949,953
Total	211,631,804	240,335,308	299,837,495
Extraordinary:			
General	5,047,152	4,701,877	14,641,330
From Special Accounts	21,003,860	46,517,815	68,898,830
Surplus from Previous Year	10,415,944	13,000,000	20,000,000
Total	36,466,956	64,219,692	103,540,160

EXPENDITURE ESTIMATES

Jurisdictions	1937	1938	1939
Imperial Household	2,100,000	2,100,000	2,100,000
Ordinary	2,100,000	2,100,000	2,100,000
General Affairs Board	38,865,829	103,178,004	131,381,258
Ordinary	10,210,659	33,703,570	49,149,952
Extraordinary	28,655,170	69,474,434	82,231,306
Dept. of People's Welfare (Civil Affairs to 1937)	63,965,953	14,941,415	19,225,832
Ordinary	28,201,547	7,671,707	10,352,420
Extraordinary	35,764,406	7,269,708	8,873,412
Dept. of Foreign Affairs	1,616,011	—	—
Ordinary	1,262,690	—	—
Extraordinary	353,321	—	—
Dept. of Public Peace (Defence to 1937)	80,170,141	111,904,659	137,661,713
Ordinary	43,210,197	67,310,011	82,839,546
Extraordinary	36,959,944	44,594,648	54,822,167
Dept. of Finance and Commerce	27,693,800	27,051,260	35,672,585
Ordinary	13,379,341	14,943,135	16,002,614
Extraordinary	14,314,459	12,108,125	19,669,971
Dept. of Industry	8,508,499	12,041,976	20,879,259
Ordinary	3,427,544	5,859,251	5,700,502
Extraordinary	5,080,955	6,182,725	15,178,759
Dept. of Communications	5,146,225	21,797,596	44,006,769
Ordinary	855,258	1,274,788	3,789,898
Extraordinary	4,290,967	20,522,808	40,216,871
Dept. of Justice	9,996,871	11,540,090	12,450,239
Ordinary	8,890,882	10,796,609	12,098,905
Extraordinary	1,105,989	743,481	351,334
Dept. of Education	5,697,925	—	—
Ordinary	4,807,553	—	—
Extraordinary	890,372	—	—
Dept. of Mongolian Administration	4,337,506	—	—
Ordinary	2,766,772	—	—
Extraordinary	1,570,734	—	—
Total	248,098,760	304,555,000	403,377,655

(B) Special Accounts Budgets

(Unit: Yuan)

REVENUE ESTIMATES

Classifications	1937	1938	1939
General Affairs Board:			
Loan Adjustment Fund	120,628,873	96,940,487	116,423,565
State Loans	110,735,000	266,916,000	396,428,000
Supplies	7,272,867	17,244,188	77,072,789
Capital Construction Bureau	5,231,847	2,147,403	3,199,687
Provincial Finance Fund	—	42,700,000	37,575,400

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Classifications	1937	1938	1939
Officials' Mutual Relief	—	2,043,655	2,093,735
Scientific Research Fund	—	2,166,249	4,848,806
Pension Fund	—	—	5,618,039
Dept. of Public Peace (Defence to 1937):			
Army Clothing Factory	4,622,600	7,403,180	8,566,621
Arsenal	3,300,000	12,328,630	15,723,140
Horse Race	2,673,823	4,352,289	5,925,684
Dept. of Finance and Commerce:			
State Properties Adjustment Fund	5,010,995	5,732,994	10,551,781
Investments	91,448,316	326,214,654	280,327,347
Monopoly Projects	113,248,504	158,751,349	195,904,337
Railway Loans	48,709,462	14,777,837	8,280,450
Dept. of Industry:			
State Forestry Project	14,112,871	25,964,294	74,467,899
Gold Refining Project	1,500,000	4,478,107	—
Hydro-Electric Power Project	3,151,000	16,382,174	30,566,273
Colonization Project	—	—	42,313,841
Dept. of Communications:			
Postal Administration	5,898,249	12,024,987	14,824,980
Postal Life Insurance	—	989,449	3,066,071
River and Irrigation Project	—	1,800,000	4,967,949
Dept. of Justice:			
Prison Administration	5,414,622	7,578,902	13,075,881
Total	542,959,029	1,128,936,828	1,251,822,275

EXPENDITURE ESTIMATES

Jurisdictions	1937	1938	1939
General Affairs Board:			
Loan Adjustment Fund	120,628,873	96,940,487	116,423,565
State Loans	110,735,000	366,916,000	396,428,000
Supplies	7,155,402	17,044,303	76,577,789
Capital Construction Bureau	5,231,847	2,147,403	3,199,687
Provincial Finance Fund	—	42,700,000	37,575,400
Officials' Mutual Relief	—	1,407,169	2,093,735
Scientific Research Fund	—	2,166,249	4,848,806
Pension Fund	—	—	3,769,468
Dept. of Public Peace (Defence to 1937):			
Army Clothing Factory	4,757,930	7,480,301	8,668,177
Arsenal	3,300,000	12,328,630	15,723,140
Horse Race	1,310,933	2,301,568	2,865,569
Dept. of Finance and Commerce:			
State Properties Adjustment Fund	4,144,364	5,121,577	10,551,781
Investments	91,448,316	326,214,654	280,327,347
Monopoly Projects	78,889,518	122,778,130	139,535,569
Railway Loans	48,709,462	14,777,837	8,280,450
Dept. of Industry:			
State Forestry Project	14,112,871	24,443,437	74,251,165
Gold Refining Project	1,500,000	5,388,068	—
Hydro-Electric Power Project	—	16,381,831	30,566,273
Colonization Project	—	—	42,313,841
Dept. of Communications:			
Postal Administration	5,898,249	12,024,987	14,824,980
Postal Life Insurance	—	630,985	1,393,102
River and Irrigation Project	—	1,800,000	4,967,949
Dept. of Justice:			
Prison Administration	5,114,622	7,578,902	13,075,881
Total	506,086,364	1,088,572,518	1,288,261,674

Government Monopolies In Manchuria, prior to the foundation of the new State, the production and sale of salt and matches were government mono-

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polies. These monopolies, however, were not national, but provincial in character, without any uniformity or connection between each provincial system, for the four provinces that made up the so-called Northeastern régime in those days, were to all intents and purposes, separate entities, with their own laws and regulations.

Seven years have elapsed since the system of national monopolies was inaugurated in Manchoukuo, and along with the establishment of various other national systems, it has been gradually improved and expanded. Beginning with the promulgation of the Opium Law in 1932, an oil monopoly system was enforced in 1935, while salt and matches were made Government monopolies in 1937. The system which the Manchoukuo Government has temporarily adopted with regard to the sale of matches during the first five years was known as public sales system, a combination of taxation and monopoly systems. Under this system, the Government supervised the manufacture and distribution as well as retail business of matches but the public sale was entrusted to the Manchuria Manufacturers' Association, the wholesale dealers paying tax to the Government according to the amount of business handled. This system contained many defects and the Government has instituted investigations for the purpose of revising the system fundamentally. The result was the formulation of the Match Monopoly Law which was promulgated on December 26, 1936, and enforced from February 16, 1937. Under the new system, any person who wishes to manufacture, import, or export matches is required to obtain a permit therefor from the Government, while all matches manufactured or imported automatically become Government monopoly products, which must be sold to the Government in return for fair compensation. As in the other cases of monopoly products, the wholesale trade in matches is limited only to those who are licenced and designated by the Government.

The alcohol monopoly was instituted on January 1, 1938. It was designed to ensure the economical production of alcohol, to develop the use of alcohol in mixed liquid fuel, and to encourage the production and consumption generally. The monopoly alcohol contains 90 per cent or more pure alcohol, either absolute alcohol or hydrous alcohol, and a drastic control is placed over the alcohol with less than 90 per cent content. The manufacture, importation, or exportation of alcohol, as in other cases, are carried on under the Government licence system and all alcohol manufactured or imported, with the exception of export alcohol in transit and alcohol for special purposes, is expropriated by the Government. The distribution is made by the Monopoly Office through licenced dealers. As Manchoukuo has various grains suitable for making alcohol and also sufficient manufacturing equipments to meet the domestic demand with considerable surplus, the Government has adopted the policy of restricting importation and encouraging exportation of alcohol. Thus, the manufacturers of shaochiu, a popular native drink which is distilled by a primitive method from a mixture of kaoliang, corn, Indian beans, and millet, are required to use the monopoly alcohol, while the manufacture of so-called "new saochiu," a mixture of ordinary shaochiu and alcohol, has been prohibited.

The opium monopoly had as its fundamental purpose the extermination of opium evil through national control. In this respect, the reexamination of the system in 1934 and further study of the problem in general finally led the Government in August, 1937, to discard the policy of gradually eliminating addicts and to adopt a new policy of completely exterminating the habit within a period of ten years beginning in 1938. The ten-year plan for the extermination of opium evil as announced on August 12, 1937, outlined an elaborate programme including (1) education against opium-smoking, (2) prevention of the appearance of fresh cases, (3) curing of addicted persons, (4) control and improvement of opium to be used in the treatment of addicts, (5) self-restraint of Government and municipal officials, and (6) rigid control of production, buying, and selling of opium in conformity with the policy of eradicating opium smoking. Simultaneously with the strengthening of the opium monopoly, the Government has decided to ban the use of narcotic drugs. Consequently, the Narcotics Law was promulgated in August, and enforced from September 15, 1937. The narcotic administration under the Narcotics Law is primarily under the jurisdiction of the Health Department but, as the opium from which narcotic drugs are manufactured is a monopoly product, the manufacture, importation, and distribution of morphine and heroin were placed under the supervision of the Monopoly Office.

The national revenue from the mo-

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nopoly products grew from 6,063,000 yuan for the year 1933-34 to 11,389,000 yuan for 1934-35, 6,373,000 yuan for 1935 (6 months), and 20,116,000 yuan for 1936. The addition of salt and match raised the budgetary estimate for 1937 to 44,368,000 yuan, the further addition of alcohol increased the budgetary estimate for 1938 to 52,325,000 yuan, and that for 1939 to a new record sum of 76,608,000 yuan or 12 times the net profit of 1933-34. In other words, the monopoly profit in 1933-34 amounted to only 3 per cent of the total net revenue but in the 1939 budget it rose to 17 per cent of the total estimated national revenue. With the progress of industrialization of the country, the monopoly profit is expected to increase further.

Banking

Central Bank of Manchou This bank was established on July 1, 1932, and it opened business on the same day. In it were included four old banks of issue, the Three Eastern Provinces and the Frontier Bank. It has its head office at Hsinking, and branch offices at Mukden, Kirin, Tsitsihar and Harbin. It is capitalized at M¥30,000,000, and the Manchoukuo government hold more than 50,000 shares of M¥100 each. It is authorized to mint coins and issue notes. The general balance sheet of the bank amounted to M¥913,813,000 at the end of 1938.

Currency Problem The currency in Manchoukuo has been in an extremely complicated condition, native and Japanese and other notes and coins being in circulation. But in the newly regulated system of Manchoukuo currency 23.91 grammes of pure silver is taken as the unit called the yuan, there being 100 fen or 1,000 li in one yuan. The new paper notes are issued in five different denominations of 100 yuan, 10 yuan, 5 yuan, one yuan and chian, or 50 fen, circulated together with 1-chiao and 5 fen nickels and 1-fen and 5-li coppers. The amount of coins issued by December, 1938, reached M¥27,158,869.

Note Issue Before opening for business on July 1, 1932, the Central Bank of Manchou took over old notes of 15 different kinds and 136 denominations amounting to M¥142,234,881 calculated in the new currency at the exchange rate fixed officially. This figure was gradually reduced and by the end of June, 1935 a total of M¥138,200,000 or 97.2% had been redeemed by the Bank. The amount of the notes in circulation at the end of December, 1938, reached M¥425,738,000.

Industrial Bank of Manchou This bank was founded in accordance with the Industrial Bank of Manchou Law issued by the Manchoukuo Government on December 3, 1936. Its capitalization is ¥30,000,000, a half of which is invested by that Government. Its object is to supply capital necessary for industrial development of Manchoukuo, and the domain of its business is not only limited to supply of capital to commerce, but to large and small industries on a basis of long-term and low interest rate. The bank is vested with authority to issue industrial debentures 15 times its paid-up capitalization. The Manchoukuo Government will guarantee for payment of principal and interest of loans for the bank, when the latter intends to raise necessary loans by floatation of its debentures abroad. Its president is Mr. Yutaro Tomita. Its head office is in Hsinking and branches in various cities of Manchoukuo. The general balance sheet of the bank amounted to M¥587,590,953 at the end of 1938.

Other Banking Institutions Though the Central Bank of Manchou occupies the controlling position in the monetary market as the note issuing bank, there are other banks which do substantial banking business. The names and capitalizations of the principal banks follow:

Name	Authorized Capital
(1) Manchoukuo Banks	
Fentien Commercial and Industrial Bank	M¥2,200,000
Fentien Commercial Bank	1,000,000
Yingkow	1,000,000
Kung Cheng "Yu Bank"	500,000
Tungpien Industrial Bank	1,500,000
I Fa Bank	1,000,000
I Tung Commercial Bank	1,000,000
Hui Hua Bank	250,000
(2) Japanese Banks	
Yokohama Specie Bank	¥100,000,000
Bank of Chosen	400,000,000
Shoryu Bank	12,000,000
Manshu Bank	10,000,000
(3) Chinese Banks	
Central Bank of China	25,000,000
Bank of Communications	10,000,000
Chin Cheng Bank	10,000,000
Ta Chung Bank	4,000,000
(4) Other Foreign Banks	
Russo-Asiatic Bank	R65,000,000
The Far Eastern Bank	$5,000,000
Hongkong Shanghai Banking Corporation	$5,000,000
National City Bank of New York	$150,000,000
The Chartered Bank of India, Australia & China	£3,000,000

To aid the sound development and

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proper control of banking, the Government promulgated a new Banking Law in November, 1933.

Encouraged by the favourable results of the two credit associations which were created in 1932 in Fengtien province the Finance authorities in 1933 inaugurated eight similar associations in Fengtien, two in Kirin and one in Heilungkiang province. In 1934, 39 more such associations were established and preparations have been made for the establishment of 30 others during 1935.

Coupled with the credit associations referred to above, the Government is planning to grant special licences to chartered banking firms for the issue of premium bonds whereby they may be able to advance long-term low-interest loans to farmers and small industrialists.

The Government also is planning to create and subsidize a larger number of credit associations for the specific purpose of improving the finances of small and middle class farmers, merchants and minor industrialists. Such association would be subject to appropriate regulations and supervision by the Government. At the same time the Government is planning to assist and exercise necessary control over pawnshops.

CURRENCY ISSUE AND RESERVES OF CENTRAL BANK OF MANCHOU

(Unit: M¥1,000)

Year	1934	1935	1936	1937	1938
Total Currency Issue (end of year)	184,104	198,939	274,691	329,909	452,896
Note Issue (End of year)	168,332	178,655	254,243	307,489	425,737
Reserves (end of year)					
Specie Reserve	74,818	92,230	177,181	208,096	216,309
Ratio of Specie Reserve to Total Note Issue	44.4%	51.6%	69.7%	67.7%	50.8%
Security Reserve	93,513	86,425	77,062	99,393	209,428
Issue of Coins (end of year)	15,772	20,283	20,448	22,419	27,158

CONDITION OF ALL ORDINARY BANKS IN MANCHOUKUO

(As at end of November, 1938)

(Unit: M¥1,000)

Banks	Domestic Banks	Foreign Banks	Japanese Banks	Chinese Banks	Western Banks	Total	Total at end of Nov. 1937
No. of Banks	48	35	10	21	4	83	85
Capital	25,705	—	—	—	—	25,705	25,555
Reserves	3,733	—	—	—	—	3,733	3,746
Deposits	42,011	50,804	25,758	9,907	15,138	92,815	95,290
Loans From Banks, etc.	15,112	16,702	6,331	7,980	2,391	31,814	30,656
Capital unpaid	9,425	—	—	—	—	9,425	9,425
Advances	71,840	133,111	101,283	13,080	18,747	204,951	192,215
Deposits with Other Banks	3,935	9,778	3,853	3,581	2,342	13,713	13,417
Securities	1,406	4,196	—	3,631	565	5,602	5,545
Cash in Hand	1,339	1,327	466	662	198	2,666	2,885

BUSINESS CONDITION OF RURAL CREDIT ASSOCIATIONS

(Unit: M¥1,000)

End of	1936	1937	1938	End of	1936	1937	1938
No. of Associations	103	107	126	Deposits	5,783	11,138	19,829
Membership	142,823	234,349	514,468	Advances and Discounted Bills	8,904	15,098	27,152
Investment	761	1,216	2,029	Deposits with Banks and Cash in Hand	5,369	8,295	15,045
Loan from Government	2,060	2,160	2,540				
Borrowings	7,311	12,443	23,377				

POSTAL SAVINGS IN MANCHOUKUO (1934-38)

Manchurian Savings

(In Yuan)

Year	Deposits	Withdrawals	At End of Year No. of Depositors	At End of Year Amount	Average Amount per Depositor
1934	1,319,198	917,893	21,314	631,138	29.61
1935	4,005,435	2,500,485	72,675	2,336,089	32.14
1936	11,210,783	6,438,153	103,909	7,106,826	68.39
1937	22,627,976	13,145,569	204,634	17,304,209	84.50
1938	77,030,860	42,721,938	638,003	51,613,139	80.80

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Japanese Savings

(In Yuan)

Year	Deposits	Withdrawals	At End of Year No. of Depositors	At End of Year Amount	Average Amount per Depositors
1934	38,768,832	32,108,142	437,636	38,248,792	87.40
1935	45,160,779	38,622,080	522,879	44,771,451	85.62
1936	47,918,224	42,318,518	595,031	50,018,738	84.06
1937	47,480,040	41,032,499	658,718	57,735,875	87.65
1938	49,003,964	49,316,382	625,965	57,941,469	92.56

Industrial Expansion of Manchoukuo

Five-Year Industrial Plan

On March 1, 1933, the Manchoukuo Government proclaimed the "General Outline of the Economic Construction Programme of Manchoukuo" and enunciated its national economic policy of control, and in cooperation with the Japanese Government, it began to draw up the second-period construction programme. The new programme was ready by the end of 1936 and the Government announced the outline of new five-year construction programme at the Provincial Governors' Conference in January, 1937. The second-period construction programme, requiring a huge expenditure of two and a half billion yuan, is designed to meet the need of strengthening the Japan-Manchoukuo economic bloc and to enable Manchoukuo to develop resources necessary for her national defence and for the eventual establishment of self-sufficiency of goods for consumption within the country as well as to supplement the resources of Japan. The nucleus of this programme is the Five-Year Industrial Plan which aims (1) to establish and expedite important industries and (2) to promote national economy.

The second-period Five-Year Industrial Programme calls for the development of natural resources and such industries as coal mining, iron mining, and coal liquefaction.

Coal Mining Coal, with an estimated deposit of over ten billion metric tons, is one of the most important mineral products of Manchoukuo. The Government has decided to raise the capital of the Manchuria Coal Mining Company, a Japan-Manchoukuo joint enterprise, from 16,000,000 yuan to 80,000,000 yuan.

It will enable the country to increase the annual production of coal to 24,600,000 tons during the next five years. This will necessarily require opening up of new mines. In 1931, the year before the birth of Manchoukuo, the domestic coal output amounted to 9,200,000 tons, of which 6,520,000 tons or 70% were mined at the Fushun Colliery. In 1935, the production reached 11,670,000 tons including 8,380,000 tons of Fushun coal, an increase of 2,470,000 tons over the 1931 output. These figures indicate that the increase of coal output since 1931 was chalked up principally at the Fushun Colliery and naturally the new five-year programme aims to increase chiefly the output of the mines operated by the Manchuria Coal Mining Company. The most encouraging recent discovery of large deposits of coal in the so-called Tungpientao region or the southeastern section of the country along the Chosen border, including an estimated deposit of 50 million tons at Yentungkou, 10 million tons at Tiehchang, and 100 million tons at Wutaochiang, is believed to expedite the above programme tremendously.

Iron and Steel Manufacturing. The Five-Year Industrial Plan also gives primary consideration to the iron industry. In this important field, however, Manchoukuo is still largely dependent upon foreign countries for its supply. Consequently the Five-Year Industrial Plan proposes to make Manchoukuo self-sufficient in iron, producing at least 2,350,000 tons of steel and 2,400,000 tons of pig iron together with 6,600,000 tons of iron ores. For this purpose, a systematic exploitation of her iron deposits, estimated at some 1,200 million tons, is projected along with the expansion of the Showa Steel Works at Anshan and the Penhsihu Iron Works on the Mukden-Antung Line, including the utilization of modern methods of ore refining to boost the domestic production of the metal. The providential impetus given to this programme has been the discovery of extensive iron deposits in the Tungpientao region. It is estimated that these deposits, counting only those already ascertained, amount to 1,200 million tons of fine iron ores, including 78 million tons at Tali-

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tzukou, 5 million tons at Chitaokou, 100 million tons at Laoling, and no less than 1 billion tons in a vein covering 40 kilometres from Pataochiang to Ertaochiang.

Liquefaction of Coal The rapidly increasing domestic demand for liquid fuel and the dearth of petroleum resources in the country have directed Manchoukuo's attention to the manufacture of substitute liquid fuel through the process of liquefying coal. Manchoukuo is fortunately well-equipped for this purpose as she is endowed with an almost inexhaustible supply of coal. As a first step in this direction, a coal hydrogenation plant is under construction at Fushun, the site of the world-famous open-cut coal mine and new plants will be built at Fushin in Chinchou Province, Holung in Chientao Province, and Ssupingkai in Fengtien Province. The largest of this group, the projected company at Fushun will be a Japan-Manchoukuo joint enterprise capitalized at ¥50,000,000. Moreover, the Government is giving every possible assistance to the expansion of the oil shale industry at Fushun and additional plants are now under construction to double the present capacity. A new plant is also planned at Sanhsing. The Five-Year Industrial Plan proposes to produce 500,000 tons through the liquefaction of coal and 800,000 tons from the oil shale. In addition, alcohol as a substitute liquid fuel is to be produced on a far larger scale than at present.

Light Metallic Industry Manchoukuo is rich in resources for the light metallic industry and the magnesium and aluminium manufacturing industries have sprung up. In the districts around Tashihchiao, a huge deposit of excellent magnesite ores, estimated at 1 billion tons, is found. In order to exploit the magnesite deposits there, the Manchuria Magnesium Company has been established with an authorized capital of 7,000,000 yuan. The Company has two large plants in Japan and manufactures metallic magnesium out of Tashihchiao magnesite ores. Raw materials for the manufacture of aluminum, particularly aluminum shale, are also found abundantly in Manchuria and the aluminum manufacturing in Manchoukuo holds bright prospects. The Manchuria Aluminum Manufacturing Company has been incorporated in 1936 with an authorized capital of ¥50,000,000 and its plants at Fushun has commenced their operation late in 1938. The Five-Year Industrial Plan calls for a production of 200 tons of magnesium and 20,000 tons of aluminum.

Electric Industry Owing to the almost inexhaustible coal deposits in Manchuria, electricity is generated entirely by caloric heat and nothing so far has been done to harness the vast hydraulic resources of the country which, it is estimated, are capable of generating a constant supply of 1,500,000 kilowatt of electricity. In order to meet an increasing demand for electric power in the country, a far-reaching plan for the development of hydro-electric industry under the State management has been worked out in conjunction with the Five-Year Industrial Plan. It proposes to generate 350,000 kilowatts by hydraulic power and to increase the present amount of 420,000 kilowatts by caloric heat to 850,000 kilowatts. For this purpose, three projects are now under way. The Government is constructing a huge reservoir, approximately 210 square miles in area, by damming the Second Sungari a short distance above Kirin and a large hydro-electric plant capable of generating 180,000 kilowatts of electric power. The first-stage construction programme will be completed in five years and the second-stage construction programme will raise the maximum depth of the reservoir by 12 metres and will increase the generating capacity of the plant to 200,000 kilowatts. This project, besides generating necessary electric power, also (1) will help prevent the inundation by floods of about 160,000 hectares of land in the lower reaches of the Sungari River and (2) will help irrigate extensive dry districts for farming. The second project is the establishment of the Yalu River Hydro-Electric Power Company with an authorized capital of ¥100,000,000 to be invested jointly by Japan and Manchoukuo. The Japanese and Manchoukuo authorities have reached an agreement to harness the waters of the Yalu River for the purpose of facilitating the industrial development of the Tungpientao District of Manchoukuo and North Chosen and a huge dam is now under construction. When the first-stage construction programme which is spread over three years and which calls for 500,000 kilowatts of electric power is completed, the Company's capital will be increased to ¥300,000,000 and the generating capacity to 1,500,000 kilowatts. The third project now under construction is a hydro-electric plant on the shores of the Chingpo Lake. It was started in 1937 and will be completed in 1939 when it will generate 30,000 kilowatts of elec-

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tricity. In addition, three generating plants are being constructed by the Manchuria Electric Industry Company at Santankou, Hunchun, and Mutankiang which will add 50,000 kilowatts by caloric heat.

Pulp Industry Having completed a survey of the forest resources of North Manchuria, the Government has decided upon their immediate exploitation with the object of increasing the present production of some 60,000 tons to 300,000 tons of rayon pulp and 100,000 tons of paper pulp annually when the five-year program is completed. Of this projected amount of 400,000 tons it is planned to produce 300,000 tons from woods, 70,000 tons from reeds, and 30,000 tons from bean stalks through the joint participation of the four already existing wood pulp companies in East Manchuria, the Yalu River Paper Manufacturing Company, the Kangte Reed Pulp Company, and the Manchuria Bean Stalk Pulp Company. However this is considered still inadequate and the Manchoukuo Government is now taking steps to establish a large pulp company with an authorized capital of 100,000,000 yuan in order to exploit the rich forestry resources in the Great Hsingan and Small Hsingan Ranges and to produce some 230,000 tons of pulp.

Gold Mining The present gold production in Manchoukuo is around 10,000,000 yuan worth. Under the Five-Year Industrial Plan, the Government aims to increase the production to 200,000,000 yuan worth within the next five years. For this purpose various adequate steps will be taken to encourage gold mining, especially the production of alluvial gold.

Promotion of National Economy Agriculture is the backbone of Manchoukuo's national economy and the development of her national economy rests upon the prosperity of her rural communities. Consequently, the Government has been exerting every possible effort to rehabilitate the rural communities by increasing the output of agricultural products, improving their quality and farming methods, rectifying rural finances, and reorganizing the rural social structure in general. The agricultural communities, however, are as yet in an impoverished condition and the second stage construction programme has incorporated a Five-Year Agricultural Programme as a fundamental measure for the rehabilitation of rural communities.

The Five-Year Agricultural Plan aims to establish the diversified farming in place of the one-crop system of cultivating soya-beans in an effort to resuscitate rural economy. During the first year of its operation, it calls for a total expenditure of 5,000,000 yuan, comprising 3,000,000 yuan for the encouragement of an increased production and 2,000,000 yuan for the prevention of blight, the encouragement of the use of improved farming implements, the establishment of agricultural experimental stations the cultivation of new farming lands, and the training of agricultural instructors.

The principal agricultural products whose output is to be increased are wheat, rice, oats, barley, lucerne, kenafe (Manchurian hemp), flax, castor-beans, cotton, tobacco, sugar beets, soya beans, kaoliang, millet, and maize. Special attention is to be directed toward wheat growing in North Manchuria and cotton cultivation in South Manchuria.

Wheat The increased domestic production of wheat, demand for which is yearly increasing, is absolutely essential for making Manchoukuo self-sufficient in this product and for expanding the domestic flour-milling industry. The Five-Year Agricultural Plan proposes to increase the 1936 wheat crop by 10 per cent to 1,100,000 hectares during 1937 and some 320,000 yuan have been appropriated by the Government for this purpose. At the end of five years, an increase of the wheat area by approximately 80 per cent and the wheat production to some 2,024,000 tons is expected.

Raw Cotton A new Five-Year Cotton Cultivation Plan was launched in 1937 to replace the 20-year programme enforced since 1933 with the object of producing 250,000,000 kin (1 kin equals 1.32 pounds) of unginned cotton annually after 1941 from 180,000 hectares of cotton fields in South Manchuria. Special attention will be paid to the cultivation of upland cotton in place of the native variety which is to be replaced by the former eventually as the yield from the former is far greater than that from the latter. In this connection the increasing activity of the Manchuria Cotton Association and the Manchuria Cotton Company looking forward to a complete revolution in cotton cultivation in South Manchuria is anticipated.

Kenafe Though new in Manchoukuo, the cultivation of kenafe shows much promise of developing into an important industry in the not far off future. In order to encourage its production among the farmers, the Department of

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Industry in 1937 purchased some 8,000 yuan worth of kenafe seeds from the State-commissioned seed farms for distribution in Liaoyang-Hsien, Yingkou-Hsien, Haicheng-Hsien, Kaiping-Hsien, Fu-Hsien, Hsinmin-Hsien, Taian-Hsien, and Chin-Hsien. It is also planned to increase 1933 seed farm areas to 250 hectares in 1937.

Flax In order to meet the increasing demand for flax in Japan and Manchoukuo, plans have been drawn up also for boosting an estimated 1937 flax production of 15,000 tons to 70,000 tons at the end of a five-year period. This will necessarily expedite the domestic hemp manufacturing industry.

Stock-Farming Another important place in the Five-Year Agricultural Plan is assigned to the stock-farming. It aims to increase the existing breed of sheep, numbering some 3,000,000, to 4,200,000 and to produce some 4,740,000 tons of wool by introducing superior strains imported from abroad, such as Merinos and Coriedales from the United States and Australia, and by establishing adequate facilities. It plans to add some 400,000 heads of horses, 765,000 heads of cattle, and 260,000 heads of pigs. It also proposes to make an added effort in preventing and exterminating various forms of live-stock epidemics.

In cooperation with the Department of Industry, the Hsingan Affairs Office, until recently the Mongolian Administration Department, has also worked out a Five-Year Plan for the agricultural development of Mongolia through the introduction of modern methods of production and for the improvement and augmentation of the existing breed of Mongolian sheep. For this purpose several measures are being projected, such as the Hsingan Institute at Hailar for the training of veterinary surgeons, the establishment of sheep farms at Puhsi and Lupei and live-stock farms in banner districts, the opening of cooperatives communities, the encouragement of cultivation, and the readjustment of important facilities for the local farming industry.

Japanese Immigration The successful result attained by the Japanese farmer-immigrants during 1932-1936 has led the Japanese Government to initiate in 1937 a gigantic plan of settling I million Japanese households with 5 million members in twenty years. In view of the important part Japanese immigrants are destined to play in the second-stage construction programme, especially in promoting Manchoukuo's industrial development through an increased radius of cultivation, the Manchoukuo Government is planning to enlarge the scope of the Manchuria Colonial Development Company and other official and unofficial organizations concerned with Japanese immigration and to provide all available facilities for Japanese settlements.

Railways Undoubtedly the most noteworthy progress witnessed in Manchoukuo since 1932 is the development of railway transportation. Whereas there were about 5,500 kilometres of railways in all Manchuria in 1932, the total mileage has since almost doubled, now nearing 10,000 kilometres. It is not too much to state that this amazing development in the field of transportation and communication has become the vehicle upon which the second-stage construction programme is now progressing. Now that the fourth-stage railway construction programme has been launched to expand the radius of railway transportation farther afield, the Department of Communications is planning to build, in addition to the lines already projected, some 300 kilometres of new lines annually, chiefly in North Manchuria, during the next five years as well as to encourage the construction of about 1,000 kilometres of privately-owned railways by granting subsidies.

State Highways The Department of Communications is also planning to build some 13,000 kilometres of new State highways during the next five-year period beginning in 1937. At the same time, some 8,000 kilometres of roads already completed will be improved to facilitate transportation. The Department of Communications will continue the present policy of bus-line management under the Railway Directorate General of the South Manchuria Railway Company and bus service on all important highways will be extended and improved. The other bus lines will be left to private management.

Other Means of Communication As to the other means of communications, including erection of bridges and expansion of Rashin and Hulutao harbours, every effort will be made to develop them to meet the growing needs of the growing State.

Improvement of Financial Administration In line with the nature of the second construction programme, the Government has decided to follow the policy of avoiding an increase in general administrative expenditures and of setting aside the largest possible amount

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of appropriations within the limits of sound finance for stabilizing and promoting the livelihood of the nation. It has also decided to resort to loan floatation as a source of revenue in financing undertakings for the development of industry. Inasmuch as taxes and Government monopolies have an important bearing upon the national economy, it has devised the following measures for the smooth realization of the second-stage construction programme.

Nation-wide coordination and readjustment in the internal taxation system had been effected in 1936 and the whole system has since been completely modernized. Further reform is now under contemplation to readjust the local taxation system, the customs, and the monopoly system so as to distribute the tax burdens equally and to provide elasticity to the financial resources of the nation.

The customs tariff has been revised several times since Manchoukuo took over the Maritime Customs with the result that the nation's trade continues to grow with a corresponding rise in customs revenue year after year. A fundamental revision of the customs tariff and an improvement in the customs clearance procedure are now projected with a view to promoting domestic industry, effecting a rational readjustment of Japan-Manchoukuo trade, and lightening the tax burden of the people.

The monopoly system of Manchoukuo was formerly confined to opium, petroleum, and a part of the salt output of the nation. Starting in 1937, the country's entire salt production and matches have been placed under the Government monopoly. As a result, the price of salt has been reduced from 10.16 yuan to 7.95 yuan per 100 kin. This reduction means a saving of approximately 6,000,000 yuan by consumers annually. Hereafter the Government will endeavour to readjust rationally the prices of monopoly products, to increase their output, and to facilitate their distribution with a view to effecting a smooth operation of the monopoly system.

The financing institutions play an important part in carrying out such an all-embracing construction programme. Naturally the Government plans to facilitate the smooth operation of financing business and to supply funds necessary for industrial development by giving full play to the functions of the newly established Industrial Bank of Manchou and the Central Bank of Manchou. At the same time, it will direct its efforts toward effecting general improvements in the ordinary banks, will establish additional Rural Credit Associations, will found Urban Credit Associations, and will increase their efficiency and lower their interest rates in order to help the financing of middle and small class commercial and industrial firms and rural communities.

Financing of Five-Year Programme Funds needed to finance the Five-Year Industrial Plan are two and a half billion yuan. Of this amount about 500 million yuan can be raised in Manchoukuo and the remaining two billion yuan will have to be raised in Japan. While there have been conflicting rumours as to the possibility of raising such an enormous sum, it was not believed impossible in view of the past Japanese investments in Manchoukuo and the recent financial condition in Japan. Japanese investments have amounted to almost 300 million yuan annually since 1933 and especially in 1935 they showed a sudden increase to 400 million yuan. Inasmuch as the Five-Year Industrial Plan aims at a general industrial development of the country, including the projects already decided upon, the necessary funds represent practically the total amount of investments to be made in Manchuria. Accordingly, for the execution of the plan only a small additional investment of 50-60 million yuan is needed above the average annual investment now being made normally in Manchoukuo. On the other hand, the successful completion of the Five-Year Industrial Plan, it is believed, will contribute greatly to the industrial development of both Manchoukuo and Japan, the promotion of trade between the two countries, as well as the improvement of the balance of their international payments.

Revision of Five-Year Plan It has been already pointed out that the sudden outbreak of the China Incident in July, 1937, was instrumental in indirectly retarding the progress of the Five-Year Industrial Plan during the first year of its operation. On the other hand, because of the China Incident, the outlook for the economic construction in Manchoukuo began to bear an added significance. In the first place, it became necessary to expand the productive activities in Manchoukuo from the point of view of Japan-Manchoukuo economic bloc to meet the new international situation in the Far East. In the second place, the new situation thus created demanded the em-

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phasis of expansion in the mining and industrial fields more urgently than in the other departments. The result was the revision of the Five-Year Industrial Plan which was effected during the closing months of 1937 and the beginning of 1938. The gist of the Revised Five-Year Industrial Plan, which remains unpublished, is reported to be as follows:

The first Plan called for the production of 2,400,000 tons of steel at the end of five years. This goal was raised to 4,500,000 tons and, at the end of four years, it is hoped that Manchoukuo will be able to produce 3,500,000 tons of pig iron and 1,500,000 tons of steel materials, enabling her to export 2,000,000 tons of pig iron to Japan.

The first Plan projected the production of 25,000,000 tons of coal at the end of five years. This was increased under the revised Plan to 38,000,000 tons, of which 6,000,000 tons will be exported to Japan.

The first Plan called for the generation of 1,200,000 kilowatts of electricity at the end of five years. Under the revised Plan, this amount is increased to 2,600,000 kilowatts, equally divided between hydraulic power and caloric heat.

Through the increased utilization of reeds and bean stalks as well as woods, the revised Plan proposes to produce 400,000 tons of pulp, an increase of 100,000 tons over the first goal.

The first Plan looked forward to the production of 200,000,000 yuan worth of gold in five years but this amount was increased to 300,000,000 yuan worth in four years under the revised Plan.

In looking forward to the increased production of liquid fuel, 1,100,000,000 yuan instead of the original 320,000,000 yuan are appropriated for the preparation of this work.

Beginning with the increased production of roughly 1,000,000 tons of salt, the revised Plan hopes to increase the production of such minerals as aluminum, magnesium, lead, zinc, and copper as much as possible, at least doubling the present capacity.

In the field of agriculture, the most effort will be directed toward the eventual increase in the production of soya beans, amounting to at least 5,000,000 tons at the end of five years. As for the immediate future, the revised Plan hopes to increase during the first year 4,500,000 tons each of soya beans and kaoliang, 3,500,000 tons of millets, 2,300,000 tons of maize, 1,550,000 tons of wheat, 400,000 tons of rice, 210,000 tons of sugar beets, and 180,000 tons of barley.

As a necessary requisite for industrial expansion, the Government, the South Manchuria Railway Company, and the Manchuria Telephone and Telegraph Company will cooperate in realizing the first Plan and a revised Plan will be drawn up after a further study of the field.

In proportion to the proposed enormous increase in the production covering all fields of industrial activities, the necessary funds for the execution of the Revised Five-Year Industrial Plan had been increased from an original estimated sum of 2,500 million yuan to a new estimated amount of 5 billion yuan. Of this new estimate by far the largest items are 1,100 million yuan for liquid fuel, 700 million yuan for steel, 500 million yuan for electricity, and 300 million yuan each for coal and pulp. Other large items include 140 million yuan for agriculture and live-stock raising, 640 million yuan for transportation and communications, and 220 million yuan for immigration. Of this huge sum, 1,700 million yuan are expected to be raised in Manchoukuo and 2 billion yuan in Japan, while the balance is expected to be raised in other countries. With the rapid rise in prices, the projected estimates of 5 billion yuan may also rise to 6 billion yuan and special efforts will be directed toward the increased production of gold, the augmentation of export trade, and the importation of foreign capital.

The Five-Year Industrial Plan thus revised was put into force in the spring of 1938 and, undismayed by a serious shortage of capital and materials as well as an insufficiency of technicians and labourers, Manchoukuo moved forward to face the second year of this gigantic construction programme.

Results of the Second Year The Five-Year Industrial Plan during its second year of operation in 1938, according to the report of the Industry Department, on the whole, progressed smoothly. It achieved more than its desired results in the field of steel production and electric generation, while in the other fields of mining and manufacturing preparations and equipments were completed practically according to schedule but production process was delayed. Except a 33 per cent decrease in the production of salt as compared with the result obtained during the first year, productions rose in all branches of the Plan.

In the production of pig iron, steel materials, and steel ingots, an increase was registered respectively of 17 per

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cent, 50 per cent, and 18 per cent as compared with the results obtained during the first year. This meant an attainment of the second-year goal to the extent of 99 per cent for pig iron, 112 per cent for steel materials, and 95 per cent for steel ingots. Moreover, a result beyond expectation had been obtained in the installation of furnaces and other equipments, mostly made in Manchoukuo. In the construction of hydro-electric power plants, all foundation works progressed according to, or even beyond, the schedule. In the production of coal, an increase of roughly 5 per cent was achieved over the first-year results, the Manchuria Coal Mining Company producing 300,000 tons and the S. M. R. collieries chalking up 800,000 tons. The chief difficulty felt was the shortage of labour and lumber supplies. The delay in the importation of equipments and materials have caused a considerable delay in the construction of coal-liquefaction plants. The production schedule of soda and ammonium sulphate progressed smoothly, but the production of pulp did not measure up to the second-year goal due chiefly to the delay experienced in the utilization of forest resources in the Hsingan Ranges. In the field of gold, zinc, lead, copper, aluminum, and magnesium industries, concentrated efforts were still being directed in completing preparations for increased or initial productions and, naturally, the actual production was 24 per cent short of the expected goal. The salt industry lagged and the production reached only about 40 per cent of the goal on account of the excess of rainfalls.

The agricultural plans received an unexpected setback on account of damages caused by cold and flood. Besides, the programme of establishing Agricultural Cooperative Associations did not progress according to schedule and their participation in the programme of increased production was sadly delayed. Yet, the programme of opening up new farms progressed steadily and the general results as shown by the third crop estimate for 1938 was fairly satisfactory. The productions of soya beans, maize, rice, and tobacco exceeded the expected results; of some 182,000 hectares of the area under cotton, only some 156,000 hectares matured due to the unreasonable cold weather but the actual yield was comparatively good; the wheat, kenafe, and lucerne crops did not measure up to the required goal due to abundance of rain, while the flax and wild silk productions were on the whole satisfactory.

In the live-stock industry, accurate figures are too early to be had but the actual increase was reported to be on the whole up to the estimated figure. Comparatively good results were secured in the improvement of the quality of pork, beef, skins, and wool, while the results obtained in the case of sheep, horses, and cattle were nothing outstanding. Thus, the question of improving the entire field of live-stock industry, will bear analysis in the third year of the plan.

In the construction of railways, highways, and harbours, the results exceeding expectations were registered. The development of communications in particular has shown phenomenal development.

The outbreak of the China Incident has unavoidably impeded the set programmes for Japanese immigration into Manchuria and the actual number entering the country fell short of 25,000 households, which is the combined quota for the first two years. This shortage was amply made up, however, by the arrival in Manchuria of the newly inaugurated youth volunteer settlers, of whom 17,429 entered various training camps in Manchoukuo during the year. These youths, after two-year training, will join various types of Japanese settlements. Moreover, the Japanese colonists had a net income of about ¥800 on the average from each cho of land (.991 hectares or 2.46 acres) after deducting living expenses, repaying borrowed capital, and meeting miscellaneous expenditures, the yield from each cho of land being between ¥1,800 and ¥2,000.

Of the estimated fund of 850 million yuan needed for the second year of the plan, about 80 per cent had been actually secured. This included the yen-funds of 460 million yen, comprising 150 million yen from Japanese bond fiotations, and 310 million yen raised by special corporations in Manchuria. With the exception of the Manchuria Coal Mining Company, the other special corporations on the whole succeeded in raising their needed funds without much difficulty. Due to the dismal international situation and the lag in exports the expected amount of foreign capital could not be obtained.

The following table shows the percentage of progress made in the manufacturing fields during the second year in comparison with 1936, the year before the Five-Year Industrial Plan was inaugurated, and the goal of the second-year in 1938.

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SECOND YEAR OF FIVE-YEAR INDUSTRIAL PLAN

Classifications	Percentage over 1936 Figures	Percentage over Second-year goal
Steel	117%	99%
Steel Materials	150	112
Electricity	126	100
Chemical Products	449	92
Semi-manufactured Goods	118	95
Coal	105	91
Liquid Fuel	100	100
Metals Other than Steel	150	76

It should be added here, however, that the first and second years constitute a period of preparation and the actual results of the Five-Year Industrial Plan will not be shown until the end of the fifth year after passing through another period of added preparations during the third and fourth years.

Manchuria Industrial Development Corporation

The birth of the Manchuria Industrial Development Corporation in December, 1937, may be regarded as one of the greatest events in the industrial history of Manchoukuo.

The seeds of this project were sown in the early autumn of 1936 when Mr. Aikawa, the President of the Nippon Industrial Company, made a tour of Manchoukuo at the invitation of the Hsinking authorities for the purpose of inspecting all phases of the region's industrial opportunities. Later, he was appointed an advisor to the Kwantung Army. The seeds thus sown gradually bore a fruit in the form of a huge enterprise to harness and to make available the far-flung rich resources of Manchoukuo under one integrated and coordinated programme. Once this procedure had been decided upon, the negotiations proceeded smoothly and rapidly and the first announcement by the Japanese and Manchoukuo Governments and by Mr. Aikawa of the proposed change in the status of the Nippon Industrial Company and the formation of the Manchuria Industrial Development Corporation was made on October 29, 1937. On the following November 20, a general meeting of shareholders of the Nippon Industrial Company unanimously resolved to remove the Company's Head Office to the S.M.R. Zone in Hsinking; on December 1, the nationality of the Nippon Industrial Company was changed from Japanese to Manchoukuoan as a result of Japan's relinquishment of her extraterritorial rights in Manchoukuo and the transfer of her administrative rights over the S.M.R. Zone; on December 20, the Manchuria Industrial Development Corporation Administration Act was promulgated by the Manchoukuo Government; on December 27, a general meeting of shareholders of the Nippon Industrial Company unanimously passed the necessary resolutions for changing the Company into the Manchuria Industrial Development Corporation, and all the officers of the old Company resigned from office and new officers were elected; and on March 1, 1938, the new Corporation began its multifarious career officially.

The Manchuria Industrial Development Corporation is a semi-governmental corporation established under the Manchuria Industrial Development Corporation Administration Act which was promulgated on December 20, 1937. It was organized with its headquarters at Hsinking as a result of a merger of interests between the Manchoukuo Government and the Nippon Industrial Company. Thus, of its authorized capital of 450,000,000 yuan of which 396,750,000 yuan are paid up, one-half is furnished by the Manchoukuo Government and one-half by private interests which in fact are the shareholders of the Nippon Industrial Company which operates 18 huge subsidiary enterprises and 130 attendant projects with a combined authorized capital of ¥900,000,000 in Japan. Its object is defined in the Administration Act as expediting the coordinated establishment of heavy industries and controlling those industries. For this purpose the Corporation is authorized "to invest in any or all of the following industries and to direct the management thereof in this country: (1) iron and steel industry; (2) light metal industry; (3) automobile manufacturing industry; (4) aeroplane manufacturing industry; and (5) coal industry." It is authorized also that the Corporation "may invest in the business of mining gold, zinc, lead, copper, and other metals or other enterprises" by obtaining governmental permission for businesses other than the mining.

In order to safeguard the interests of shareholders and to provide for investment of private capital in Manchoukuo, the details of financing have been carefully worked out and defined by the Administrations Act as follows: (1) that the dividend, when the amount is not in excess of 7½ per cent, shall

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be distributed in the proportion of one part to the Government and two parts to the private shareholders, and, when the amount exceeds 7½ per cent, such excess shall be distributed in equal proportion to both (Article 12); (2) that the Government shall guarantee the principal and consolidated net returns of 6 per cent per annum for ten years from the founding of the Corporation and, when the net profits at the end of each fiscal year are less than 6 per cent, it shall make up the deficit up to 6 per cent, it being understood that it shall be reimbursed in subsequent periods out of any earning in excess of 6 per cent (Article 13); (3) that, in case of the dissolving of the Corporation, the residual assets shall be divided between the Government and the private shareholders, in the ratio of one to two up to 150 per cent of the amount of the paid-in capital and equally in excess thereof (Article 14); and (4) that, when the capital is increased, special provisions shall be made for the distribution of dividends as well as the distribution of residual assets (Articles 12 and 14). In addition, according to a statement issued to the shareholders of the Nippon Industrial Company, the agreed terms include the following: that no Manchoukuo tax shall be imposed on profit made by the Corporation from investments outside of Manchoukuo and on dividends paid by the Corporation to shareholders residing outside of Manchoukuo; that the Manchoukuo Government shall take suitable steps in regard to the taxation of enterprises in Manchoukuo so that the function of integrated management of the Corporation will not be impaired when a change in the taxation system should cause an additional burden to be placed upon it in the future; that the Corporation shall not be restricted in fixing the dividend rate when a disposal of profits is made; and that the Japanese and Manchoukuo Governments shall take suitable measures with regard to the transfer of private shares so that the existing negotiability shall not be impaired. The Corporation is empowered to issue debentures up to twice the amount of the paid-in capital with the sanction of the Government. The Corporation is to have one President and two Vice-Presidents, to be appointed by the Manchoukuo Government, and five or more Directors and three or more Auditors, to be elected at general meetings of shareholders. Mr. Yoshisuke Aikawa, the former President of the Nippon Industrial Company, was appointed the first President of the new Corporation.

The work of the Corporation thus organized during the first year concerned on the whole in lining up its future activities. Under its general control have come among others, 9 companies in Manchuria and 13 companies in Japan as its principal subsidiaries. Those companies in Manchuria are the Showa Steel Works producing pig iron and steel products, the Penhsihu Coal and Iron Works producing pig iron and steel, the Manchuria Aluminum Manufacturing Company manufacturing aluminum, the Dowa Automobile Company producing passenger cars and trucks, the Manchuria Mining Company mining gold and other metals, the Manchuria Coal Mining Company engaged in coal mining, the Manchuria Gold Mining Company engaged in gold dredging, the Manchuria Lead Company producing lead and zinc, and the Manchuria Soya Bean Industry Company producing soya bean flour and oil. Of these, the first 4 are semispecial corporations, the next 3 are special corporations, and the last 2 are ordinary corporations. It has since organized the Manchuria Aircraft Manufacturing Company for the production of airplanes and the Tungpientao Development Company for the development of the Tungpientao region. The 13 companies in Japan were the subsidiaries of the Nippon Industrial Company before its merger.

General Industrial Expansion

The period under review has witnessed a continued expansion in all phases of industrial activities and new firms were established in increasing numbers. In this respect, Manchoukuo continues to be a veritable industrial boom land.

Between 1932 and 1935, the Manchoukuo Government has caused the establishment of 12 special and 6 semi-special corporations, the combined authorized capital of the former at the end of 1938 totalling 336,300,000 yuan and of the latter, 385,990,000 yuan. To these were added 17 special and 6 semi-special corporations during 1936-1938 as the following table shows:

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SPECIAL AND SEMI-SPECIAL CORPORATIONS, 1932-1938

(In 1,000 Yuan)

Years	Special Corporations Number	Authorized Capital	Paid-up Capital	Semi-Special Corporations Number	Authorized Capital	Paid-up Capital
1932-35	12	336,300	234,000	6	385,990	258,490
1936	6	104,000	73,350	2	18,000	12,000
1937	6	607,000	518,850	2	6,000	3,100
1938	5	110,000	37,500	2	33,000	13,200
Total	29	1,157,300	863,700	12	442,990	286,790

Of the special corporations established during 1936-1938, the most important were the Manchuria Industrial Development Corporation, the Industrial Bank of Manchou, the Manchuria Colonial Development Company, the Manchuria Aluminum Manufacturing Company, the Manchuria Mixed Fuel Company (authorized capital 50,000,000 yuan, paid-up capital 10,000,000 yuan), and the Manchuria Yalu River Hydro-Electric Power Company (authorized capital 50,000,000 yuan, paid-up capital 25,000,000 yuan) which is the Manchoukuo portion of the gigantic Yalu River hydro-electric power project.

The companies and firms of all kinds which were established after the founding of Manchoukuo were as follows according to the reports of the Central Bank of Manchou:

NEWLY ESTABLISHED COMPANIES, 1932-1937

(In 1,000 Yuan)

Classification of Companies	1932-1935 No.	Authorized Capital	Paid-up Capital	1936 No.	Authorized Capital	Paid-up Capital	1937 No.	Authorized Capital	Paid-up Capital
Banking	20	40,750	23,650	4	30,700	15,350	—	—	—
Exchange	3	1,500	375	1	500	125	—	—	—
Cooperative Finance	2	130	32	3	270	67	1	100	25
Brokerage	28	9,774	7,969	19	3,080	1,780	17	1,084	990
Commercial	412	34,009	20,453	273	26,007	18,206	349	18,199	13,752
Market	4	1,015	915	1	70	70	1	60	60
Textile, Dye	10	8,520	5,520	6	5,856	4,717	10	6,928	3,828
Chemical	13	7,223	6,473	18	49,115	23,690	16	61,761	16,361
Metal, Machinery	29	43,812	21,437	8	37,979	13,844	21	12,051	6,926
Lumber, Wood Works	19	2,207	1,082	15	3,915	2,485	3	3,139	1,639
Food Stuff	51	36,144	20,762	22	9,011	5,686	31	9,414	6,574
Misc. Industries	41	22,350	8,385	35	59,130	57,802	19	28,421	27,221
Ceramic	66	78,764	64,112	6	991	663	25	246,085	214,130
Electricity, Gas	15	93,220	92,417	2	600	300	8	16,533	10,158
Transportation, Express	46	8,127	7,127	20	1,737	1,052	14	8,520	7,032
Warehousing, Insurance, Press	6	100,485	59,285	1	3,000	1,500	4	5,395	1,420
Real Estate, Building	38	15,303	12,713	27	4,079	2,449	33	21,002	7,164
Colonial Development	20	6,506	4,302	17	36,264	20,077	13	54,805	34,655
Contract, Coolie Supply	66	5,456	4,995	28	4,590	4,540	27	3,535	3,010
Newspaper, Printing	17	1,662	1,162	11	2,756	2,531	13	2,768	953
Hotel, Amusement	19	1,256	1,080	15	1,119	969	12	487	437
Miscellaneous	31	976	845	9	615	615	11	257	257
Total	956	520,218	265,212	541	281,387	178,521	628	500,551	356,569

During the year 1938, according to the same source, 625 new firms with a total combined authorized capital of 134,500,752 yuan were established, while 82 firms increased their authorized capital by 23,049,425 yuan, 75 firms increased their paid-up capital by 150,428,500 yuan, 3 firms decreased their capital by 212,500 yuan, and 107 firms with a total combined capital of 20,896,200 yuan were

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dissolved, the total addition to the number of firms during the year being 518, and the total increase in authorized capital being 136,441,447 yuan. At the end of 1938, moreover, the total number of companies, according to the same source, jumped to 3,888, with a total combined authorized capital of 3,362,523,000 yuan and a total combined paid-up capital of 2,478,805,000 yuan. The details are as follows:

NUMBER OF COMPANIES, DECEMBER 31, 1938

(In 1,000 Yuan)

Classifications	No.	Authorized Capital	Paid-up Capital
Banking	53	87,466	45,903
Exchange	12	26,685	9,435
Cooperative Finance	13	2,310	1,102
Brokerage	165	79,728	34,889
Commercial	1,809	150,682	114,410
Market	10	1,285	1,134
Textile, Dye	52	87,898	43,945
Chemical	119	262,640	127,729
Metal, Machinery	115	259,094	212,695
Lumber, Wood Works	91	30,550	16,062
Foodstuffs	216	75,402	47,439
Misc. Industries	119	114,818	95,858
Ceramics	186	734,114	603,331
Electricity, Gas	28	190,739	144,103
Transportation, Express	164	902,581	761,824
Warehousing, Insurance, Press	21	64,220	41,313
Real Estate, Building	151	89,846	44,406
Colonial Development	119	733,722	82,627
Contract, Coolie Supply	212	37,358	29,210
Newspaper, Printing	61	13,794	9,373
Hotel, Amusement	51	11,142	7,858
Miscellaneous	121	6,449	4,150
Total	3,888	3,362,523	2,478,805

New Industrial Center of Mukden

Parallel with the construction of Hsinking as the political capital of the new State, the city of Mukden is witnessing a marvellous transportation of its western section into a new industrial centre. Just as in the case of Hsinking, what was before 1931 nothing but a rolling stretch of grassy fields and scattered farms has now become a veritable bee-hive of industrial plants, public buildings, and private residences. The Tiehsi, as this section of Mukden west of the railway is called, is destined to become the industrial capital of Manchoukuo.

Long before 1931, the South Manchuria Railway Company, with its usual foresight, planned to establish a new industrial centre in Mukden and repeatedly negotiated with the Chang regime for the purchase of a large tract of land to the west of the railway. All negotiations failed. Then came the Manchurian Incident and the eventual establishment of Manchoukuo. After the emergence of the new State, the eventual construction of an industrial empire was proclaimed by the publication on March 1, 1933, of the "General Outline of Economic Construction Programme of Manchoukuo." In this detailed document, the Government proposed, among other things, to establish industrial districts in Mukden, Antung, Harbin, and Kirin for the purpose of stimulating a "healthy development of industries" and securing the "benefits of concentrated establishments." It was in realization of this vision that the phenomenal development of industrial districts followed, especially at Harbin and more notably at Mukden.

With such a background, an auspicious start in the development of the Tiehsi section of Mukden was made in March, 1935, with the establishment of the Mukden Industrial Land Company. This Company was established with an authorized capital of 3,500,000 yuan, all paid up (increased to 5,500,000 yuan in July, 1935), jointly furnished by the Manchoukuo Government and the South Manchuria Railway Company, for the purpose of constructing and managing the industrial sites and accompanying facilities, including city streets and public utilities. Two years later, in 1937, in view of the impending abolition of Japan's extraterritorial rights in Manchoukuo, the South Manchuria Railway Company sold off its shares in the Mukden Industrial Land Company to the Manchoukuo Government and the management of the entire project was completely entrusted to the City of Mukden. The land involved in this gigantic industrial project now totals some 4,500,000 tsubo or 14,215,000 square metres, approximately 5 square miles.

Within a short span of slightly over three years since the inauguration of the project, the human efforts have transformed the Tiehsi area into a great industrial town. The marvellous speed with which the Tiehsi had been built up may be seen from the fact that, on January 31, 1939, there were already 107 factories in operation, 36 factories

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under construction, and 48 factories still untouched, representing a total capital of almost 300,000,000 yuan. The following table gives the distribution of various industries on the Tiehsi map as of January 31, 1939:

NUMBER OF FACTORIES IN TIEHSI, MUKDEN

Industries	In Operation	Under Construction	Being Projected	Total
Textile	5	2	3	10
Metal	30	7	9	46
Machinery, Tools	15	6	12	33
Chemical	10	12	12	34
Food-stuff	15	1	1	17
Ceramic	5	3	2	10
Lumber, Wood Works	8	0	3	11
Miscellaneous	19	5	6	30
Total	107	36	48	191

Although the Tiehsi is easily reached from the centre of Mukden, a new city is also growing around the rapidly multiplying factories. For the project includes, not only the building of an industrial district, but also the accommodation of all necessary facilities such as residences, stores, governmental buildings, schools, and even parks and other recreation centers. Thus, by the close of 1938, there were already some 13,000 households embracing 63,000 inhabitants and roughly 80,000 people in employment within the district. Within a few years, an all-inclusive industrial town with a population of at least quarter of a million and annual production exceeding 100 million yuan is expected to rise.

Japan's Investments in Manchoukuo Japan's investments in Manchoukuo were estimated to have amounted to about ¥2,928,716,000 at the end of August, 1936. The figure does not include those before the Manchurian Incident, such as those in limited and unlimited partnership companies, private companies and others. If the pre-Incident figure is added, the actual investments in Manchuria are believed to total at least ¥3,400,000,000 or so. The fact also must not be overlooked that, in addition, the Manchurian Incident expenditures paid by the Japanese Government for six years, 1931-36, amounted to ¥1,067,528,000. The combined total of Japan's "investments" thus makes the aggregate sum of ¥4,467,528,000.. This enormous amount of money is penetrating into that State and is forming sources of economic boom of Manchoukuo.

Of Japan's total investments, about ¥1,700,000,000 was invested before the outbreak of the Incident. According to the South Manchuria Railway Company, the pre-Incident investments were distributed as follows : 30 per cent in transportation ; 11.6 per cent in finance ; 6.7 per cent in commerce ; 16.2 per cent in agriculture, forestry and mining ; 9.2 per cent in industry ; and 26.3 per cent in other enterprises. It is further classified that out of the ¥1,700,000,000 investments, ¥837,000,000 took the form of investments in securities and the remaining ¥863,000,000 in limited and unlimited partnership companies and private companies.

Investments in securities before the Incident consisted of those in debentures and stocks and loans, which may be partially regarded as investments in securities. At the end of 1931, the total investments of Japan in securities relating to Manchuria amounted to ¥837,536,000, of which ¥710,906,000 was connected with the S.M.R.Co. The fact shows Japan's investments in Manchuria before the Incident were almost exclusively limited to the railway company. Details are:

To this huge total were added new investments amounting to some ¥788,-381,000 during 1932-35 or first four years of the new State, making the total investments up to 1935 around ¥2,405,347,000. During the period under review, according to the reports of the Manchurian Affairs Bureau, ¥262,995,000 were added in 1936, ¥341,272,000 in 1937, and ¥430,981,000 in 1938, or a total of ¥1,035,-248,000. The grand total of Japanese investments in Manchuria at the end of 1938 is thus estimated to be around ¥3,440,595,000.

The details of Japanese investments in Manchuria during 1936-1938, as announced by the Manchurian Affairs Bureau in Tokyo, are as follows:

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JAPANESE INVESTMENTS IN MANCHURIA, 1936-1938

(In 1,000 Yen)

Specifications	1936	1937	1938
S. M. S. Share Payments	36,000	56,000	20,000
S. M. R. Debenture Increase	154,775	21,000	115,000
S. M. R. Borrowings	75,550	84,000	89,000
S. M. R. Subsidiary Shares Sold	17,205	—	1,344
Net Increase in Debentures and Borrowings of Leading Companies in Manchuria	31,750	20,050	28,700
Paid-Up Capital of New Companies	36,046	34,144	91 613
Paid-Up Capital of Old Companies	23,394	50,719	42,285
Manchoukuo Loans	2,000	2,000	2,000
Manchoukuo National Bonds	4,000	6,000	8,000
Manchoukuo Borrowings for N. M. R.	15,400	38,360	38,360
Manchoukuo N. M. R. Bonds	60,000	—	50,000
Manchoukuo Investment Bonds	—	—	600
Manchoukuo Special Enterprises Bonds	—	—	100,000
Manchuria Industrial Bank Bonds	—	45,000	—
Total	262,995	341,272	430,981

Foreign Investments The foreign investments in Manchoukuo in 1933 amounted to ¥2,063,850,000 distributed among the various countries as follows, according to the statistics compiled by the South Manchuria Railway Company :

Country	Amount of Investments	%
Japan	¥1,510,755,000	73.201
Russia	465,051,000	22.531
Great Britain	39,590,000	1.918
United States	26,400,000	1.279
France	21,086,000	1.022
Sweden	850,000	0.041
Denmark	157,000	0.008
Total	2,063,880,000	100.000

According to the most reliable statistics, foreign investments in Manchoukuo before the Incident are roughly estimated at ¥2,400,000,000, of which those by Japan are approximately ¥1,700,000,000 ; those by the Soviet Union ¥590,000,000 ; those by Great Britain ¥40,000,000 ; those by the United States ¥30,000,000 ; and those by France ¥25,000,000.

Agriculture

General The vast plains of Manchuria consist for the most part of agricultural land, covered with fertile soil or humus, and agriculture has always been the main occupation of the people of Manchuria. The recent development of transport facilities has encouraged the coming of immigrants in large numbers from China, especially from Shantung province. Undeveloped land is being thus brought under cultivation, and every year sees some increase in the total amount of farming products. Unfortunately, these immigrants possess neither scientific knowledge nor capital, and, as they still follow primitive methods of cultivation, the productiveness of the land is not yet fully exploited. The wide plains that characterize the country invite the use of machinery for large-scale cultivation and if capital and technical skill were applied, their agricultural products could certainly be multiplied many times. One novel feature of the agriculture in Manchoukuo is that Korean farmers who migrated there are doing a large share of the work.

The plains along the lower Liao River, the upper and middle Sungari River, and the Hurka River are most fertile and constitute the main agricultural territory of Manchoukuo. Next come the lands in the centre or Lungkiang province and along the lower reaches of the Sungari. These districts have been developed with an astonishing rapidity by the Chinese immigrants from Shantung and Hopei.

Arable Land The area of arable land in Manchoukuo in 1935 follows :

AREA OF ARABLE LAND IN MANCHURIA

(Unit: hectare)

Provinces	Total Area	Arable Land
Kirin	11,276,777	4,618,860
Lungkiang	16,042,130	8,223,280
Heiho	2,858,260	873,180
Sankiang	9,685,380	4,090,750
Pinkiang	16,882,840	6,347,340
Chientao	4,629,220	1,853,780
Antung	8,160,250	425,000
Fentien	7,068,350	3,252,560
Chinchow	2,290,330	795,090
Jehol	13,606,060	1,217,930
Total	92,499,590	31,697,870

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In round figures, 70% of the total crops constitute items of private and domestic consumption while the remaining 30% represent the exportable commercial goods. Soya beans constitute the dominant produce intended for export, 80% of which is marketed abroad. At any rate, agriculture in Manchuria can distinctly be labelled as private and individualistic. In the following sections, such items as area of cultivated land, produce in amount, and the conditions of commercialization will be briefly treated.

Agricultural Products and the Area of Cultivated Land As it is commonly known, the primary crops of Manchuria are soya beans, kaoliang, millet, corn, and wheat. The total land area used for the raising of these products is 80%. The remaining crops are paddy rice, upland rice, beans, green peas, buck wheat, cane, barnyard grass, rye, and barley, which are raised throughout Manchuria, while cotton, tobacco, hemp, flax, perilla, gingelly, etc., are widely raised. Together with cabbage, hop, fruits and lucerne, the entire agricultural products of Manchuria number some forty or fifty species.

CULTIVATED AREAS AND PRODUCTION OF CEREALS

CULTIVATED AREAS

(In hectares)

	Soya Beans	Other Legumes	Kaoliang	Millet	Maize	Wheat	Paddy-field Rice	Upland Rice	Other Cereals
1929	3,989,920	347,350	2,965,150	2,131,780	876,220	1,297,150	88,280	111,890	1,043,520
1930	4,118,450	350,220	3,031,420	2,209,670	865,520	1,381,200	98,140	108,380	1,086,320
1931	4,200,590	313,490	2,980,490	2,232,320	987,710	1,586,160	81,800	118,500	1,232,190
1932	3,878,610	300,580	2,661,360	2,156,690	979,990	1,395,150	62,980	105,270	1,124,250
1933	4,000,670	323,350	2,658,430	2,380,850	1,101,950	1,373,950	79,360	104,760	1,218,020
1934	3,050,000	429,000	2,969,000	2,516,000	1,076,000	748,000	113,000	107,000	1,033,000
1935	3,249,000	329,000	2,764,000	2,394,000	1,235,000	979,000	120,000	114,000	955,000
1936	3,302,000	347,000	2,855,000	2,457,000	1,254,000	1,216,000	175,220	114,229	977,000
1937	3,590,000	375,000	3,046,000	2,613,000	1,418,000	1,216,000	210,909	104,544	1,036,000
1938	3,614,300	355,906	3,095,750	2,723,755	1,669,267	1,085,261	244,079	95,558	1,012,816

PRODUCTION

(In metric tons)

	Soya Beans	Other Legumes	Kaoliang	Millet	Maize	Wheat	Raddy-field Rice	Upland Rice	Other Cereals
1929	4,849,460	377,490	4,681,560	3,351,960	1,613,290	1,302,230	136,820	156,270	1,593,690
1930	5,297,820	369,270	4,779,690	3,276,480	1,585,680	1,356,660	154,350	157,840	1,722,760
1931	5,227,010	312,820	4,497,490	2,960,020	1,701,110	1,580,310	158,640	162,800	1,852,670
1932	4,267,890	277,670	3,729,360	2,615,370	1,541,850	1,133,090	109,790	137,310	1,550,390
1933	5,205,170	325,320	4,229,440	3,273,020	1,868,290	1,429,810	164,880	148,160	1,832,950
1934	3,841,000	265,000	3,784,000	2,280,000	1,516,000	645,000	190,000	129,000	1,513,000
1935	3,889,000	292,000	3,970,000	3,030,000	1,828,000	947,000	442,215	155,433	1,092,000
1936	4,175,000	329,000	3,980,000	3,037,000	2,099,000	882,000	523,709	134,433	1,021,000
1937	4,173,078	316,817	4,098,208	3,184,989	2,126,825	1,079,183	523,709	134,433	1,039 636
1938	4,185,774	305,053	4,152,406	3,049,291	2,440,535	854,326	577,765	118,242	1,002,.. 18

Immigration of Japanese and Korean Farmers As a result of the Manchurian Incident the various obstacles brought to bear upon the Japanese, were effectively eradicated in 1931. The Japanese settlers were now entitled to hold land and to carry on commerce, and contrary to the previous situation, received much encouragement from the Manchoukuo Government, under whose efficient administration, peace, order and safety replaced the chaotic conditions prevalent in the past years. Consequently, the Overseas Ministry of the Japanese Government drew up definite plans in 1932 to promote the immigration of Japanese farmers into Manchuria seeking to send as many individuals or families that desired or were capable of cultivating farm lands.

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Great care was taken by the above authorities to pursue a different immigration policy than that followed heretofore in sending contract labourers or employees destined for settlement in the Kwantung Leased Territory or the South Manchuria Railway Zone.

Thus, the Overseas Ministry decided to carry out its initial experimental immigration programme which called for the sending of approximately 2,800 families in five stages during the years beginning with 1932 and ending in 1936. The results of this programme were carefully studies from all angles.

Simultaneous with the above programme, others were carried out, some of them being private affairs. The main ones included the immigrants of the Tenrikyo Sect, Tenshoen, and the railway guard settlements sponsored by the South Manchuria Railway's General Directorate of Railways.

The experimental immigration projects were generally successful. On the one hand, the Government of Manchoukuo passed a law to protect and aid Japanese agricultural immigrants coming into the country. In 1935, the Manchuria Immigration Association was formed, and carried on advertisements, recruiting of prospective immigrants, and looked after preliminary training of the recruits. Then in the earlier part of 1936, the Manchuria Colonization Joint-stock Company capitalized at ¥15,000,000, was formally inaugurated, and authorized to handle immigration affairs in behalf of settlers such as negotiation for land leases, jurisdiction and distribution of land, to create establishments and institutions for immigrants, and to handle financial matters. Finally, in July of the same year, the Overseas Ministry in Tokyo adopted concrete plans to send a total of 1,000,000 families (5,000,000 persons) to Manchuria over a period of twenty years, as a result of careful deliberation in the Japanese Cabinet supported mainly by the success of the Fifth Experimental Immigration. Some 50,000 Japanese have already migrated to Manchoukuo.

In conformity with the mass immigration plan, the Manchuria-Korea Colonization Company, which took over the Korean immigrant farmers' encouragement work in the new State, conducted formerly by the Toa Kangyo Company, upon its establishment towards the end of 1936, has purchased suitable lands in various parts of the country for the settlement of Korean farmers, and is making every effort to stabilize their livelihood. For this purpose, it is establishing various facilities necessary for their settlement, is advancing loans to them to engage in independent farming, and is planning to transfer the ownership of farms to the settlers on an annual instalment payment plan.

The Company's business record for the past year is as follows:

	No. of households	No. of persons
Settlement of new immigrants	2,800	14,200
Settlement of those who had already migrated	330	1,650
Total	3,130	15,850

	Increase over 1937 (In chobu)
Paddy fields under cultivation	16,150	3,390
Lands cultivated with other crops	30,050	15,750
Loans advanced	M¥11,046,082	

The Manchuria-Korea Colonization Company plans to settle 10,000 Korean households in Manchoukuo in 1939.

Live Stock Raising of domestic animals is indispensable to Manchoukuo's agricultural system, as they serve well for the daily life of the farmer as well as for transport purpose. They are widely spread and almost every family raises some kind of them. Farm wastes are utilized for feeding them, while their excrements are used as fertilizer, and ploughing, stamping, harrowing, manuring, transporting and threshing, etc. are carried out with their help. The number and principal kinds of live stock were as follows in September, 1937:

Cattle	1,683,259
Sheep	1,965,994
Goats	1,243,105
Pigs	5,335,723
Camels	12,738

Wools and Hides Sheep are raised for the purpose of getting meat, but not for wool. Wool obtained from them is very coarse. It is not good for woollen cloth making, and is therefore used only as carpet wool. The amount of wool produced is estimated at 9,000,000 lbs. a year.

As meat is of universal demand in Manchoukuo, the number of live stock slaughtered every year is very large. Owing to the lack of accurate statistics,

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the number actually slaughtered is not known, but the production of hides is estimated at 450,000 from cattle, 2,000,000 from sheep, and 380,000 from mules and donkeys. But there is no tannery which is equipped with modern machinery to put a good finish to the hides, though a large number of hides is exported every year.

Forestry

General The total forest area in Manchoukuo is estimated at 358,684 sq. km. which is equal to about 36 per cent of the entire area of the country. Some 350 species of timber are found in the forest regions located in the Yalu Valley, Tumen Valley, Mutan Valley, Lalin Valley, Sanhsing District, Great Hsingan Range and Small Hsingan Range. The volume of standing timber is estimated at 15,000,000,000 koku. Investigation conducted by the Manchoukuo Government, however, shows that the deforestation seems to have been done in a reckless manner in the past and the real volume of the standing timber may perhaps be about 9,000,000,000 koku.

STANDING TIMBER IN MANCHOUKUO

Districts	Estimated Standing Timber in 1,000 koku	Principal Species of Timber
Right bank of the Yalu and the Hunho valley	276,635	Korean pine, Korean fir, Korean larch, silver-fir, maple, birch, oak, ash, doronoki.
Sungari valley	874,036	
Tumen valley	420,401	Korean pine, fir, spruce, larch, lime,
Hurka valley	420,951	oak, elm, ash, birch.
Lalin valley	300,490	
North Manchuria Railway eastern line district	898,296	Korean pine, fir, spruce, maple, birch, doronoki, Siberian cork-tree, Manchurian walnut.
Sansing district	2,615,302	Korean pine, fir, spruce, Siberian cork-tree, ash, birch, oak, lime.
Great Khingan range	5,600,000	Larch, Japanese birch, Siberian red
Little Khingan „	3,500,000	pine, willow, alder.
Total	14,906,111	

For the purpose of preserving forests and securing their rational management, the authorities of the new régime have stopped granting fresh forest concessions and have commenced to classify forests into three categories, viz., State, public, and private, under a three-year programme. At the outset the authorities took over the various forests of the Central Bank in Kirin province as State forests, for which purpose a sum of M¥2,000,000 was appropriated in the 1933 supplementary budget. The forestry offices established in 1933 at Chiacho, Tunhua, Yenki, Wuchang and Peianchen and the branch office at Hailar, have been entrusted with the rational management of State forests and the improvment of forestry. Some 15 other forestry offices were also established in various other districts during 1934-35.

Under the slogans, "Arouse the Love for Forests," "Build Up the Health of the Citizens," "Beautify the Suburbs," and "Plant Forests for Protection Against Winds," Hsinking observed Arbor Week from April 16 to 22, 1939, by planting 400,000 saplings in various parts of the capital and along the Kirin Highway for a distance of 10 kilometres. One hundred thousand officials, citizens and students were mobilized for this task. On the last day, an impressive ceremony marking the completion of Arbor Week was held at Tatung Park, where saplings were distributed to all attending the function. Other cities throughout Manchuria also observed Arbor Week by planting thousands of young trees.

This year is the last year of the first stage of the 30-year reforestation and afforestation programme, upon the completion of which 845,000 hectares will be afforested, 812,000 hectares will be reforested, 3,065,000 hectares of nurseries will be established, and 7,960,000 hectares of forests will be preserved. Divided into four periods, the programme is as follows:

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Unit: 1,000 hectares

	1-5	6-11	11-20	21-20	Total
Afforestation	95	150	300	300	844
Reforestation	65	150	300	295	812
Nurseries	155	510	1,200	1,200	3,065
Preservation	215	925	3,800	3,020	7,960

In 1939, 5,000 hectares will be planted with trees.

The forestation programme will entail an expenditure of M¥7,901,803 during the next five years, including this year.

Year	Yuan
1939	1,208,874
1940	1,346,787
1941	1,608,766
1942	1,819,426
1943	1,917,950
Total	7,901,803

Species of Timber In Manchuria there are as many as 350 species of timber, but the more common species are the following:

Evergreen: Korean pine, silver fir, Korean fir, spruce, larch.

Deciduous: Korean oaks, birch, Amur lime tree, ash, elm, willow.

The proportion of evergreen to deciduous is 4 to 6, and in the evergreen the Korean pine constitutes more than half of the total.

Lumber Industry Lumber industry is carried on in the districts of Antung, Kirin and Harbin, but that in Antung districts is best known. Production of lumber in Manchoukuo in 1937 was 7,525,617 koku.

The Industry in Eastern Manchuria. There has been a boom recently in the timber industry due to bristling building activities in the principal cities and the construction of additional railways throughout the country. At the present there are thirteen large lumber-mills in this region working at full capacity. If timber sawn by coolies in a primitive method is taken into consideration, the annual amount of timber sawn in this region may even reach 1,500,000 koku (1 koku—10 cu. feet). The thirteen large lumber-mills capitalized at M¥12,600,000 produced 2,700,000 koku: 1,300,000 koku of sleepers and 1,400,000 koku of others in 1936.

Pulp Industry With abundant timber resources, Eastern Manchuria is also expected to occupy an important position in the pulp industry. Four companies, the East Manchuria Rayon Co. (Kaishantun), Manchuria Pulp Co. (Hualin), Oriental Pulp Co. (Shihhsien), Japan-Manchuria Pulp Co. (Tunhua), capitalized at M¥7,500,000, are planning to start operation in 1938. The demand for timber by these companies will amount to no less than 800,000 koku. The production of pulp in Manchoukuo in recent years was as follows:

	In metric tons
1933	17,361
1934	13,737
1935	13,718
1936	13,171
1937	15,011
1938 (estimate)	44,000

Fisheries

General In spite of the largeness of area, the coast line of Manchoukuo is comparatively short, its total length being only 855 kilometres. Moreover, the coast is made up of shallow bays, which readily get frozen in winter and are not therefore favourable for fisheries. But the industry is growing and, in 1937, the amount of catches reached 16,390,000 kan valued at ¥7,462,000.

Fresh Water Fishery Fresh water fishes are abundantly found in the Sungari, the Nonni, the Mutankiang, the Ussuri, the Amur and the Liao Rivers as well as Lake Hujunti, Peierhih, etc. The amount of catches in 1932 follows:

CATCHES OF FRESH WATER FISHES

River or lake	Catches in kg.
Hulanpeierh	4,500,000
Sungari River	4,200,000
Mutanchiang	500,000
2nd Sungari River	1,500,000
Nunchiang	6,000,000
Ussuri River	2,000,000
Liao River	1,000,000
Yalu River	2,000,000
Heilungkiang River	2,000,000
Total	23,700,000

Salt Industry The coast line of Manchoukuo stretches only for 855 km. which is but one-eleventh of the entire border line of the country. However, the coast on the Yellow Sea and the Po-hai has very little rainfall and as the evaporation is very rapid and the air dry, the district is well adapted for salt manufacturing by evaporation. The total area of salt fields as at the end of 1934 was 15,400 chobu of which 8,300 chobu belong to Manchoukuo and 7,100 chobu to Kwantung Leased Territory. The production in 1934, though much reduced on account of the weather, totalled 700,000,000 kin of which the quantity produced by Manchoukuo amounted to 280,000,000 kin and that by Kwan-

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tung Leased Territory to 420,000,000 kin. The salt field extension plan of Kwantung Leased Territory made a great progress. Production of salt in recent years was as follows:

Year	Area in hectare	Amount in metric ton
1936	22,594	891,178
1937	22,964	834,711
1938	23,026	688,821

Mining Industry

The first sign of interest in mining manifested by the Manchoukuo Government took the form of the Mining Law and regulations connected therewith, promulgated on August 1, 1935, which were put into force on September 1, the same year. The former mining regulations classified the legal minerals into three groups and contained different stipulations concerning the procedure for filing applications for mining permits for each class of minerals. They also specified different categories of taxation. Under the new Law, however, all these distinctions were abolished and a common procedure for the acquisition of mining privileges established, while forty different minerals, considered important from the standpoint of Manchoukuo's mining and industrial policy, have been designated as legal minerals.

The forty legalized minerals are gold ore, silver ore, platinum ore, copper ore, lead ore, zinc ore, tin ore, iron ore, antimony ore, aluminium ore, nickel ore, cobalt ore, iron sulphate ore, chromite ore, mercury ore, arsenic ore, phosphorous ore, sulphur, graphite, coal, petroleum (including combustible natural gas closely related to oil-bearing strata), asphalt, oil shale, limestone, dolomite, magnesite, fluorspar, felspar, fire clay, barite, saltpetre, gypsum, silica, talc, asbestos and mica.

Special mining corporations are: the Manchuria Gold Mining Company which was established in May, 1934, following the discovery of prospective gold fields in North Manchuria, capitalized at 12,000,000 yuan (one fourth paid-up), of which 5,000,0000 yuan each is invested by the Manchoukuo Government and the South Manchuria Railway Company, and 2,000,000 yuan by the Oriental Development Company, the corporation, with its head office in Hsinking, has a monopoly of gold mining in the former provinces of Kirin and Heilungkiang; the Manchuria Coal Mining Company was incorporated in May, 1934, with a capitalization of 16,000,000 yuan, subscribed jointly by the Manchoukuo Government (8,000,000 yuan in kind) and the South Manchuria Railway Company (5,000,000 yuan in kind and 3,000,000 yuan in cash). Necessitated by the expansion of its enterprise resulting from the enforcement of its five-year plan of increased production, aiming at 10,000,000 tons annual output, the capitalization was raised to 80,000,000 yuan in April, 1937, the 64,000,000 yuan increase being borne equally by the Government and the S. M. R. Its head office is located in Hsinking. The Manchuria Petroleum Company was established in February, 1934, as a Manchoukuo juridical person, for the purpose of exploiting the oil resources of the country and of regulating the domestic demand and supply of petroleum, its initial capital of 5,000,000 yuan, of which 2,000,000 yuan was invested by the South Manchuria Railway Company, 1,000,000 yuan by the Manchoukuo Government, and 500,000 yuan each by the Nippon Oil, Ogura Oil and the Mitsui and Mitsubishi interests, was recently raised to 10,000,000 yuan. Of the 5,000,000 yuan increase, 2,500,000 yuan was furnished by the Manchoukuo Government and the remaining 2,500,000 yuan equally by the Central Bank of Manchou, the Nippon Oil, Mitsui, Mitsubishi and S. M. R. companies. Abiding by the Manchoukuo Oil Monopoly Law, enforced in April, 1935, and conforming to the plan for placing petroleum products in Manchoukuo on a self-supporting and self-sufficing basis, the Company is engaged in the buying, selling and refining of oil, as well as the investigation and prospecting of oil resources in the country. It has a large plant at Kanseishi, across the bay from Dairen, where crude oil imported from foreign countries is refined and sold to the Manchoukuo Government, which has a monopoly of the sale of gasoline, kerosene, gas-oil, heavy oil, benzol, and fuel oil substitutes; and the Manchuria Mining Development Company was established by Imperial Ordinance No. 91, promulgated in August, 1935, which stipulated that the company will have exclusive right to mine the following twenty-three minerals: platinum ore, lead ore, zinc ore, tin ore, iron ore, antimony ore, aluminium ore, nickel ore, iron sulphate ore, manganese ore, scheelite ore, molybdenum ore, mercury ore, phosphorous ore, coal, petroleum, oil shale, magnesite, fluorspar, fire clay, saltpetre, talc and asbestos. Its total capitalization is 5,000,000 yuan, subscribed equally by the Manchoukuo Government (1,000,000 yuan in kind and 1,500,000

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yuan in cash) and the South Manchuria Railway Company (200,000 yuan in kind and 2,300,000 yuan in cash).

Gold Gold has been mined in Manchuria, especially in North Manchuria, from ancient times as there are historical facts showing that gold miners in the Moho district at one time established a republic of their own in opposition to the Chinese Government which held sway over the region. Records of that time show that as much as 500 poods of the precious metal (present value 19,000,000 yuan) were mined in the Moho district alone in three years.

The Moho district was later reverted to Chinese control through the dexterous policy of Li Hung-chang, Senior Grand Secretary of State, and the exploitation of its gold resources was conducted as a government enterprise, but no appreciable progress was witnessed owing to inefficient supervision and management.

In contrast to the slow progress of the gold mining industry in Manchuria prior to the advent of the new State, due to the employment of primitive mining methods by private interests, marked development is expected in the future, considering the rapid pace at which the industry has advanced within the short span of five years since the inception of Manchoukuo.

Iron The greater part of the iron deposits in Manchuria is found in South Manchuria. The ores are generally hematite and contain from 34 to 70 per cent of iron. The bulk of the deposits analyse between 35 to 40 per cent.

By the terms of the Sino-Japanese Treaty of May, 1915, the Japanese were allowed to take up mining activities in South Manchuria, and the Anshan Iron Ore Development Company was incorporated in March, 1916, under Japanese-Manchurian joint investment, for the purpose of mining the Anshan deposits and supplying them to the Anshan Iron Works, which was simultaneously established by the S. M. R. Company.

For several years the Anshan Iron Works experienced much difficulty owing to the high cost of production, due to the low content of iron in the Anshan deposits. To remedy the situation, a special concentration process for utilizing profitably the lean Anshan ores, invented after a series of painstaking research, was employed from 1926 with satisfactory results, but difficulties in management and finance were still unavoidable.

The outlook, however, became optimistic with the boom created in the heavy industries following the Manchurian Incident, and in 1933 the Showa Steel Works was established as an independent corporation with a ¥100,000,000 capital to take over the entire enterprise of the Anshan Iron Works.

Following its establishment, the Showa Steel Works purchased the rich iron mine at Kungchangling and built a railway line to transport ores from that mine to Anshan. The iron deposits at Kungchangling are estimated at about 380,000,000 tons.

In November, 1935, the Sumitomo corporation of Japan completed at Anshan, a well-equipped factory for producing iron pipes and fittings, with an annual output of 25,000 tons. The products are partly marketed in Manchuria and partly exported.

The iron works at Penhsihu are built on a smaller scale. Records show that the Penhsihu iron mine was worked by the Manchurians in a primitive way as early as 1833. Just before the outbreak of the Russo-Japanese War, the Russians had plans on foot for its exploitation, which were, however, frustratd by later events.

In 1914, the Penhsihu Colliery and Iron Works was established as a joint Japanese-Chinese enterprise, but owing to inefficient and complicated management, the company encountered much difficulty, especially after the World War. Following the Manchurian Incident, an extensive reorganization was effected and with the rapid progress of heavy industries during the past few years, the enterprise has been attaining noticeable improvement.

The leading market for Manchurian pig iron is Japan, which imports nearly 75 per cent of the total exported from the country.

Coal Coal is the most important mineral of Manchuria. According to an estimate made by the S. M. R. Geological Institute at the end of 1929, the total deposits in the country amounted to 4,800,000,000 tons. With the restoration of peace and order since the birth of the new State, an extensive survey has been made, and in consequence, a number of new mines have been discovered and opened so that to-day, the deposits are estimated at 10,000,000,000 tons at least. Many rich coal fields are expected to be found as further surveys are made in future, raising the aggregate deposits still higher.

Magnesite Manchuria is endowed with an abundant supply of magnesite, the total deposits being estimated at

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several billion tons. In the districts around Tashihchiao, huge deposits of excellent magnesite, amounting to one billion tons, are found.

Magnesite mining in Manchuria is of a comparatively recent origin. It dates back to 1913 when native inhabitants brought an incombustible mineral resembling limestone to the South Manchuria Railway Company for chemical analysis. The mineral was found to be none other than magnesite, and the S. M. R., recognizing the need of magnesite as raw material for the future of Japan's light metallic industry, made every effort to acquire magnesite mining districts. Between 1915 and 1921, it managed to acquire thirteen such districts. Since 1921, it has purchased several other districts.

Oil Shale Oil shale covers the main coal seams of the Fushun coal fields to a thickness ranging from 70 to 120 metres. The deposits there are estimated at 5,400,000,000 tons, of which 200,000,000 tons will be dug out in the routine process of operating the open-cut coal mines, and thus this raw material is virtually obtained without involving extra cost. The oil content of Fushun shale varies from one to 14 per cent, averaging round six per cent.

Aluminium Shale In Manchuria, fire clay is found in layers between the strata of coal which belongs to the Permian carboniferous series. Fire clay having a high content of aluminium is used as raw material for the manufacture of aluminium and was discovered by Mr. Murakami, former director of the S. M. R. Geological Institute. He named it aluminium shale.

To commercialize the manufacture of aluminium from aluminium shale, the Japan-Manchoukuo Light Metal Manufacturing Company has been incorporated with a 25,000,000 yuan capital. Its plant, now under construction at Fushun, is expected to commence operations in the near future.

The Yentai fire clay deposits are exploited by the Showa Steel Works, but the production there does not amount to much.

Petroleum Since Japan is sorely in need of mineral oil resources, she conducted investigations in Manchuria following the Russo-Japanese War, but it was generally concluded by geologists that there was no oil in the country.

Before the Manchurian Incident, the South Manchuria Railway Company, hearing that oil was found to some extent in the district near Chalainoerh and another locality on the former North Manchuria Railway, took every pain to locate the reported oil fields, but came to the conclusion that the Chalainoerh district alone was worth further surveying.

After the Manchurian Incident the diamond drilling system was employed in the Chalainoerh district, with no appreciable results. Since the establishment of the Manchuria Petroleum Company, the oil boring method has been used, but so far no oil has been struck.

Steatite Steatite is found in large quantities near Taling, Tashihchiao and Haicheng. Its output is steadily mounting, due to increasing demand in Japan resulting from the rapid expansion of the paper manufacturing and spinning industries there. The Taling Steatite Company was established by the Northeastern Mining Bureau prior to the Manchurian Incident, and it soon came to take a controlling hand over the steatite mining industry.

Following the birth of Manchoukuo, the Minister of Industry, with the view to unifying the steatite industry in the country, caused the establishment of the Manchuria Steatite Company, with which was merged all the small mining companies, and entrusted this new concern with the exploitation of the rich Taling steatite deposits. Since then the industry has made marked progress.

Copper Well known copper mines in Manchuria are located at Malukow, in Chientao Province, and at Panling, on the Antung-Mukden line, but the operation of these is still discontinued at the present, due to the low price of copper. The reopening of these mines is highly desirable in view of the projected establishment of a copper refinery in Mukden and Japan's large importation of this mineral from abroad.

Lead In contrast to the scarcity of lead in Japan, Manchuria has large deposits of this mineral. The largest mine in operation at present is Yangchiachangtzu, near Chinchou, which is owned jointly by the S. M. R. and other Japanese interests.

Limestone Another abundant Manchurian mineral is limestone. The largest deposits are located at Choushuitzu, Huolienchai and Penhsihu. The Choushuitzu limestone is used extensively in cement and glass making at the factories located nearby. The output from Penhsihu nd Huolienchai is utilized at the iron works of Penhsihu and Anshan. The combined limestone output annually ranged from about 450,000 to 700,000 tons in recent years. Manchurian limestone is rarely found in pure form, but its total deposits are very

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great.

Sulphuric Iron Sulphuric iron ore is found in many parts of the country, but so far no large mines have been discovered. At Linchiatai, near Tungyuanpu on the Mukden-Antung line, and at Yangmukou, there are sulphuric iron mines which are still being worked. The yield of these mines is supplied to the Sulphuric Acid Plant of the Fushun Colliery.

At the Penhsihu, Niuhsintai and Yentai coal fields, sulphuric iron ore is found in the coal seams, and is mined together with the coal.

Manganese Manganese is found at Heisunglin and at Hsiaohuangchi, where the deposits are of good quality but small, and are now being mined.

MINERAL OUTPUTS

(Unit: Metric Ton)

Products	1934	1935	1936
Iron Ore	1,133,371	1,477,940	1,795,287
Pig Iron	475,826	607,949	647,402
Sulphuric Iron	4,250	5,115	5,798
Manganese Ore	703	599	280
Gold	(unpublished)		
Coal	10,618,961	11,186,632	12,082,468
Coke	521,253	666,844	711,712
Oil Shale	2,105,760	3,227,946	3,648,278
Crude Oil	58,238	120,299	123,320
Magnesite	100,329	225,654	191,568
Fire Clay	79,457	138,184	147,494
Soapstone (Talc)	49,894	69,818	80,326
Zechstein (Dolomite)	166,107	170,200	179,493
Limestone	419,033	650,602	1,001,726
Asbestos	119	70	69
Silicas	—	—	815
Felspar	—	—	1,403

Manufacturing Industries

General In spite of the abundant supplies of various raw materials and cheap labour, the industry in Manchoukuo is not yet in an advanced stage. This was particularly the case before the advent of Japanese into the country, owing to the undeveloped state of transport and the backward condition of most regions. At present industries have developd in the Kwantung Leased Territory and the South Manchuria Railway Zone. Aside from it the industry of modern type sprang up around Harbin. As a whole the industry in Manchoukuo is based on raw materials produced in the country which use them as material for products intended for exports as well as for the domestic consumption. Spinning industry is at present the only industry which uses raw materials imported from abroad. But except those in Kwantung Leased Territory most of the cotton spinning mills are of a class which are barely able to fulfil domestic demands.

Mills which employ more than 5 operatives in Manchoukuo number about 4,000 the products of which amount to more than ¥300,000,000 a year. Industries which yearly produce more than ¥10,000,000 are as follows :

Articles Produced	Amount Produced in yen
Bean cakes	72,000,000
Bean oil	32,000,000
Tobacco	29,000,000
Cotton yarns & fabrics	23,000,000
Wheat flour	23,000,000
Rolling stock	20,000,000
Cereals	19,000,000
Intoxicants	13,000,000
Pig iron	11,000,000

Oil Industry Making of soy bean oil and bean cake by pressing the soy beans early developed in Manchoukuo. With almost limitless supplies of soy beans, the industry advanced from mere handicraft work into the modern advanced industry as soon as the real worth of bean oil and bean cake was recognized. The bean oil and bean cake produced in this way constitute the most important items for export. The prosperity of Manchoukuo largely depends on this industry. In 1936 the total output of soy bean oil amounted to 65,940 metric tons and that of bean cake 654,500 metric tons.

Textile Industry Tusser silk is another export article next only to bean oil in importance. With the increased demand for pongees in Europe and America, the Japanese silk weavers in Fukui, Gifu and Kyoto prefectures began weaving them and the demand for this silk comes from these prefectures in Japan. The reeling is carried on by the Chinese farmers as a side line, and necessarily on the household basis. The production is largest in Antung. In 1932 it was M¥9,775,000, in 1933 M¥9,555,000 and in 1934 M¥7,408,000. About 70 per cent of the total export goes to Japan.

Of the total population of 30,000,000 in Manchoukuo, about 90 per cent wear cotton clothes. Therefore, from ancient times, there existed in Manchoukuo small, primitive plants for cotton weaving, but no large modern factories rose before the Great War. The establishment of the Cotton Spinning and Weaving Plant by Chinese at Mukden was followed by the establishment of

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three companies by Japanese, viz.: the Manchurian Cotton Spinning Company, the Chinchou Factory of the Naigai Spinning Company, and the Manchuria Fufang Company. The total number of mills in 1932 was 83, the number of labourers 9,621, and the total production ¥17,401,310. The production of course cannot keep pace with the demand, and cotton cloth constitutes one of the principal imports for Manchoukuo, the amount reaching from ¥40,000,000 to ¥74,000,000.

Production of cotton yarns in 1937 amounted to 24,453,700 kg. and that of cotton textiles to 2,278,700 tan.

Flour Milling Flour milling industry is one of the three main industries of Manchoukuo. It is carried on either by the old-fashioned native mills or the modern mills run by machinery. Harbin is the centre of flour milling and has 40 mills, there being only 8 other mills in the southern part of Manchoukuo. The consumption in 1930 was only about 24,000,000 bags a year, which included both domestic and imported products. This increased in 1934 to 23,000,000 bags, exclusive of domestic product. If, therefore, the domestic product amounted in the year to 15,000,000 bags, the amount of consumption totalled 38,000,000 bags. Even this per capita consumption in Manchoukuo was a little over one bag, so that there is still a vast room left for further consumption. Import from Japan in 1934 amounted to 17,000,000 bags and about 6,000,000 bags were imported from Australia and America. The amount of its import is only second to that of cotton cloth in value.

Production of wheat flour in 1936 amounted to 337,447,700 kg. and in 1937 to 312,396,700 kg.

Foreign Trade

In parallel with the expansion of productive power brought about by world-wide rearmament, the trade policy of the Powers is aimed at closer economic relationship within their economic sphere of influence on the one hand, and, on the other, efforts for the development of international trade are being made not in accordance with free trade policy but within the sphere of controlled economy. Manchoukuo's foreign trade of 1937, too, moved in the direction of a closer Japan-Manchoukuo economic bloc on the basis of the Five-Year Industrial Development Plan. This tendency became stronger with the outbreak of the China Incident, and, with the strengthening of Manchoukuo's international position, her trade policy for the regulation and extension of foreign trade developed along the line of controlled trade. This policy of controlled trade took concrete forms upon revision of the Manchoukuo-Germany Trade Agreement in May, upon the establishment of the Otto Wolf Credit in September, and upon the revision and enforcement of Exchange Control Law in October.

With the expansion of the Five-Year Industrial Development Plan the Manchoukuo-Germany Trade Agreement which was extended for another three years and the Two Million Pound Otto Wolf Credit, gained in importance with the expansion of the Five-Year Plan. The revision of the Exchange Control Law and the Trade Control Law were aimed at the regulation of international balance of payment on the basis of Japan-Manchoukuo economic bloc in concert with the trade control policy of Japan, the former through the regulation of 'money' and the latter through the control of 'goods.' The economic relations between Japan and Manchoukuo made marked progress not only in the movement of capital but also in trade through these measures. The revised Customs Law at the end of December, 1937, further strengthened the inseparable economic tie of the two countries. Under a series of these measures the foreign trade of Manchoukuo achieved remarkable progress in 1937 and 1938. As it will be seen in the following figures, the total amount of trade in 1938 increased by 35 per cent to M¥2,000,202,050, the largest since the establishment of Manchoukuo.

(Amount in M¥1,000)

	Exports		Imports		Total		Excess of Imports
	Amount	Index Number	Amount	Index Number	Amount	Index Number	
1933	448,478	100.0	515,832	100.0	964,310	100.0	67,354
1934	448,427	99.9	593,562	115.1	1,041,989	108.1	145,135
1935	421,078	93.9	604,149	117.1	1,025,227	106.3	183,071
1936	602,759	134.4	691,830	134.1	1,294,589	134.3	89,130
1937	645,298	143.9	887,412	172.0	1,532,709	158.9	242,115
1938	725,454	161.7	1,274,747	247.1	2,000,202	207.4	549,293

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The causes of the remarkable increase in the value of trade were, the rise of commodity prices, especially those of imports; the increase of export value and the increase of volume of raw materials exported. The increase of import trade was due to the tremendous demand for construction materials as shown in the following table:

IMPORTATION OF HEAVY CONSTRUCTION MATRIALS

(Unit: 1,000 Yuan)

Goods	1933	1934	1935	1936	1937	1938
Iron and Steel Products	39,997	58,227	51,540	39,506	76,429	122,074
Machinery and Tools	9,544	28,056	33,510	38,918	65,901	121,501
Vehicles and Vessels	22,699	30,946	38,471	38,670	44,724	81,734
Electrical Appliances	8,115	14,484	18,778	21,683	34,014	39,767

According to Countries Japan's share of the foreign trade of Manchuria has been larger than that of any other nation for many years. This tendency has been strengthened further after the emergence of Manchoukuo and the creation of the Japan-Manchoukuo economic bloc. This result is natural when one takes into consideration various factors, especially the geographic propinquity and the phenomenal expansion in all phases of industrial activities in Japan.

During the period under review, the Manchoukuo trade with Japan kept on steadily increasing and far outdistanced other nations in its volume. It has grown from a total amount of 673,967,000 yuan in 1935 to 820,533,000 yuan in 1936, 987,781,000 yuan in 1937, and 1,410,238,000 yuan in 1938, respectively, from 65 per cent of the total trade of Manchuria in 1935, to 63 per cent in 1936, 64 per cent in 1937, and 71 per cent in 1938.

In studying these figures in terms of goods, a decidedly steady growth is noticeable in the importation of Japanese cotton, silk, and woollen goods into Manchuria. Especially noticeable has been the supremacy established by the Japanese cotton industry. Japan's strenuous but constant efforts to develop this industry have resulted in an amazing organization of all phases of this industry that its products can successfully compete with any Western products in almost any part of the world. In addition, Japan was favoured by her geographic position, enabling her to send her goods to the Manchurian market at much less freight expenses than the Western competitors. Thus, after the Great War, which crippled the cotton mills in Western countries and disturbed ocean transportation, Japan stood supreme in the Far Eastern market. But it should be remembered that the more Japanese cottton goods are exported to Manchuria or elsewhere, the greater will be the purchase of American and Indian raw cottons by Japan.

Next to Japan, China for years has occupied an important place in the Manchurian trade and the position second only to Japan has been consistently maintained. Since the Manchurian Incident, the Manchurian trade with China has declined for obvious reasons, from a total of 135,022,000 yuan in 1933 to 123,299,000 yuan in 1934 and to a low watermark of 97,346,000 yuan in 1935. It began to pick up again in 1936 when a total of 176,288,000 yuan was chalked up, followed by 153,077,000 yuan in 1937 and 192,398,000 yuan in 1938. It is an interesting fact that, in this decline and rise, the Manchurian export trade with China has been steadily on the increase. Thus, Manchurian exports to China rose from 55,210,000 yuan in 1933 to 65,694,000 yuan in 1934, 65,353,000 yuan in 1935, 128,603,000 yuan in 1936, 113,753,000 yuan in 1937, and 121,682,916 yuan in 1938. The imports from China have shown a slight gain during the period under review, from 31,993,000 yuan in 1935 to 47,685,000 yuan in 1936, 39,324,000 yuan in 1937, and 70,716,000 yuan in 1938.

If we turn to Western countries, the Manchurian trade with the United States has shown a most noticeable development in the recent years. The American trade with Manchuria totalled only 22,758,000 yuan in 1932 but it has jumped to 40,088,000 yuan in 1936, 76,197,000 yuan in 1937, and 104,430,000 yuan in 1938. The most remarkable fact about these figures has been the strong favourable balance which the United States has maintained steadily. Thus, the Manchurian imports from the United States have increased from 17,748,000 yuan in 1932 to 23,735,000 yuan in 1936, 57,523,000 yuan in 1937, and 93,070,000 yuan in 1938, more than a five-fold in-

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crease, while the Manchurian exports to the United States have increased from 5,010,000 yuan in 1932 to only 16,353,000 yuan in 1936 and 18,674,000 yuan in 1937, dropping to 11,360,000 yuan in 1938, less than a two-fold increase between 1932 and 1938. These figures are most interesting in the face of the American attitude of non-recognition and her complaint against what she calls the "closed door" in Manchuria. On the other hand, the Manchurian trade with Germany has been about the same in value as that with the United States, but the Manchurian exports to Germany far outweighed the German exports to Manchuria. The Manchurian trade with Germany gradually dropped from 79,716,000 yuan in 1932 to 47,541,000 yuan by 1935 and began to regain the lost ground again since 1936, reaching 63,303,000 yuan in 1936, 76,330,000 yuan in 1937, and 87,700,000 yuan in 1938. Unlike the American trade, however, the bulk of the Manchurian trade with Germany was made up of exports. Thus, the Manchurian exports to Germany, which amounted to 73,946,000 yuan in 1932, dropped to 32,799,000 yuan in 1935 and began to rise again in 1936 with the conclusion of the new trade Agreement, rising to 50,278,000 yuan in that year and to 59,052,000 yuan in 1937, and dropping slightly to 50,396,000 yuan in 1938. The Manchurian imports have been increasing during the same period, increasing from 5,770,000 yuan in 1932 to 13,025,000 yuan in 1936 and 17,278,000 yuan in 1937 and jumping to 37,304,000 yuan in 1938.

The Manchurian trade with other Western countries has been almost negligible as the following two tables clearly indicate:

MANCHURIAN TRADE ACCORDING TO COUNTRIES

(Unit: 1,000 Yuan)

Countries	1936			1937			1938		
	Export	Import	Total	Export	Import	Total	Export	Import	Total
Japan	285,903	534,630	820 533	321,511	666,269	987,780	416,825	993,413	1,410,238
China	128,603	47,685	176,288	113,753	39,324	153,077	121,683	70,716	192,399
U. S. A.	16,353	23,735	40,088	18,674	57,523	76,197	11,360	93,070	104,430
Germany	50,278	13,025	63,303	59,052	17,278	76,330	50,396	37,304	87,700
England	27,462	7,419	34,881	9,322	11,128	20,451	5,447	7,376	12,823
Br. India	1,691	28,224	29,915	132	45,624	45,756	46	30,603	30,649
Netherlands	7,072	631	7,703	16,570	1,527	18,097	8,001	799	8,800
Italy	362	1,624	2,007	2,644	1,064	3,708	3,457	2,393	5,850
Others	85,015	34,856	119,871	103,640	47,675	151,315	108,239	39,074	147,313
Total	602,759	691,830	1,294,589	645,298	887,412	1,532,709	725,454	1,274,748	2,000,202

PERCENTAGE OF MANCHURIAN TRADE ACCORDING TO COUNTRIES

Countries	1936			1937			1938		
	Export	Import	Total	Export	Import	Total	Export	Import	Total
Japan	48.4	77.3	63.4	49.8	75.1	64.4	57.5	77.9	70.6
China	21.3	6.9	13.6	17.6	4.4	10.0	16.8	5.5	9.6
U. S. A.	2.7	3.4	3.1	2.9	6.5	5.0	1.6	7.3	5.2
Germany	8.3	1.9	4.9	9.1	2.0	5.0	6.9	2.9	4.4
England	4.6	1.7	2.7	1.4	1.3	1.3	0.7	0.6	0.6
Br. India	0.3	4.1	2.3	0.0	5.1	2.9	0.0	2.4	1.5
Netherlands	1.2	0.1	0.6	2.6	0.1	1.2	1.1	0.1	0.4
Italy	0.0	0.2	0.2	0.4	0.0	0.2	0.5	0.2	0.3
Others	13.2	4.4	9.2	16.2	5 5	10.0	14.9	3.1	7.4
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

According to Commodities In the field of exports, the agricultural products continue to dominate all other products. Although Manchuria is rapidly becoming a bee-hive of industries, it is still primarily an agricultural country and the soya beans and their products, beancakes and bean-oil, have constituted more than half of its total exports for years. During the period under review, this condition has roughly persisted. The exports of soya beans and other beans, beancakes, and bean-oil totalled 214,611,000 yuan in 1935, increasing

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steadily to 305,827,000 yuan in 1936, 328,297,000 yuan in 1937, and 334,224,000 yuan in 1938. In the total value of exports, these figures represented 50.9 per cent in 1935, 50.7 per cent in 1936, 50.6 per cent in 1937, and 46.1 per cent in 1938. Next to soya beans among agricultural products come millet, kaoliang, maize, groundnuts, and seeds. The export of millet has increased from 9,049,000 yuan in 1935 to 18,318,000 yuan in 1936, dropped slightly to 14,197,000 yuan in 1937, and again rose to 20,260,000 yuan in 1938, respectively, 2.1 per cent, 3.0 per cent, 2.2 per cent and 2.8 per cent of the total exports; that of kaoliang has increased from 3,993,000 yuan or 0.9 per cent of total exports in 1935 to 11,726,000 yuan or 1.9 per cent in 1936, 9,843,000 yuan or 1.5 per cent in 1937, and 18,846,000 yuan or 2.6 per cent in 1938; that of maize has increased from 1,470,000 yuan or 0.3 per cent of total exports in 1935 to 6,995,000 yuan or 1.2 per cent in 1936, 8,526,000 yuan or 1.3 per cent in 1937, and 18,328,000 yuan or 2.5 per cent in 1938; that of seeds, including perilla and castor seeds, has risen from 21,335,000 yuan or 5.1 per cent of total exports in 1935 to 22,936,000 yuan or 3.8 per cent in 1936, but dropped to 18,822,000 yuan or 2.9 per cent in 1937 and 17,868,000 yuan or 2.5 per cent in 1938. Next to agricultural products in importance is the coal which is gradually declining as an export item due to the increasing demand within Manchuria. Thus, the export value of coal has decreased from 40 million yuan or 9.6 per cent of total exports in 1935 to 35 million yuan or 5.8 per cent in 1936, 36 million yuan or 5.5 per cent in 1937, and 28 million yuan or 3.9 per cent in 1938. The export of sulphate of ammonium has increased from 6 million yuan in 1935 to 17 million yuan in 1938.

Among the commodities imported during the period under review, by far the largest group has been still the construction material. Thus, the imports of iron and steel, machinery and tools, vehicles and vessels, electrical equipments and appliances, timber and cement have first slightly dropped from 157,759,000 yuan or 26.1 per cent of total imports in 1935 to 151,897,000 yuan or 22.0 per cent in 1936 but again have risen to 224,347,000 yuan or 25.3 per cent in 1937 and 410,609,000 yuan or 32.2 per cent in 1938. Next in importance came the cotton piece goods which have increased from 60,340,000 yuan or 9.9 per cent in 1935 to 87,501,000 yuan or 12.6 per cent in 1936 and 104,645,000 yuan or 11.8 per sent in 1937, dropping slightly to 88,225,000 yuan or 4.4 per cent in 1938. On the other hand, the import of raw cotton has increased steadily from 9 million yuan in 1935 to 18 million yuan in 1936, 32 million yuan in 1937, and 43 million yuan in 1938. The increase in the importation of silk and woollen goods has been also noticeable, altogether showing the rising purchasing power of the populace in general. The imports of gunny bags, sugar and paper are steadily on the increase also. A marked decrease in the importation of wheat flour has been strikingly noticeable, decreasing from 53,989,000 yuan in 1935 to 27,116,000 yuan in 1936 and 13,828,000 yuan in 1937 but again rising to 47,089,000 yuan in 1938. This eloquently indicates an increasingly important place which the flour industry is beginning to occupy in Manchuria. On the whole, the import figures continue to show the tremendous amount of construction activities which are in progress under the Five-Year Industrial Plan and also the increase of the purchasing power of the Manchurians in general brought about by the thorough reform of the former chaotic currency system and the initiation of good administration under the new régime.

The following tables show the principal imports and exports comparatively for four years between 1935 and 1938.

PRINCIPAL COMMODITIES OF EXPORT

(In Yuan)

Commodities	1935	1936	1937	1938
Soya Beans	126,329,191	210,250,528	222,932,539	234,263,340
Other Beans	16,779,794	21,062,456	15,685,474	15,286,626
Bean Cakes	51,370,086	53,126,934	62,335,743	70,575,007
Bean Oil	20,132,208	21,382,719	25,342,855	14,099,414
Kaoliang	3,993,135	11,726,465	9,843,121	18,845,746
Millet	9,049,721	18,318,478	14,196,991	20,260,226
Maiz	1,470,218	6,995,450	8,525,859	18,328,485
Groundnuts	15,140,649	16,109,760	16,369,566	12,115,315
Seeds	21,334,690	22,936,292	18,821,683	17,867,980
Coal	40,473,980	35,181,459	35,610,491	28,198,127
Ammonium Sulphate	6,051,084	11,423,631	9,675,958	16,571,204

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PRINCIPAL COMMODITIES OF IMPORT

(In Yuan)

Commodities	1935	1936	1937	1938
Cotton Goods	60,339,907	87,500,927	104,644,996	88,224,678
Raw Cotton	9,406,593	18,601,313	32,202,253	42,663,883
Silk and Rayon Goods	29,554,139	53,961,556	36,460,702	61,344,988
Woollen Goods	18,910,766	24,720,584	35,900,864	23,345,191
Iron & Steel	51,539,998	39,506,313	71,428,998	122,074,161
Vehicles, Vessels	38,471,304	38,669,550	44,724,290	81,733,603
Machinery, Tools	33,510,014	38,917,649	65,900,611	121,500,810
Electrical Equipments	18,778,326	21,682,543	34,014,327	39,767,207
Gunny Bags	14,640,550	14,024,752	19,273,736	20,909,887
Sugar	13,642,512	30,917,586	22,426,980	35,778,943
Paper	12,959,295	16,792,962	25,055,858	37,230,076
Wheat Flour	53,988,584	27,115,884	13,827,593	47,088,571
Timber	13,509,063	10,564,704	13,127,193	26,347,896

BEANS AND BEAN PRODUCTS EXPORTED

(Unit: Yuan)

(A) Soya Beans

Countries	1936	1937	1938
Japan	62,911,982	78,939,077	74,509,000
Chosen	9,413,460	7,715,023	4,065,000
China	18,815,647	6,312,893	11,019,000
Germany	34,387,643	42,510,502	37,711,000
Great Britain	21,410,843	4,143,263	3,457,000
Egypt (to Europe)	50,557,990	76,118,615	92,856,000
Netherlands	2,325,631	3,000,476	2,093,000
Hongkong	1,740,728	1,197,205	1,150,000
Straits Settlements	1,622,564	1,602,381	3,000
Denmark	5,001,345	1,227,225	1,614,000
Italy	8,736	1,089,699	3,143,000
Others	8,277,987	2,219,835	1,379,000
Total	216,474,556	226,076,194	234,263,000

(B) Bean-Cakes

Countries	1936	1937	1938
Japan	41,390,947	48,658,656	62,775,000
Chosen	1,829,210	1,633,550	2,588,000
China	7,340,768	7,712,930	3,134,000
Germany	320,302	300,565	30,000
Netherlands	12,600	58,734	284,000
U. S. A.	1,610,115	2,896,361	774,000
Others	622,992	1,074,947	987,000
Total	53,126,934	62,335,743	70,575,000

(C) Bean Oil

Countries	1936	1937	1938
Japan	411,719	196,009	83,000
Chosen	17,619	23,224	10,000
China	3,109,849	846,476	5,317,000
Hongkong	3,290,757	2,410,702	46,000
Great Britain	3,550,729	1,302,977	51,000
Germany	8,182,641	6,730,744	3,804,000
Netherlands	1,235,496	9,252,533	3,625,000
U. S. A.	859,667	2,197,061	157,000
Others	724,242	2,383,129	1,002,000
Total	21,382,719	25,342,855	14,099,000

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INTERNATIONAL ACCOUNTS OF MANCHOUKUO

(Unit: 1,000 Yuan)

	1935	1936	1937
I. Visible Foreign Trade:			
Exports	421,078	602,759	645,298
Imports	604,149	691,830	887,412
Total	1,025,227	1,294,589	1,532,710
Import Excess	183,072	89,071	242,114
II. Invisible Foreign Trade:			
Exports (receipts)	622,861	758,508	796,888
Imports (payments)	342,827	591,579	513,858
Total	965,688	1,350,087	1,310,746
Exports (receipts) Excess	280,034	166,929	273,030
III. Grand Total (Visible and Invisible Trade):			
Exports (receipts)	1,043,939	1,361,267	1,432,186
Imports (payments)	946,977	1,283,409	1,401,270
Exports (receipts) Excess	96,962	77,858	30,916
IV. Income Outside of Trade:			
A. Ordinary Receipts:			
1. Interest and dividends on foreign securities	4,378	2,736	3,408
2. Interests on deposits and loans abroad	4,658	7,369	7,589
3. Profit through overseas enterprises	663	1,817	1,352
4. Receipts from shipping	19,334	18,269	28,304
5. Receipts in connection with insurance	6,680	8,104	10,215
6. Receipts from foreigners in Manchoukuo	123,192	153,577	190,615
7. Other receipts by Manchoukuo Government	502	704	262
8. Others	3,674	3,680	8,248
Total	163,081	196,256	249,993
B. Extraordinary Receipts:			
1. Foreign Capital invested in Manchoukuo	404,030	495,126	476,943
2. Withdrawal of capital invested abroad	55,750	67,125	59,952
Total	459,779	562 252	536,895
Grand Total	622,861	1,361,267	1,432,186
V. Payments Outside of Trade:			
A. Ordinary Payments:			
1. Interests and dividends on Manchoukuo securities	72,841	36,194	89,585
2. Interests on foreign loans and deposits	7,730	8,456	12,577
3. Net income of foreign enterprises in Manchoukuo	11,076	86,194	98,585
4. Funds carried out or remitted by immigrants.	41,863	44,628	41,407
5. Payments in connection with shipping	4,055	4,421	7,297
6. Payments in connection with insurance	14,866	18,636	21,918
7. Amounts expended by Manchurians abroad	25,289	37,616	39,081
8. Other payments abroad by the Manchoukuo Government	1,549	27,834	19,705
9. Others	4,604	8,347	32,081
Total	185,873	244,855	283,162
B. Extraodinary Payments:			
1. Investments outside of Manchuria	72,704	64,791	106,853
2. Withdrawal of foreign capital invested in Manchoukuo	20,810	236,056	88,985
3. Others	65,440	45,877	34,857
Total	158,954	346,724	230,696
Grand Total	342,827	591,579	513,858

Transportation

The Railway Act, 1933 Simultaneously with the establishment of the State railway system, the Manchoukuo Government enacted the Railway Act of 1933, on February 9, 1933, after studying the conditions of these railways which were managed by diverse methods, entailing serious loss, and contemplated nationalization of the whole system in order to develop the economic wealth

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railway connections and other facilities and the port of Rashin had grown almost overnight to a city embracing 24,500 people. The accompanying table shows the rapid increase of trade at Rashin which naturally followed the progress of the harbour construction activities.

TRADE AT RASHIN, 1937-1938

(Unit: 1,000 Yen)

Years	Exports	Imports	Total
1937	28,683	11,766	40,449
1938	28,683	21,590	100,273

2. Port of Hulutao. In 1935, the South Manchuria Railway Company, through the Manchoukuo Government, had launched a five year harbour construction programme at Hulutao. The development of Hulutao was undertaken for the purpose of providing facilities for handling an increasing movement of goods to and from the Liaosi regions or the south-western part of Manchoukuo. The project involved the construction of two main piers together with various appurtenant equipments at a total estimated cost of some 20,000,000 yen with a view to increasing the cargo handling capacity of the port to 3,500,000 tons a year when the project is completed in the spring of 1941. The work was actually started in April, 1936, and the project has been progressing on schedule since. Thus, by the end of 1938, one pier had been completed and the foundations were laid for the second, trebling the cargo handling capacity from 65,000 tons in 1937 to 200,000 tons. However, in consideration of the increasing importance of Hulutao in connection with the Five-Year Industrial Plan and the looming closer relationship with North China since the beginning of the China Incident, the original project had been revised in 1938 to expand and to increase the capacity of the port to 4,000,000 tons a year. Under this revised project, requiring an additional estimated expenditure of 10,000,000 yen, both Piers 2 and 3 will be opened for use in 1939, while Pier 4 will also be completed during the same year, raising the capacity to 1,000,000 tons. The entire project is scheduled for completion by the spring of 1940.

3. Five-Year Harbor Expansion Programme. The initiation of the Five-Year Industrial Plan and the subsequent explosion and continuation of the China Incident have decidedly increased the movement of goods to and from Manchuria. Even the port of Dairen, with its capacity to handle 10,000,000 tons of cargo annually, became too limited to face the changed situation. Thus was drawn up in 1938 a Five-Year Harbour Expansion Program. At Dairen, among other things, it proposes to complete the Pier 4 which was started back in 1923 but which had been discontinued since and to construct two new piers at Jijiko, raising the eventual capacity to 12,000,000 tons; at Kanseishi, across the bay from Dairen, it proposes to construct a special pier for handling of iron and steel products; and at Yingkou, among other things, it proposes to add a new wooden pier and a warehouse. These various projects and appurtenant equipments were started in 1939 at an estimated expenditure of some 130,000,000 yen. The construction of the Pier 4 at Dairen was resumed even earlier, in 1938, and is scheduled to be completed in 1939, while the two new piers at Jijiko will be started in 1939. The new Kanseishi pier will be started also in 1939 and completed in the spring of 1942.

4. Port of Shiaoshihkou. Among the various features of Manchoukuo's harbour expansion programme, a part of which has been already outlined above, the most interesting is the proposal to construct a non-freezing port at Shiaoshihkou, some 20 miles south-west of Antung. Another five-year programme of construction is drawn up for this purpose and the work will be started in 1939 with an initial estimated expenditure of some ¥7,000,000 for the first year. When completed, the new port of Shiaoshihkou will have facilities to handle 2,000,000 tons of cargo a year. Side by side with the construction of the port, an equally far-reaching project for the construction of an extensive industrial district will also be lauched. It may be added also that the Government General of Chosen is constructing a similar port at Tashi Island near by, which will have a cargo handling capacity of 1,000,000 tons a year.

Extension of Highways Since the announcement by the Manchoukuo Government in 1932 of its programme to construct some 60,000 kilometres of national highways in ten years, various circumstances necessitated its slight modifications. It assumed the form of the First and Second Five-Year Highway Construction Projects. The First Five-Year Project covered the years 1932-1936 and involved the construction of 9,809 kilometres of national highways and 20 special bridges at an estimated expenditure of 30,785,000 yuan, while the Second Five-Year Project, extend-

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with the management of the North Chosen Railways within its hands and the vast resources of North Manchuria tapped through the Manchoukuo State Railways, the S. M. R. Company, in co-operation with Manchoukuo, has become the pioneer agency in the development of North and Northeastern Manchuria.

The Length of the Lines Operated The following table gives the progress of railway construction activities during 1936-1938, year by year:

NEW RAILWAY LINES COMPLETED, 1936-1938

1936

Lines	Length in Kms.
Pingchuan-Chengte	97.4
Mutankiang-Linkou	110.0
Linkou-Mishan	170.9
Solun-South Hsingan	130.8
Ssupingkai-Hsian	82.5
Total for 1936	591.6

1937

Lines	Length in Kms.
Linkou-Chiamussu	221.5
Noho-Nonkiang	93.5
Taipingchuan-Lupei	192.3
South Hsingan-Halunarshan	15.4
Ihsien-Fuhsin	78.1
Fuhsin-Shinlitun	53.4
Meiho-Tunghua	130.2
Mishan-Hulin	160.9
Total for 1937	945.3

1938

Lines	Length in Kms.
Lungtanshan-Tafengman	22.4
Chengte-Kupeikou	106.3
Total for 1938	128.7

UNDER PROVISIONAL OPERATION IN FEBRUARY, 1939

Lines	Length in Kms.
Tunghua-Huangpai	82.1
Wangching-Peihuangling	82.4
Suihua-Shenshu	135.8
Minghsan-Niuhsintai	13.3
Total under Provisional Operation	313.6

With these new lines added, the total length of new railways which had been constructed after the establishment of Manchoukuo reached 3,642.4 kilometres. This made the total length of the Manchoukuo State Railways 8,374.3 kilometres and the total length of all railway lines in Manchoukuo 10,148.4 kilometres, with the addition of 1,129.1 kilometres of the South Manchuria Railways, 102.1 kilometres of the Chin-Fu Railway, and 229.3 kilometres of private railways, at the end of March, 1939. In addition, 313.6 kilometres of the Manchoukuo State Railways were under provisional operation and the road beds of further additional 192.3 kilometres had been laid. Thus, within the scheduled ten years, Manchuria is combed by a net work of over 10,000 kilometres of railway lines. And the railway construction work still continues.

Construction of Harbours It has been noted in the Fifth Report that the expanding radius of Manchoukuo State Railways necessitated outlets to sea in addition to the existing ports of Dairen, Yingkou, Antung, and Port Arthur, and that the construction of Rashin and Hulutao harbours had been started by the Construction Bureau of the South Manchuria Railway Company. These construction activities have been progressing according to schedule during the period under review. In addition, plans were made for the construction of a new non-freezing port of Hsiaoshihkou and the expansion of existing ports, especially the port of Dairen.

1. Port of Rashin. A project of constructing a modern port on an erstwhile quiet fishing village at Rashin had been undertaken in 1932, and the work had been started actually in 1933. The project involves the completion by 1947 of most modern facilities for the handling of some 9,000,000 tons of cargo annually. One-third of this project, including all foundation works, was to be completed in five years by the spring of 1938, at an estimated cost of ¥11,206,000, the next one-third by the spring of 1942 at ¥11,139,000, and the last one-third by 1948 at ¥11,487,000. The first leg of this three-fold enterprise was started in April, 1933, and successfully completed on schedule, by the end of March, 1938, and the second leg was started immediately, at the same time giving finishing touches to the already completed portions of the project. In addition, a new project of constructing equipments across the Bay for the handling of local and coastwise trade had been started in 1938. Thus, at the end of 1938, two beautiful piers and one-half of the third pier, capable of handling 3,000,000-ton cargo annually, had seen their completion with necessary

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railway connections and other facilities and the port of Rashin had grown almost overnight to a city embracing 24,500 people. The accompanying table shows the rapid increase of trade at Rashin which naturally followed the progress of the harbour construction activities.

TRADE AT RASHIN, 1937-1938

(Unit: 1,000 Yen)

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4. Port of Shiaoshihkou. Among the various features of Manchoukuo's harbour expansion programme, a part of which has been already outlined above, the most interesting is the proposal to construct a non-freezing port at Shiaoshihkou, some 20 miles south-west of Antung. Another five-year programme of construction is drawn up for this purpose and the work will be started in 1939 with an initial estimated expenditure of some ¥7,000,000 for the first year. When completed, the new port of Shiaoshihkou will have facilities to handle 2,000,000 tons of cargo a year. Side by side with the construction of the port, an equally far-reaching project for the construction of an extensive industrial district will also be lauched. It may be added also that the Government General of Chosen is constructing a similar port at Tashi Island near by, which will have a cargo handling capacity of 1,000,000 tons a year.

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Collateral Securities, etc.	21,100.00	
Guaranty Funds	364,695.17	
Exchange Accounts	194,697.52	
Matured Bonds Unpaid	30,300.00	
Due to Other Concerns	849,366.93	
Deposits		172,878,805.52
Employees' Savings Deposits	17,860,003.69	
Employees Surety Deposits	65,167,930.22	
Employees' Mutual Relief Society Deposits	5,781,947.19	
Subsidiary Companies' Deposits, etc.	84,068,924.42	
Unadjusted Accounts		22,677,902.84
Balance brought forward from Previous Year		17,467,685.97
Net Profit for the Year ending March 31, 1938		73,929,494.57
TOTAL LIABILITIES		¥2,243,194,624.63

S. M. R. DEBENTURES

(In yen)

Fiscal Year	Amounts Issued	Amounts Redeemed	Amounts Outstanding	Interests Paid
1907-1916	136,682,000	19,526,000	117,156,000	46,121,000
1925	35,000,000	45,300,000	243,752,000	17,095,653
1930	20,000,000	525,000	296,577,000	16,202,000
1935	115,000,000	225,000	652,400,000	28,966,297
1936	225,000,000	100,225,000	777,175,000	33,900,990
1937	56,000,000	35,225,000	797,950,000	35,472,746
Total	1,501,434,000	703,484,000	797,950,000	408,633,415

The total length of South Manchuria Railway lines open to business at the end of the fiscal year, March 31, 1938, remained the same as that of the previous year, viz. 1,129.1 kilometres.

Since its formal organization in 1906 the railway business of this company has grown with the years as is shown in the following table (in yen):

Year	Passenger Revenue	Freight Revenue	Other Revenue	Total
1907	3,594,239	6,160,274	14,375	9,768,887
1912	5,008,633	13,913,341	985,482	19,907,456
1916	6,040,453	19,882,476	1,892,420	27,815,349
1921	12,194,288	59,615,835	6,394,010	78,204,132
1926	15,216,353	89,513,059	3,194,155	107,923,567
1927	16,102,953	94,040,819	3,100,408	113,244,180
1928	17,619,293	97,738,147	3,281,649	118,639,090
1929	17,451,585	101,089,474	3,562,684	122,103,743
1930	11,461,175	77,936,688	5,932,867	95,330,730
1931	9,135,663	70,897,756	4,539,937	84,573,356
1932	14,812,045	85,022,314	4,012,153	103,846,512
1933	16,434,000	94,263,000	8,980,000	119,677,000
1934	17,405,000	101,489,000	7,631,000	126,525,000
1935	22,412,000	103,362,000	8,911,000	134,686,000
1936	22,302,299	103,165,249	173,576,950	299,044,498
1937	24,875,527	115,558,375	214,612,237	355,048,139

Note: Figures for "other revenue" in 1936 and 1937 include receipts from coal mines and all other associated works.

In 1937-38 the number of passengers carried was 17,515,044, a gain of 2,200,000 over the previous fiscal year, and the tonnage of goods hauled was 24,331,393 metric tons, a gain of 3 million.

Among the goods transported by this railway, beans, bean cake, cereals and coal are the most important items.

(2) Accessory Business. In addition to its transportation business, the company is engaged in activities in many other fields including manufacturing.

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warehousing, shipping, mining, real estate and building, and various public works.

(a) As regards manufacturing, the company makes and repairs its own locomotives and other rolling stock at its Dairen shop, which occupies a site of 340,000 tsubo in area.

(b) The company operates warehousing business at 31 different places at the wharf of Dairen and along its railway lines.

(c) As for marine transportation, the company started a steamship service between Dairen and Shanghai in 1907. The opening of the Tsingtao line and the Hong-Kong line followed later, the latter being intended to facilitate the shipping of the company's coal, mined at Fushun, to South China.

All these three lines were later transferred to the Dairen Steamship Company, which is capitalized at ¥25,000,000 by the company.

(d) Harbours are a wing of the railway business and are inseparable from it. Therefore, the South Manchuria Co., Ltd. has invested a sum amounting to ¥97,280,000 in Dairen, Port Arthur, Antung and Yingkow. Special attention has been devoted to the improvement of the harbour of Dairen, and the greater half of the entire harbour programme has already been finished, its present facilities being capable of handling 7,000,000 tons of freight annually with a berthing capacity of 190,000 tons of shipping at the same time.

(e) In mining, the company operates coal mines at Fushun and Yentai, and in addition to this, it is also engaged in shale-oil mining and steel foundry work.

(f) In the railway zone, the company is engaged in the real estate, building business and municipal administration, attending to the needs of sanitation, education and policing, while at the same time promoting agriculture, industry, commerce and mining in this area. The sum invested by the Company in these branches of work amounts to ¥188,620,000.

(g) The landed estate owned by this company extends over a total area of 371,430,000 square metres, of which approximately 59,000,000 square metres is leased to individuals. The company also owns some 14,200 buildings, of which 859 are rented to individuals.

(h) Another notable achievement of the company is its city-planning in various places. Up to the present it has built 25 cities at Liaoyang, Mukden, Hsinking, Yingkow, Antung, and other places. In these places the company has constructed roads, bridges, sewerage, schools, parks, markets and other modern municipal facilities.

(i) In education, the company now operates 26 kindergartens, 36 primary Schools, 5 middle schools, 4 girls' high schools, 2 colleges, 1 university, 10 public schools for Chinese students, 34 business supplementary schools, 13 girls' housekeeping schools, 2 commercial schools, 1 mining school, and 6 other schools. It has also opened two public libraries, one each at Dairen and Mukden, and 27 other reading rooms with 566,782 books in November, 1937.

(j) Among other enterprises of the company are 87 hospitals and 1 sanatorium, and for research and experimental work it carries on a hygienic station, an agricultural station, a farm, a tobacco farm, a geological research station, a central experimental station, and other institutions.

(3) There are in Manchoukuo 72 companies directly connected with the S.M.R. Co., with an aggregate paid-up capital of M¥461,675,000, about 43 per cent of which is being borne by the mother company.

Communications

(1) Postal Service. The post office is under the direction of the Department of Communications and Manchoukuo now has 353 post offices and 783 postal agencies, as compared with 283 and 720, respectively, in March, 1932. Since July, 1932, postal charges for both domestic and foreign mails have been reduced. Postal savings which were started in May, 1933, now total M¥1,150,000 (end of Aug., 1935). Money orders can be exchanged between this country and Japan, as well as China, Germany, Dutch Indies, Poland and Netherlands. Ordinary mail between Manchoukuo and China, too, is now exchanged without serious hitch, while international postal air service has also been inaugurated.

With the pacification of Jehol in 1933, the Government succeeded in bringing the postal administration throughout the country under its complete control. Since then postal charges have been reduced for both domestic and foreign mails. In May, 1933, postal savings, telegraphic transfer, postal note and savings transfer, and account services were opened for the benefit of the masses. In addition the new administration has inaugurated an international postal air service. Japanese postal administration in the S.M.R. Zone was transferred to Manchoukuo in 1937.

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Collateral Securities, etc.	21,100.00	
Guaranty Funds	364,695.17	
Exchange Accounts	194,697.52	
Matured Bonds Unpaid	30,300.00	
Due to Other Concerns	849,366.93	
Deposits		172,878,805.52
Employees' Savings Deposits	17,860,003.69	
Employees Surety Deposits	65,167,930.22	
Employees' Mutual Relief Society Deposits	5,781,947.19	
Subsidiary Companies' Deposits, etc.	84,068,924.42	
Unadjusted Accounts		22,677,902.84
Balance brought forward from Previous Year		17,467,685.97
Net Profit for the Year ending March 31, 1938		73,929,494.57
TOTAL LIABILITIES		¥2,243,194,624.63

S. M. R. DEBENTURES

(In yen)

Fiscal Year	Amounts Issued	Amounts Redeemed	Amounts Outstanding	Interests Paid
1907-1916	136,682,000	19,526,000	117,156,000	46,121,000
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Among the goods transported by this railway, beans, bean cake, cereals and coal are the most important items.

(2) Accessory Business. In addition to its transportation business, the company is engaged in activities in many other fields including manufacturing,

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of communication facilities between Japan, Chosen and Manchoukuo, the Company commenced work recently on a long-distance submarine cable at a cost of ¥14,000,000. Part of the cable, or that over the land section between Mukden and Antung, has already been completed. The distance between these two places is 280 kilometres, and the cable used is of non-loading variety, which marks a novelty in technique and material, and is the first experiment of its kind in the world.

Heretofore, international communications were possible only at Dairen through the Dairen-Chefoo submarine cable, and at Harbin which possessed facilities for wireless communication with Peking, Tientsin and Shanghai. In February, 1935, the Company revived the Mukden-Tientsin telegraph service, and in June of the same year, telephone connections between the two cities were restored. In October of the same year, an agreement was signed between Manchoukuo and China for handling messages in the Japanese language.

Communications wih Europe and America were perfected in March, 1934, the equipment used being entirely of Japanese make. Continuous two-way radio connections with Berlin and San Francisco were made available at the Hsinking wireless station, while in December, 1935, direct two-way contact with Paris was inaugurated.

There were 363 offices handling telegrams in Manchuria in September, 1933, and the number increased to 691, at the end of 1937, an increase of 328 offices since the formation of the Company. The various offices are classified as follows:

	1934	1935	1936	1937	Comparison between 1936 and 1937
Telephone and telegraph offices	75	95	124	187	+63
Telegraph offices	148	136	147	100	-47
Offices handling telegrams	222	243	249	275	+26

	1934	1935	1936	1937	Comparison between 1936 and 1937
Offices handling both telegrams and telephone calls	2	6	7	4	- 3
Offices handling telegrams and telephone messages	14	27	38	71	+33
Wireless stations	1	—	—	—	—
Stations handling wireless messages	38	48	51	54	+ 3
Total	504	555	616	691	+75

With the increase in the number of offices for handling telegrams, a surprising increase was seen in the number of telegrams transmitted. In 1930, there were only 4,770,000 messages sent and received, but in 1933 (the year the Company was established) there were 8,730,000; 10,340,000 in 1934, 21,750,000 in 1935, and 25,240,000 in 1936. The monthly figures for 1937 follow:

NUMBER OF TELEGRAMS HANDLED IN 1937

(Jan.—Sept.)

	No. of telegrams including those relayed	Index No. (Base: Sept 1933=100)
January	2,108,848	186
February	1,817,412	160
March	2,602,892	230
April	2,332,195	206
May	2,310,300	204
June	2,195,934	194
July	2,461,168	217
August	2,506,889	221
September	2,479,517	219

Frequency of international messages handled is on the increase, the figures for the year beginning October, 1936 and ending September, 1937, were as follows:

Messages sent	275,551
Messages received	269,537
Total	545,088

TELEPHONE SUBSCRIBERS ACCORDING TO NATIONALITY

	1934	1935	1936	1937 (Aug.)
Manchoukuoans	12,707	17,634	21,701	25,660
Japanese	26,701	32,424	37,907	42,446
Foreigners	2,090	1,169	1,120	1,143
Total	41,498	51,227	60,728	69,246

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NUMBER OF DOMESTIC MAILS

(A) Ordinary Mails

Year	Received	Delivered
1935	100,955,354	151,795,711
1936	107,189,330	129,589,143
1937	124,293,844	145,820,507
1938	185,160,591	200,893,139

(B) Parcel Posts

Years	Received	Delivered
1935	694,834	718,438
1936	645,258	745,559
1937	1,443,191	1,467,523
1938	1,109,595	1,399,336

(C) Air Mails

Years	Received	Delivered
1935	635,632	843,572
1936	689,384	965,826
1937	633,182	649,241
1938	2,195,032	2,133,738

NUMBER OF FOREIGN MAILS

(A) Ordinary Mails

Year	Received	Delivered	Total
1935	38,648,674	32,965,633	71,614,307
1936	45,143,919	41,732,370	86,876,289
1937	44,898,650	42,245,492	87,144,142
1938	127,836,761	147,443,843	375,280,604

(B) Parcel Posts

Years	Received	Delivered	Total
1935	446,113	113,027	559,140
1936	636,445	150,095	786,540
1937	841,504	317,867	1,159,371
1938	663,426	3,182,450	3,845,876

(2) Telegraph, Telephone and Radio Services. By virtue of the agreement concerning the establishment and joint management of a communications company signed between Japan and Manchoukuo, the Manchuria Telegraph and Telephone Company was established on March 26, 1933, capitalized at ¥50,000,000. The Company was entrusted with the management, improvement, unification and control of the communication systems in Manchoukuo.

The Company's head office is located in Hsinking while its branch offices are in Dairen, Mukden, Hsinking, Harbin, and Tsitsihar, and a district office in Chengte.

Since the machinery and equipment which the Company took over were in a very poor condition with the exception of those in the Kwantung Territory and the South Manchuria Railway zone, the Company undertook vast improvement and expansion programme costing ¥2,000,000 in 1933, and ¥10,000,000 annually since 1934. The appropriations made by the Company since 1933 are as follows:

Transferred property	¥21,358,414
Accounts for 1933	2,868,048
,, ,, 1934	11,012,652
,, ,, 1935	10,130,940
,, ,, 1936	10,647,134
,, ,, 1937 (1st six months)	1,550,153
Total	¥57,567,341

Following the transfor of the North Manchuria Railway to Manchoukuo from Soviet Russia, by virtue of the agreement signed on March 23, 1935, the Manchuria Telegraph and Telephone Company came into possession of all the establishments and equipment owned and operated by the N. M. Railway. Extensive improvements were made on the existing facilities, while new offices were created at the important railway stations where there were no telephone or telegraph connections. The Company eliminated all the inconveniences of communication between North and South Manchuria experienced in past years and perfected the communication facilities linking the two regions.

Telegraph and telephone administration in the Chientao district which lies on the border between Chosen and Manchoukuo, was in the hands of the Chosen Government's Bureau of Communications. The telegraph and telephone stations located at Lungchingtsun, Yenki, Hunchun, and Toutaokuo under Chosen Government were taken over by the Company on April 1, 1936, after satisfactory negotiations.

The demand for communication between Japan, Chosen, and Manchoukuo has been increasing year by year, and the Company has been doing everything possible to meet the requirements and has produced remarkable results. Through its newly established huge wireless station at Hsinking, the Company inaugurated radiophone service on August 1, 1934, between Tokyo and Hsinking, linking all the cities in Japan with the important municipalities in Manchoukuo, bringing the two countries much nearer than ever before. In addition to this, direct telegraphic connections have been established between Manchoukuo and North Chosen, a region which is witnessing remarkable industrial development, while direct telephone and wireless connections have been completed. Foreseeing the need for further expansion

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of communication facilities between Japan, Chosen and Manchoukuo, the Company commenced work recently on a long-distance submarine cable at a cost of ¥14,000,000. Part of the cable, or that over the land section between Mukden and Antung, has already been completed. The distance between these two places is 280 kilometres, and the cable used is of non-loading variety, which marks a novelty in technique and material, and is the first experiment of its kind in the world.

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Foreigners	2,090	1,169	1,120	1,143
Total	41,498	51,227	60,728	69,246

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INCREASE OF INCOME

(In Yen)

	1934	1935	1936	1937 (1st half-year)
Charges for usage	3,715,759	5,076,279	6,070,464	3,145,927
Income from messages	2,168,916	2,928,841	2,935,172	1,729,228
Charges for special usage	103,300	154,481	211,861	142,786
Registration fee	104,302	85,709	83,817	25,730
Installation	1,551,944	1,223,260	1,188,504	340,960
Directories	13,557	20,972	28,104	17,997
Charges for transfers	269,229	427,274	495,468	222,921
Miscellaneous income	22,609	26,675	248,364	236,028
Installation for police and nanional defence	4,986	5,060	8,564	4,138
Total	7,953,602	9,948,551	11,270,318	5,865,716

Radio Broadcasting Stations. The number and details of radio broadcasting stations under the management of the Company are as follows :

Station	Call No.	Power
Hsinking	MTCY	10.00 kw
„ No. 2	MTCY	100.00 „
Mukden	MTBY	1.00 „
Dairen	JQAK	1.00 „
„ No. 2	JRAK	1.00 „
Dairen	JDY (short wave)	10.00 kw
Harbin	MTFY	3.00 „
Mutankiang	MTGY	0.01 „
Chengte	MTHY	0.05 „
Antung	JQBK	0.05 „

The following figures give the number of listeners of all nationalities in Manchoukuo, the figures being for November, 1937 :

NUMBER OF LISTENERS ACCORDING TO NATIONALITY

City	Japanese	Manchoukuoans	Foreigners	Total
Dairen	21,592	1,577	118	23,287
Mukden	19,795	4,191	76	24,062
Hsinking	16,833	5,229	21	22,083
Harbin	7,546	2,382	645	10,573
Tsitsihar	2,108	1,073	63	3,244
Chengte	728	472	3	1,203
Total	68,602	14,934	926	84,452

The latest figures (January, 1938) reveal that there are 93,859 radio listeners.

NUMBER OF LISTENERS ACCORDING TO YEAR

Year	Total No.	No. of Increase	Percentage of Increase
1933	7,995	2,196	37.9%
1934	12,386	4,391	55.0%
1935	19,764	7,378	59.6%
1936	41,202	21,438	109.0%
1937 (November)	84,452	43,250	104.9%

Justice and Police

General The present judicial system of Manchoukuo comes largely from the old Chinese system, which existed before the founding of Manchoukuo.

Before the unification of the country by the National Government, the number and grades of new courts established in China proper, the Three Eastern Provinces and other districts were as follows :

1. Supreme court, 1; supreme court prosecutorate, 1 at Nanging.
2. High court and high court prosecutorate, 23.
3. Branch high court and branch high court prosecutorate, 26.
4. District court and district court prosecutorate, 66.
5. Branch district court and branch district court prosecutorate, 25.

After the founding of Manchoukuo the old system has been revised several times due to the contradiction it involves being inimical to the other ex-

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The Hsinking Medical College Under the former regime health and hygienic facilities were likewise neglected. The South Manchuria Railway Company alone had a medical college in Mukden and managed a number of fine hospitals in the S.M.R. Zone. In many districts various malignant diseases were prevalent and the sanitary condition of the general community was such as to cause no small anxiety. Since the birth of the new State the Manchoukuo authorities have been exerting their utmost efforts to prevent epidemics and to spread knowledge of hygienic living among the people. As the training of competent doctors and their stationing in different parts of the country are most essential in realizing the above purposes, the Government transferred the medical school attached to the Kirin National Hospital, to Hsinking in March, 1938, and renamed it the Hsinking Medical College. Modern equipment has been installed at this institution which has at present an enrollment of 285 students. Its course is four years.

The Tatung Academy Of the various educational institutions founded since the birth of Manchoukuo, the Tatung Academy in Hsinking is probably the most unique.

The Tatung Academy was established for the purpose of training government officials and young men entering government service, in the spirit underlying the foundation of Manchoukuo and also practically, to qualify them for the task of building up the new State. It was founded in July, 1932, only a few months after Manchoukuo was born, because the training of many such men was vitally necessary at the time.

This unique establishment is under the control of General Affairs Board of the State Council, and admits graduates of institutions above higher schools and colleges, and officials already in government service. It is divided into two sections, one for Japanese and the other for Manchurians. Besides giving necessary courses in political science, economics, geography and history, the Tatung Academy conducts surveys of actual rural conditions, lets Japanese students travel in various parts of Manchoukuo, and sends Manchurian students to tour Japan.

The National University The National University was founded in Hsinking in May, 1938, with the object of propagating the sprit in which the new State was founded, and of educating men who will become builders of a moral society and leaders in the work of national enlightenment. It is under the direct supervision of the Premier. All educational expenses of the students admitted to this institution are borne by the State.

The National University offers a six year course, divided into two courses of three years each. Those who have completed secondary education are admitted to the basic course upon passing entrance examiations. Those finishing this course and graduates of colleges and universities are admitted into the advanced course after rigorous selection. Higher ordinary education is chiefly given in the basic course, with emphasis placed upon the study of the spirit of national foundation and actual training for developing the spirit of service, which is also given in the advanced course. The subjects taught in the advanced course are political science, economics, logic and philosophy. All the students are housed in dormitories in order to inculcate discipline and the spirit of self-government. The National University was opened with an enrollment of 150 in the basic course.

The National University, according to plans, will have separately a graduate school and a research institute. The former will admit those graduating from the advanced course or those of similar scholastic standing, who will further specialize in their selected fields. The faculty will form the organization of the research institute which will serve as an agency for research in various studies.

Religion The principal religions in Manchoukuo are Confucianism, Buddhism, Taoism, Lamaism, and Mohammedanism. Christianity was introduced in 1858. In April, 1934, the Holy See formed a separate mission field in Manchoukuo, independent from that of China, and appointed the Rt. Rev. Bishop A. Gaspais as Acting Apostolic Delegate for the whole of Manchoukuo. The latest available number of preachers and believers for each and the number of temples, shrines, and churches follow :

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NUMBER OF PREACHERS

Provinces	Buddhism	Taoism	Mohammedanism	Lamaism	Roman Catholics	Protestants
Fengtien	1,324	786	132	324	131	235
Kirin	311	570	172	—	73	232
Lungkiang	196	131	31	—	22	36
North Manchuria	49	8	11	12	67	63
Hsinking Special Municipality	85	3	1	—	9	15
Total	1,965	1,498	347	336	302	581

NUMBER OF BELIEVERS

Provinces	Buddhism	Taoism	Mohammedanism	Lamaism	Roman Catholics	Protestants
Fengtien	697,316	22,408	79,850	276	27,843	18,277
Kirin	39,933	12,994	30,885	—	11,735	8,373
Lungkiang	5,777	1,329	7,086	—	10,779	648
North Manchuria Special District	10,921	373	31,076	3,182	13,776	4,437
Hsinking Special Municipality	2,522	30	2,300	—	130	458
Total	756,469	37,134	151,197	3,458	64,263	32,192

NUMBER OF TEMPLES AND CHURCHES

Provinces	Buddhism	Taoism	Mohammedanism	Lamaism	Roman Catholics	Protestants
Fengtien	652	319	90	22	63	136
Kirin	74	133	32	—	27	51
Lungkiang	42	28	15	—	13	16
North Manchuria Special District	15	5	12	6	19	27
Hsinking Special Municipality	10	3	1	—	2	4
Total	793	488	150	28	121	234

Medicine and Sanitation

Sanitary Conditions The climate of Manchuria is not at all unhealthy. But since the country is extensive, bordering on Mongolia and Siberia and inhabited by different races, many of whom lead an insanitary life in extremely primitive conditions, and especially since coolies and refugees are constantly migrating in large groups, the risk of the spread of dreadful infectious diseases is rather common. In the past twenty years, Manchuria has been often afflicted by such plagues; for instance, the pneumonic plague in 1910–1911, cholera in 1919, pneumonic plague again in 1920–1921, and pneumonic plague once more in 1927. Another plague is the pest which destroyed the lives of 900 people in 1934. But due to vigorous exertion made jointly by the Department of Civil Affairs, the Department of Mongolian Administration and the South Manchuria Railway Co. special districts have been mapped, isolation hospitals and lookouts established and they have been placed under supervision of the pest investigation institute. Owing to the activities of these institutions as well as the thoroughness in inoculation the number afflicted by pest in 1935 was reduced to one-half of that of 1934.

Medical Institution The administration of hygiene of the country is undertaken by the Bureau of Hygiene of the Department of Civil Affairs. As regards the facilities of the administration of hygiene they have organs established in various provinces, in North Manchuria Special District, in Hsinking, in various hsiens, the police stations, etc. Though medical institutions in large cities in the Kwantung Leased Territory and the South Manchuria Railway Zone are well equipped the situation is quite different in local districts and is not so good. State hospitals are located in Kirin, Harbin and Chengte where patients numbering about 25,000 are received every month. Among public hospitals there are Feng-

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tien City Hospital, the Harbin First and Second Hospitals and a few others which are under construction. Physicians in the public service number 67 in all and it was planned that there would be at least one public physician in every hsien. In addition there are some private hospitals. The number of places where there are public physicians and private hospitals are as follows :

Province	No. of Places	
	Public Physicians	Private Hospitals
Fengtien	5	1
Pingkiang	9	2
Sankiang	8	2
Kirin	6	2
Chinchow	5	1
Heiho	2	1
Lungkiang	10	2
Antung	5	1
Hsingan (4 prov.)	7	1
Jehol	10	1
Chientao	3	1

In addition to the above there are many medical organs which are under the management of the General Direction of State Railways, the South Manchuria Railway and Japan Red Cross Society as well as of foundations and religious bodies. These are tabulated as follows :

Under management of	
The General Direction of State Railway	30
The South Manchuria Railway	29
Under management of	
Public hospitals run by the South Manchuria Railway	13
The Red Cross Society	10
Various foundations	6
Religious bodies	28
Municipal and hsien offices	19
Associations affiliated with social welfare works	34
Those which belong to the military	7
National asylums for opium addicts	10

The number of physicians, dentists, mid-wives, pharmacists and drug stores follows :

	Fengtien	Kirin	Lungkiang	Tungsheng Special District	Total
Physicians					
Practitioners in Chinese medicine	3,284	495	398	99	4,276
Ordinary physicians	658	133	121	287	1,199
Dentists	125	12	5	183	326
Mid-wives					
Old-fashioned	1,564	9	27	8	1,608
New-styled	600	4	39	7	650
Pharmacists	441	?	?	?	441
Drug stores					
Chinese drug	995	?	?	?	996
Western medicine	229	?	?	?	229

Medical Education As organs for educating medical students there are only the Medical School attached to Kirin Government Hospital College and the Harbin Medical College. All the other educational organs are under management of foreign countries. They are the Manchuria Medical University and College, Fengtien Medical College, Harbin First and Second Dental School, and one pharmaceutical school under Russian management. But all except the Manchuria Medical University, are poorly equipped. In view of this, the Manchuria Medical College opened its technical course in 1933 and now admits Manchurian students.

For the improvement of national health, and especially for the successful realization of the ten-year anti-narcotics plan which was launched in 1937 in order to eradicate narcotic evils for which Manchuria was rather notorious under the former régime, Manchoukuo is urgently in need of more medical facilities and a greater number of efficient doctors. Such being the case, the government has recently

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decided to raise the medical school at Hsinking to college standing. The construction of the building for the new college, costing M¥339,200, is to start early in the spring of 1938 and expected to be finished early in 1939.

Sanitation With central epidemics prevention organ in the Bureau of Hygiene there are various sanitary institutions placed in local districts. There are also installed six quarantine stations at the frontier which have been established as permanent organs. As an organ for the prevention of pest 2 pest investigation institutes, 9 isolation hospitals and 9 lookouts which are permanent institutions have been established. Quarantine and the hygiene of the ports of Dairen and Port Arthur are under the direction of the Marine Office of the Kwantung government and its branch.

Hygienic investigations and inspections are conducted by the following institutions: The Central Laboratory, the Hygiene Institute and the Animal Disease Research Institute of the South Manchuria Railway Company; the government hospitals at Dairen and Port Arthur; physicians, veterinary surgeons and pharmaceutists stationed by the Kwantung government at civil administration offices, police stations and sub-stations.

The Hygienic Institute was established in 1925 by the railway company at an outlay of ¥400,000 in view of the lack of facilities for pathogenic investigations, and also for the supply of preventive and curative medicines.

Vaccines, serums, and disinfectants produced at the Institute are distributed free or at cost not only in Manchuria but also in Tientsin and Shantung districts. The latest statistics for production and distribution of vaccines and serums give the following figures:

	Vaccines and serums manufactured in cc.	Products sold or distributed in cc.
1928	21,856,857	21,128,423
1929	25,574,962	25,513,384
1930	30,801,140	30,728,469

The Animal Disease Research Institute of the South Manchuria Railway Co., was established in 1925 at Mukden at a cost of ¥250,000. The Institute is divided into the Research and Enterprise Divisions. The Enterprise Division manufactures and distributes serums, vaccines and medicines for various animal diseases, conducts classes and lectures on animal diseases, gives itinerant medical treatment by sending free treatment and research corps, and also operates the examination station in the Institute.

Extermination of Opium Evil The painstaking efforts of the new State during the past four years since the enforcement of the Opium Law in January, 1933, to curb the drug habit were not made in vain, and the Government, having established an efficient monopoly system, has succeeded in completing its preparatory period for the eradication of the evil. In view, however, of the fact that conditions at home and abroad demand the immediate extermination of the opium menace, the Government authorities have formulated a ten-year plan under which they hope to prevent the appearance of fresh cases and to cure the present addicts. Concerning this ambitious project, which was launched in 1938, Premier Chang Ching-hui, in an announcement made on August 12, 1937, stated in part:

In accordance with its policy framed at the time of the foundation of the new State to eradicate the opium evil in the country, the Manchoukuo Government enforced an opium monopoly and established various facilities for its smooth execution. Though much appreciable results have been achieved, the Government keenly realizes the necessity of augmenting the policy in order to exterminate the age-long curse, especially at a time when general conditions in the country strongly call for national unity and readjustments, externally and internally. The Government has therefore firmly decided to expand and improve the existing facilities, enforce more stringent regulations and to surmount all difficulties to exterminate the evil practice as early as possible.

The main points of the ten-year programme are:

1. Reformatory education. Every effort will be made to propagate the necessity of abolishing opium smoking through the medium of educational and social institutions, while at the same time, a national anti-opium campaign will be launched through the Manchoukuo Concordia Association to awaken the people to the deadly effects of opium-smoking.

2. Prevention of the appearance of fresh cases.

(a) More effective control over the issue of certificates to addicts will be exercised, and no person under 25 years of age will, under any circumstances, be permitted to smoke five years after

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tien City Hospital, the Harbin First and Second Hospitals and a few others which are under construction. Physicians in the public service number 67 in all and it was planned that there would be at least one public physician in every hsien. In addition there are some private hospitals. The number of places where there are public physicians and private hospitals are as follows :

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largest and best equipped stadiums on the Asiatic continent. Compared to foreign municipalities, Hsinking has set aside 7% of its city area for parks, playgrounds and stadiums, against 2% of Berlin, 2.8% of Tokyo, 1.4% of Washington, and 9% of London.

Hsinking also boasts the best water supply system in Manchoukuo. The present system can best be appreciated by comparing it with the water supply system of the Changchun days. Under the former régime, there were water mains only in the S. M. R. zone. The majority of the residents of other sections had to buy drinking water at so much a pail. Good pure water comes from the Chingyuehtan reservoir in the suburbs of the city, another huge project completed under the first five-year plan of Capital Construction. Covering an area of 78 square kilometres, the mammoth reservoir utilizes water from a tributary of the Itung River, and enough water is stored there to supply a population of half a million.

Mukden Mukden (Fengtien), formerly the seat of the old militarist government of the Chang family, still retains its prosperity as a commercial and industrial centre of Manchoukuo situated as it is in the heart of a vast plain watered by the Liao River.

The main line and the Antung-Mukden line of the South Manchuria Railway, the Mukden-Shanhaikwan Railway, and the Mukden-Hailung Railway converge at Mukden thus making this city an important point of communication between Europe and Asia.

As an industrial centre, Mukden produces matches, bean-oil, rice, pottery, textiles and tobacco. This city also is a centre of education in Manchoukuo, among its important schools being the Manchuria Medical College, in addition to several primary and secondary schools for boys and girls.

The population of the open town and the railway zone of Mukden at the end of 1937, numbered 711,085, of which 83,542 are Japanese nationals.

Dairen Dairen is the most important port for Manchoukuo. Located in the Leased Territory of Kwantung the city is under Japanese administration. Starting from this city, the main line of the South Manchuria Railway runs north as far as Hsinking, branching off at Mukden to Antung.

The city is built on the shore of the Bay of Dairen, extending 7.8 kilometres from east to west and 3 kilometres from north to south. Divided into the residential, mixed, commercial and industrial districts, the city is well planned, with a sewerage system, parks and other modern public utilities completed by the Japanese.

In 1915 the city was organized as an autonomous municipality and efforts have since been continued to perfect its sanitary and educational institutions and fire-preventing facilities.

From the central square covering an area of more than 10,000 tsubo, 10 boulevards radiate in all directions, the streets of this city being of seven different widths with a maximum of 25 ken or about 50 yards.

Among the parks of the city, the Electric Park is the most famous. Hoshigaura Park, which is in Hoshigaura, a suburb of Dairen, is also well known for its golf links and sea-bathing beach.

Being the largest commercial centre of South Manchuria, the city has a population of approximately 503,778 of which 158,696 are the Japanese coming from Japan proper. Among the important offices in the city are the headquarters of the South Manchuria Railway Company, the city hall, the civil administration office, the bureau of communications, the chamber of commerce and industry, the branch offices of the Yokohama Specie Bank, the Chosen Bank, the Oriental Colonization Company, the Central Bank of Manchou, the Chenglung Bank, the Mitsui Company, the Mitsubishi Company, the Okuragumi, Mitsukoshi and other business concerns.

Various local institutions include the Manchuria Dockyard Company, the Dairen Steamship Company, the South Manchuria Electric Company and the Dairen Hospital. Among the schools in this city are 12 kindergartens, 14 primary schools, 2 middle schools, 2 girls' high schools, a commercial school, a girls' commercial school, a commercial and industrial school, a foreign language school and a technical college.

Ryojun (Port Arthur) Ryojun was once the seat of the government of the Kwantung Leased Territory. Situated at the southern tip of Liaotung peninsula, the city is surrounded by hills on all sides except on its water front, which forms a port opening to the Gulf of Pechihli.

The city is made up of two sections, the old town and the new town. In the old town are located the city hall, the dockyard, the defence headquarters, the higher law court, the civil administration office and the headquarters of Port Arthur fortress.

The new city is built on the shore of the west port and forms the government and school district with the for-

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mer office of government of the Kwantung Leased Territory, the Ryojun Engineering College, and other schools located in it.

The boulevards of the city are of two different widths, 84 feet and 63 feet respectively, while the standard width of the street is 42 feet.

The vicinity of Ryojun is the old scene of the siege of Port Arthur during the Russo-Japanese War, and a smooth driveway now connects Ryojun and Dairen to take tourists to the old battlefields.

The population of the city is put at 31,000, of which about 12,000 are the Japanese nationals.

Yingkow Before the opening of Dairen, Yingkow was the only commercial port of Manchuria, and it enjoyed great prosperity. It is now known mostly as an industrial centre for manufacturing bean oil, tobacco, brick and soy sauce.

Being situated on the bank of the Liao River about 14 miles from its mouth, this town still plays an important rôle in the commerce of the river, meeting the needs of the rural populace along its banks. The town on the opposite bank of the river is known as Newchwang.

The population of the Japanese section of the city is put as 5,433 among the total population of 161,903 at the end of 1937.

Kirin Standing on the western bank of the Sungari River, Kirin is the terminus of the Kirin-Changchun Railway and is known as an important station in the transportation of lumber produced in the upper basin of the river.

Being one of the largest cities in Manchoukuo, it has a population of 122,586, of which 12,556 are the Japanese. As the city is kept comparatively clean, surrounded by shapely hills, Kirin is known among the Japanese as the Kyoto of Manchuria. Among other products marketed in this city are lumber, tobacco leaf, hemp and furs.

Harbin Special Municipality Harbin is situated on the eastern bank of the Sungari River, at 44.5 degrees North Latitude and 126.40 degrees East Longitude. Although now known as the Paris of the Far East, Harbin was only a deserted village before the Russian penetration into Manchuria.

Built in European style, the city has a population 457,980, of which 26,347 are the Japanese, 4,355 Koreans and 34,133 Russians.

From this city, the southern line of the North Manchuria Railway runs to Hsinking. The city also forms an important point in the long railway which links Vladivostok and the cities of Europe via Siberia.

As the largest commercial and industrial centre of north Manchuria, Harbin handles more than 4,000,000 tons of soy beans, wheat, bean-cake and other products annually.

The city was formerly divided into three sections: Old Harbin, the new city and the open town. The new city is said to have been planned after Moscow. The railway station, the offices of the North Manchuria Railway and the North Manchuria Railway and the foreign consulates are located in this section.

In the open town, which is the commercial section of the city, reside Russian, Japanese and Manchurian merchants engaged in thriving business activities. The Harbin offices of the Yokohama Specie Bank, the Chosen Bank and Mitsui Company are found in the open town.

In June of 1933 Harbin was made a special municipality and since July 1, 1933 the municipality became an autonomous city which comes under the direct control of the Department of Civil Affairs. Since then the old plan of extension of the city has been given up and the city is under construction according to a new plan which purports to make it ten times as large as that designed under the old plan

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General and Historical The Kwantung Leased Territory under Japanese rule which was ceded to Japan by Russia and the lease of which lasts till 1997, together with the railway zone of the South Manchuria Railway Company, forms the most civilized area of Manchuria with all kinds of modern facilities introduced by the Japanese.

Occupying a small southern portion of Liaotung Peninsula, the Leased Territory covers an area of some 3,367.88 square kilometres with a population of 1,134,074 at the end of 1935, of which 163,796 are Japanese, 4,389 Koreans, 963,875 Chinese and Manchous and 2,014 people of other nationalities.

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an officer was appointed governor of the territory by the Emperor of Japan. A drastic change was made in this system on December 26, 1934, in which the Kanto Bureau was established at Hsinking under the control of the Ambassador at Hsinking, and most of the administrative powers formerly vested in the governor of the Leased Territory were transferred to the president of the newly created Bureau. The president takes charge of the civil administration within the territory and supervises the business of the South Manchuria Railway Co. The Bureau is sub-divided into the president's secretariat, home affairs, police, and controller's divisions. At the same time a separate office was created for administration of the Peninsula. Under this office, which is at Ryojun, falls the administration of civil affairs in the Peninsula, the prisons, the Ryojun Engineering College, the middle schools, the girls' high schools, the normal school for natives, the commercial school for natives, the agricultural schools for natives, the Police Training School, the Meteorological Observatory, the government hospitals, the Agricultural Experimental Station, the Sericultural Experimental Station and several other institutions in the territory.

Finance Taxes are regularly collected, but due to a large expenditure required for improvement in hygiene, strengthening of police force, extension of educational facilities, development of industries, etc., the revenue from this source is not enough to meet the expenditure, so that subvention is allowed from the General Account. The budget for the financial year 1936–37 was as follows :

Revenue	
Ordinary revenue	¥4,760,276
Extraordinary „	¥2,510,243
Total	¥7,270,519
Expenditure	
Ordinary expenditure	¥3,544,089
Extraordinary „	¥3,726,430
Total	¥7,270,519

Of the ordinary revenue the income from taxes amounts to ¥2,066,278, that from the Government enterprises and properties to ¥2,393,450, while in the extraordinary revenue the Government subvention amounts to ¥1,747,412. The main items of expenditure included ¥2,084,432 for various subsidies, ¥1,510,251 for public works and repairs, ¥1,198,056 for various enterprises and ¥757,213 for education.

Justice and Communications In regard to the administration of justice in the Leased Territory, a judicial system was established in 1906 whereby the courts of justice were empowered to adjudicate in all civil and criminal cases, irrespective of the nationalities of the persons involved.

The defence of the Leased Territory is secured by a neutral zone along the northern frontier.

The communication system and educational, hygienic and other modern institutions are well organized in the territory. In matters concerning hygiene and sanitation, the Kwantung government is collaborating with the South Manchuria Railway Company.

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Area and Population

Owing to the lack of scientifically compiled statistics it is difficult to grasp the actual size of the territory and the population of China. The ambiguity of the international position is also in some way responsible, for in many cases, the Chinese make their calculations with Manchuria and Outer Mongolia still considered as integral parts of China while both of them are clearly independent of the Chinese Republic. As regards the various divisions and separations which have occurred from the political viewpoint following the outbreak of the China Incident, however, it would be more convenient to keep them out of consideration because the events closely associated with the occurrence are still in progress.

Area

The following figures are those available showing the area of the provinces included in China Proper and the border regions:

North China

Name of Province	Area in Square Kilometers	
Hopei	140,526	(153,682)
Shantung	153,711	(179,269)
Honan	169,782	(172,736)
Shansi	161,842	(155,935)
Shensi	195,076	(187,394)
Kansu	380,863	(378,059)
Total	1,201,800	(1,227,075)

Central China

Name of Province	Area in Square Kilometers	
Kiangsu	105,605	(108,339)
Chekiang	101,061	(103,058)
Anhwei	143,447	(134,426)
Kiangsi	168,326	(200,209)
Hupei	183,724	(207,692)
Hunan	215,457	(273,231)
Szechwan	403,634	(431,309)
Total	1,321,165	(1,458,264)

South China

Name of Province	Area in Square Kilometers	
Fukien	121,050	(158,702)
Kwangtung	223,844	(217,404)
Kwangsi	219,876	(217,578)
Kweichow	176,480	(179,478)
Yunnan	398,583	(320,051)
Total	1,139,833	(1,093,213)

Border Regions

Name of Province	Area in Square Kilometers	
Chahar	258,815	(278,957)
Suiyuan	304,058	(291,432)
Ninghsia	302,451	(274,910)
Chinghai (Kokonor)	728,198	(697,194)
Sikang	472,704	(371,599)
Tibet	904,999	(1,215,788)
Sinkiang	1,641,554	(1,828,418)
Total	4,612,779	(4,958,298)
Grand Total	8,275,577	(8,736,850)

(Note: The figures in parentheses were published by the Ministry of the Interior of the National Government on March 17, 1937, and do not cover the cities of Nanking, Shanghai, Peking (then Peiping), Tientsin, Tsingtao and Weihaiwei.)

In passing, it may be noted that the area of Outer Mongolia is given as 1,612,912 square kilometres (the figures published by the Ministry of the Interior of the National Government on March 17, 1937, being 1,621,201 square kilometres).

Foreign Concessions Following is a list of the foreign concessions, international settlements and leased territories in China:

	Location		Date of Creation		Area	
British Concession		Tientsin	1860	About	6,300	se
French	,,	,,	1806	,,	2,360	,,
Italian	,,	,,	1902	,,	771	,,
Japanese	,,	,,	1898	,,	2,150	,,
Japanese	,,	Hankow	1898	,,	186	,,
French	,,	,,	1896	,,	360	,,
Japanese	,,	Shasi	1897		—	
,,	,,	Chungking	1899		—	
,,	,,	Soochow	1897	,,	484	,,

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Location		Date of Creation		Area
Japanese Concession	Hangchow	1897	„	1,689 se
„ „	Amoy	1896	„	40 „
„ „	Foochow	1842 (opened)		
British „	Shameen	1861	„	254 „
French „	„	1861 (opened)		54 „
„ „	Shanghai	1844 („)		14,900 „
International Settlement	Wuhu	1905		689 „
„ „	Kulangsu	1902		
„ „	Yentai	1866		309 „
„ „	Shanghai	(dating from 1863 when the British concession created in 1845 and the American concession created in 1847 were merged)		32,504 „

Territory leased to France	Kwangchow Bay	1899
Territory leased to Portugal	Macao	1887
Territory leased to Great Britain	Kowloon	1898

(Note: One "se" corresponds to 160 square feet.)

Those foreign concessions and leased territories which have been recovered by China are given below:

Location		Date of Creation	Date of Recovery
German Concession	Tientsin	1895	1919
Russian „	„	1898	1924
Belgian „	„	1902	1929
Austrian „	„	1903	1919
British „	Amoy		1920
„ „	Hankow	1862	1927
German „	„	1895	1919
Russian „	„	1896	1924
British „	Kiukiang	1861	1927
„ „	Chinkiang	1861	1929
Territory leased to Germany	Kiaochow Bay	1898	1922
Leased territory	Weihaiwei	1898	1922

Population

The inhabitants of China are generally divided into six tribes, the Hans, Tibetans, Miaos, Manchus, Mongols and Turks. The Hans, found all over China, account for more than 90 per cent of the total population. They are prolific, highly civilized and have great economic power. The total number of Tibetans is estimated at approximately 2,000,000, all living in Tibet. Their standard of civilization is low. The Miaos are aborigines of China and at present inhabit the two provinces of Kweichow and Yunnan, having been gradually driven to these southwestern provinces by the Hans. The Manchus, who were the founders of the now defunct Ching dynasty, migrated, during the time they were in power to various parts of China Proper, where they were assimilated with the Hans. At present they are estimated to number some 5,000,000 persons. The Mongols, of whom there are probably about 800,000, inhabit chiefly Inner and Outer Mongolia, though some of them are found in Sinkiang and Chingkai (Kokonor). The Turks live in Kansu, Shensi and Sinkiang, their number being estimated at about 10,000,000.

Figures for the total population of China vary according to estimates from different sources. The Ministry of the Interior of the National Government reported in 1928 that the country had a total population of 474,787,386 persons. The Year Book published by the Shen Pao gives the total population as 433,077,785 persons. The average density of population in the 18 purely Chinese provinces is given as 110 persons to each one square kilometre. Details of the figures compiled by the Shen Pao, excluding those for Manchuria and Outer Mongolia, are tabulated as follows:

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	Number of Households	Population	Density of Population (per one square kilometer)
Kiangsu Province	6,998,389	35,102,524	336.77
Chekiang „	4,737,223	20,663,754	204.89
Hangchow City	117,674	574,439	259.54
Anhwei Province	3,833,813	22,020,591	153.51
Kiangsi „	2,988,709	15,746,765	93.59
Hupei „	4,759,559	25,137,732	139.67
Hunan „	4,059,938	22,329,658	103.63
Honan „	6,099,427	33,658,673	198.24
Hopei „	5,018,500	28,466,530	203.74
Shantung „	6,782,114	37,214,088	244.03
Shansi „	2,155,856	11,610,778	71.74
Kwangtung „	5,894,177	32,023,496	143.06
Kwangsi „	2,556,051	12,882,532	58.58
Fukien „	1,814,133	11,987,986	99.03
Szechwan „	7,671,412	37,427,593	92.73
Yunnan „	2,338,272	11,795,486	29.59
Kweichow „	1,600,817	6,906,361	39.13
Shensi „	1,975,379	9,752,015	49.99
Kansu „	1,061,784	6,360,075	16.69
Ninghsia „	74,100	417,751	1.38
Suiyuan „	402,216	2,321,879	7.64
Chahar „	393,651	1,876,461	7.25
Nanking City	190,953	989,045	2,073.47
Shanghai City	407,721	3,703,430	4,147.55
Peiping (Peking) City	305,636	1,575,606	2,983.33
Tientsin City	240,808	1,209,998	13,296.68
Tsingtao City	94,337	465,912	412.36
Weihaiwei	36,487	199,983	270.91
Sinkiang Province	544,721	2,506,719	1.53
Chinghai „	206,779	1,190,509	1.63
Tibet	141,666	769,249	0.85
Sikang Province	92,527	416,113	0.88
Total	75,594,802	399,303,731	

Chinese Abroad The number of the Chinese residents abroad is estimated at 7,838,895 persons by the committee on affairs concerning Chinese residents abroad, according to the 1925 edition of the year book compiled by the Shen Pao. The 1936 edition gives two different figures, one being 8,758,533 persons and the other 11,405,332 persons (because two different figures are given for the Chinese residents in Siam and the Dutch Indies). It must be noted that the above figures also include Formosans. With the Formosans excluded, it is believed that the Chinese residents abroad at present number about 6,500,000 persons, including 2,500,000 in Siam, 1,825,000 in the Dutch Indies, 1,273,000 in Malay and the Straits Settlements, 381,000 in the French Indo-China, 193,000 in Burma, 75,000 in the United States, 47,000 in the British North Borneo, 43,000 in the Philippines and 46,000 in Taiwan.

The economic power which the Chinese residents abroad possess is not small. Through their homeward remittances, the Chinese residents in foreign countries have been making a great contribution towards balancing the trade of their homeland with foreign nations. At one time, the total amount of remittances which the Chinese residents made to their homeland was estimated at more than 400,000,000 yuan, but a decrease has been brought about by the recent economic depression.

Density of Population Density of population in China is estimated at 1,405 per square mile, headed by Kwangton with 3,011. In northern 5 provinces it is said to be 629, in provinces along the Yellow River valley 1,171, in provinces south of the Yangtze 2,108.

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Distribution by Age Group The distribution of population by age groop is supposed to be as follows:

Age Groop	Percentage
Under 9	22.2
10—19	19.5
20—29	17.1
30—39	14.8
40—49	11.8
50—59	8.4
Over 60	6.3

Marriage The average year of marriage of Chinese people is placed at 20.6 for men and 18 for women.

Birth and Death Rates According to the reports of major cities in China in 1929 death rate was higher than birth rate in all reported cities, except Peking. Nanking reported 5 births per 1,000 of population and Tientsin but 3 births per 1,000 of population. Yearly reports of the Kuomintang Government give a death rate of 20 per 1,000 of population. But that all these reports are unreliable is the unanimous opinion of Chinese scholars both native and foreign. A Chinese scholar puts birth rate as 38.2 per 1,000 of population, death rate 25.8 and the rate of annual increase of population 12.4. But this scholastic conclusion is untenable, because the present Chinese population will be doubled in the coming 10 years and reach over 800 million, and such a matter will never happen judged from the history of Chinese population in the past.

Kuomintang and Government

Following the Opium War and the Taiping Rebellion, the corruption of the Ching dynasty and the oppression by foreign countries came to be felt more keenly than ever before and after the weakness of China had been demonstrated by the result of the Sino-Japanese War, 1894-5, the country became the objective of the struggle of the Powers for rights and interests. This, coupled with the imposition of the enormous indemnity in connection with the Boxer Uprising by the interested Powers, spelt ruin to the Ching dynasty. Endeavours were made to resuscitate it through reforms, but in vain.

Birth of the Chinese Republic The revolutionary drive which was launched in the Wuhan area on October 10, 1911, spread like wild-fire and on January 1, 1912, a provisional government was established in Nanking with Sun Yat-sen, the "father of the Chinese Republic," designated as President ad interim.

Unable to completely overcome the old influence in the north, however, the revolutionaries concluded a compromise with Yuan Shih-kai, representing the Ching dynasty, under which the Emperor abdicated his throne and the Chinese Republic was formally inaugurated. Sun Yat-sen then resigned as President ad interim to be succeeded by Yuan Shih-kai who assumed office in Peking, but there was a deadlock for sometime as to whether this city or Nanking should be the capital. As representative of the revolutionaries, Li Yuan-hung was designated Vice-President. In the third year of the Republic, the first cabinet of the new regime was formed, with Tang Shao-yi as the Prime Minister.

In the meantime, the Kuomintang or Nationalist Party was brought into being as a strong rival of the faction headed by Yuan Shih-kai. The rivalry led to the assassination in the North Station of Shanghai of Sung Chiao-jen, one of the most capable of the southern leaders, and was one of the many events which led to the subsequent second revolution launched in Kiangsi by Li Lieh-chun against the Peking faction. After about two months of fighting the revolutionaries were defeated by Feng Yu-hsiang and Chang Hsun.

The national assembly was inaugurated in April of the second year of the Republic (1913) and in October of the same year, Yuan Shih-kai was formally installed as President for a period of five years. A frontal clash, however, soon occurred between Yuan and the Nationalists over the question of a constitution with the result that the national assembly was dissolved and a new Advisory body of the President's nominees appointed to act in its stead after two years of absolute rule. Yuan went to the length of having a movement for a monarchical form of government launched with a view to having himself installed as emperor. In opposition to the monarchist movement, the Nationalists launched a third revolution in December of the fourth year of the Republic (1915) in Yunnan, and in June of the following year, Yuan died but not before he had cancelled his monarchical project, on April 25.

After the death of Yuan Shih-kai, Li

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Yuan-hung was promoted from Vice-President to full President. As a system of responsible government through a cabinet had already been adopted, however, the real power fell into the hands of Tuan Chi-juei, the Premier. Feng Kuo-chang was designated Vice President and with the support of the Kuomintang, he strove for the restoration of the old provisional constitution and a national assembly, but was opposed by Tuan, who, with the support of the new political party called the Cheng-hsueh-hui, and held the Nationalists in check. The Nationalists soon, therefore, departed for the south and their influence gradually waned.

When the European War broke out, China also became involved. In March, 1917, the Republic severed its diplomatic relations with Germany, but over the question of the declaration of war Parliament disagreed with the government, and the various militarist factions supporting the Tuan Cabinet urged its dissolution. President Li Yuan-hung rejected the demand and discharged Tuan from his Premiership, thus bringing about a dangerous situation. The military governors (tuchun) established a provisional government in Tientsin, and with its backing, Chang Hsun, outstanding leader of the militarists at the time, pressed for the dissolution of Parliament. Under the circumstances, President Li could not refuse, and Chang Hsun, whose influence was thus increased, suddenly announced on July 1, the restoration of the Ching Emperor to the throne, and the political system being changed overnight President Li escaped to the Japanese barracks for shelter. Tuan Chi-juei, who had been living in Tientsin since his discharge by President Li, immediately organized an expedition against Chang Hsun and easily defeated him. The monarchist move thus failed. Feng Kuo-chang was now appointed President, and Tuan Chi-juei formed a cabinet for the second time, the proposed declaration of war against Germany being issued on August 14, 1917.

In spite of the services he rendered the Republic by crushing the monarchist move, the relations between Tuan Chi-juei and the Kuomintang failed to improve. The Nationalists continued their demand for the restoration of the national assembly but Tuan would not approve it. Meanwhile, the former members of the national assembly, encouraged by a circular telegram issued by Tang Chi-yao of Yunnan, proceeded to Canton from Shanghai and there supported Sun Yat-sen to become President of the new military government organised in September, 1917, by the Nationalists. Thus, the opposition between the northerners and the southerners became intensified.

Tuan Chi-juei planned to suppress the southerners by armed force but his plan was frustrated by acting President Feng Kuo-chang secretly communicating with the southerners. As a result, the Tuan Cabinet collapsed, but in the absence of any person capable of settling the chaotic situation at the time, Tuan became Prime Minister for the third time, in the seventh year of the Republic (1918). This time he promulgated new ordinances and convened a new national assembly which elected Hsu Shih-chang as President. Subsequently, Tuan resigned of his own accord but his Anfu faction continued its remarkable activity in the political world in the north.

On the other hand, Lu Jung-ting of the Kwangsi faction joined the military government in Canton, which resulted in a reorganization of the government with Sun Yat-sen retiring in favour of Chen Chun-hsuan of the Kwangsi faction as the political superviser. This change brought about a situation favourable for the peace-advocating policy of President Hsu Shin-chang and under the influence of the atmosphere created by the termination of the Great European War, a peace conference of the northerners and southerners was called in Shanghai during 1919. No agreement was reached at the parley, however, and the conditions in the north and south remained most chaotic. Internal dissension of the southerners continued, with Sun Yat-sen and his associates being driven away from Canton by the Kwangsi faction.

In March, 1920, the opposition between the Chihli and Anfu factions came to the surface with the result that Tuan Chi-juei, leader of the Anfu group, organized an expedition against the Chihli group headed by Tsao Kun who had among his lieutenants Wu Pei-fu. Chang Tsuo-lin, the then governor of the Three Eastern Provinces, sent his troops across the Great Wall to assist the Chihli forces. The Anfu troops were defeated and Tuan Chi-juei retired from active service.

The militarists in the south were also fighting among themselves with the result that the Kwangsi faction was expelled from Canton and Sun Yat-sen and his associates returned. The military government there was reorganized

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and the old national assembly was convened in Canton in April, 1921, when the general principles for the organization of the National Government were decided and Sun Yat-sen was elected formal President of the Chinese Republic.

The Nationalists led by Sun Yat-sen soon placed Kwangsi under their control, but their influence, confined as it still was within the bounds of the two provinces of Kwangtung and Kwangsi, could not affect the general situation in China. On the other hand, the Fengtien (Mukden) faction in the north rapidly increased its influence after the defeat of the Anfu faction but the antagonism between the Chihli group and the Anfu group had been eliminated only to be replaced by the rivalry between the Chihli group and the Fengtien clique. About that time, many local militarists declared their independence and the organization of a sort of Federation of Provinces of China after the model of the United States of America in order to realize the national unity of the Chinese Republic was advocated.

In April, 1922, the Chihli and Fengtien factions came into armed conflict. The Fengtienites were defeated and Chang Tsuo-lin retired to the Three Eastern Provinces while the Chihli faction, elated over the victory and with Wu Pei-fu as its leader, commenced working for a compromise with the southerners. A circular telegram was issued announcing an accord between the north and the south and Hsu Shih-chang was reinstated as President. In the following year, Tsao Kun drove President Hsu out of office and realized his ambition to become President by bribing members of the national assembly.

Prior to this, Sun Yat-sen as President of the southern government undertook to achieve national unity by dispatching a punitive expedition against the northerners. The expeditionary forces advanced as far as Kwangsi in the latter part of 1921, but in November Sun Yat-sen had to escape to Shanghai becuase Chen Chiung-ming, military leader at Canton, rose in revolt against him. While Sun was planning a rally, the Soviet diplomat Joffe arrived in the East and held an interview with Sun in Shanghai during January, 1922. Their conversation resulted in an agreement whereby the Soviet would assist in the accomplishment of the Chinese Revolution and the Chinese Communist Party would cooperate with the Kuomintang. In the same month the Kuomintang was reformed and Sun was invited to Canton to assume the post of generalissimo.

When Tsao Kun bribed members of the national assembly for the realization of his ambition to become president Chang Tsuo-lin of Mukden, Lu Yung-hsiang of Chekiang and the Kwangtung government formed a tripartite alliance against the Chihli faction. In September, 1924 Wu Pei-fu caused Chi Hsieh-yuan to lead an expedition against Lu Yung-hsiang, but before the expedition could be completed, the second war between the Chihli and Fengtien factions broke out and the former had to fight with desperation because the latter was assisted by the Kwangtung faction in the south. In October, Feng Yu-hsiang, who was then commander of the third army of the Chihli forces, suddenly appeared with his army in Peking and demanded peace. Wu Pei-fu fell from power, and following up his success, Feng imprisoned President Tsao Kun and caused the Emperor Hsuan Tung to seek refuge because of his non-recognition of the agreement on courteous treatment of the old Imperial family. Tuan Chi-juei returned to power and assumed the post of Regent ad interim.

Expedition to the North As the generalissimo with headquarters in Canton, Sun Yat-sen ordered a punitive expedition to the north in the thirteenth year of the Republic (1924) with Tan Yen-kai designated as commander-in-chief but as the political situation changed as a result of the coup effected by Feng Yu-hsiang, Sun Yat-sen was invited to Peking in November of the same year for a conference with the Northern leaders. There Sun fell ill and died in March of the following year. Meanwhile, the Fengtien faction, in the execution of a plan to advance to the Yangtze valley, clashed with the Five Provinces' Combined Forces under the command of Sun Chuan-fang and was defeated. Taking advantage of the situation thus created, Kuo Sung-ling stirred up trouble in Manchuria and acting in concert, Feng Yu-hsiang sent a circular telegram proclaiming an expedition against Chang Tsuo-lin. The affair proved a failure for Feng because Wu Pei-fu, who was at Hankow at that time, took action in support of the Fengtien group. The Tuan regime collapsed and Chang Tsuo-lin appeared in Peking again to organize a transitional government with Tu Hsi-kuei as acting regent. When the Nationalist expedition to the north progressed, Chang

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assumed the post of commander-in-chief of the Ankuochun or national pacification forces and finally realized his ambition to become generalissimo, in June, 1927.

After the death of Sun Yat-sen, the Kuomintang made a new start. For some time Hu Han-min acted as the generalissimo and in April, 1925, a National Government on the basis of the committee system was inaugurated with all relations with the Peking Government severed. In July of the following year, Chiang Kai-shek assumed the post of commander-in-chief of the revolutionary forces and the Nationalist expedition to the north was commenced. In October, the Nationalist forces occupied the Wuhan area and toward the end of the same year the Wuhan Government was brought into existence. The Communist Party was in its heyday then and its machination accounted for the recovery of the British concession in Hankow.

January of the sixteenth year of the Republic (1926) witnessed the gaining of control over the Shanghai-Nanking area by the revolutionary forces. The intensification of the dissension between the Kuomintang and the Communist Party led Chiang Kai-shek to remove the National Government to Nanking and to effect a coup against the Communists. When Wuhan and Nanking reached a compromise, Chiang resigned as commander-in-chief of the revolutionary forces and made a trip to Japan. Shortly afterwards, however, he returned to power and carried out the second stage of the expedition to the north to fight against the Chihli and Shantung armies. Feng Yu-hsiang and Yen Hsi-shan joined the Kuomintang about that time and Li Tsung-jen and Pai Chung-hsi, both of Kwangsi, also came forward to assist the revolutionary forces in fighting the Mukden troops.

The expedition steadily progressed favorably for the revolutionary forces until May, 1928, when a hitch occurred as a result of the Tsinan affair, in which they became involved with the Japanese at the time of the occupation of that city, the provincial capital of Shantung. In the meantime, the situation gradually became unfavourable for the Fengtien faction. Chang Tsuo-lin withdrew from Peking to return to Mukden, but on the way he met his death by the train on which he was travelling being blown up. Peking then fell into the hands of the revolutionary forces and was renamed Peiping while Chihli was renamed Hopei.

Chiang Kai-shek the President Upon the completion of the expedition to the north, Chiang Kai-shek became president of the National Government in October, 1928. Chang Hsueh-liang, heir and successor of Chang Tsuo-lin, joined the Kuomintang and the Three Eastern Provinces were placed under the control of the National Government, thus formally realizing the national unity of of the Chinese Republic.

In the eighteenth year of the Republic (1929,) the question of disbanding local troops gave rise to a dispute between the National Government and Feng Yu-hsiang who revolted against the Nanking regime. The revolt was soon suppressed but the internal troubles continued. When Wang Ching-wei, who had been staying abroad on account of his differences with Chiang Kai-shek, returned, he joined in creating a common front with Feng Yu-hsiang, Yen Hsi-shan and Li Tsung-jen against the National Government. Renewed civil war ensued and Chang Hsueh-liang dispatched his troops from Manchuria across the Great Wall into North China to assist the Nanking forces and help them to victory.

The foundation of the National Government thus became solidified and the influence of Chiang Kai-shek increased, but the internal dissension among the Nationalists could not be eliminated so easily. A clash in opinion occurred between Chiang Kai-shek and Hu Han-min over the question of a provisional constitution with the result that Hu, who was then president of the Legislative Yuan of the National Government and outstanding leader of the Kwangtung faction, was kept in confinement for some time and the Kwangtung faction severed its relations with the Nanking government. About that time, the Chinese Communist Party which had been weakened by the coup effected by Chiang Kai-shek gradually regained its influence with the aid of a red army organized in Kiangsi Province. This engaged the attention of Chiang, who finally undertook to suppress the red elements by starting an anti-Communist drive and proceeding to Nanchang to take personal command of the punitive forces.

After the outbreak of the Manchurian Incident of September 18, 1931, the Nanking government reached a compromise with the Kwangtung faction, whereby the National Government was reorganized with Chiang Kai-shek resigning in favour of Lin Sen as the President. Later, Chiang returned to power by assuming the chairmanship

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of the newly created Military Affairs Committee and Wang Ching-wei resumed cooperation with Chiang by assuming the post of president of the Executive Yuan of the National Government. When the Manchurian Incident spread to Shanghai, the advocacy for an early accomplishment of the national unity gained ground and Chiang Kai-shek assumed the post of commander-in-chief of the air, land and sea forces of the Chinese Republic, thus greatly increasing his influence.

The Japanese campaign in Jehol was followed by a conflict between the Japanese and Chinese forces in North China in the 22nd year of the Republic (1933) which brought about a new situation in North China. Huang Fu was appointed chairman of the political affairs committee in Peiping and during the latter part of May an armistice terminating the hostilities within the Great Wall was concluded. Wang Ching-wei held the post of Foreign Minister at the time concurrently with his presidency of the Executive Yuan and took charge of the diplomatic dealings of the National Government with Japan.

During the latter part of 1933, Li Chi-shen of the Kwangsi faction, who had been kept in confinement for some time by Chiang Kai-shek, joined hands with the Leftist elements and established a popular government in Fukien Province by secretly communicating and conspiring with the Communist army. A rebellion broke out, but was immediately crushed by Chiang Kai-shek. The activity of the anti-Japanes elements caused trouble in North China in 1935 at a time which coincided with the launching of a movement for autonomy and defence against Communism by those friendly toward Japan. As a result, an anti-Communist autonomous government was established in East Hopei under the chairmanship of Yin Ju-keng.

Following the emergence of the East Hopei government, the Nanking authorities created a Hopei-Chahar political Council under the chairmanship of Sung Che-yuan. Prior to this, Wang Ching-wei was assaulted and injured by a ruffian in connection with his policy toward Japan and Chiang Kai-shek had succeeded him as head of the Executive Yuan. The Kwangtung faction, which had joined forces with the Nankingites after he outbreak of the Manchurian Incident, again took an uncompromising attitude toward the Chiang Kai-shek regime after its leader Hu Han-min suddenly died in May, 1936 and revolted with anti-Japanese slogans. Public opinion in the country, however, was against internal dissension at a time when the nation was face to face with a crisis, and this, causing a split in the Kwangtung faction, resulted in the revolt collapsing and Chen Chi-tang fleeing from Canton, in July.

In November of the 25th year of the Republic (1936), the Suiyuan affair occurred and hostilities were opened between the Inner Mongolian troops and the central army. While the war situation was developing favourably for the central army, Chiang Kai-shek, who was then visiting at Sian in Shensi Province, was kept in confinement by Chang Hsueh-liang and Yang Hu-cheng. The general situation in the country suddenly became threatening but the trouble was settled when Chiang was released. The compromise which was reached between Nanking and Sian in connection with the release of Chiang led to a great intensification of the anti-Japanese movement and the subsequent outbreak of the Lukouchiao affair on July 7th of the 26th year of the Republic (1937). The affair developed into the North China Incident which in turn developed into a sweeping armed conflict between the Chiang Kai-shek regime and Japan.

As a result of the Japanese advance to Nanking the Kuomintang Government issued an announcement on November 20, 1937, and removed the seat of government to Chungking, placing the military headquarters at Hankow which was again forced to remove to Chungking in October, 1938.

Industries

Agriculture

Only 17 per cent of the entire area of China is now under cultivation. Those engaged in farming, however, account for more than three-fourths of the entire population of the country and four-fifths of the national incomes are composed of receipts from agricultural enterprises. The agricultural community is composed of big landlords, medium landlords, independent farmers, tenant farmers and farming labourers. The tenant farmers accounted for 32 per cent of the emtire agricultural community during 1933, increasing from

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28 per cent in 1912, while the percentage of independent farmers during the same period decreased from 49 per cent to 45 per cent.

The principal agricultural products with the amounts of production are shown in the following table (the figures being given in units of 1,000 piculs) :

	1931	1933	1935	1936
Rice	817,481	879,017	878,627	871,002
Wheat	432,360	450,562	426,052	461,555
Barley	158,552	148,295	158,112	162,748
Kaoliang	131,535	138,324	132,051	153,532
Millet	128,678	132,829	131,098	135,487
Maize	127,744	114,988	129,974	122,602
Rye	30,691	30,360	32,786	32,467
Sweet potatoes	316,537	358,041	369,459	341,797
Oats	—	15,888	17,444	18,036
Peas	—	58,118	66,901	69,096
Beans	—	55,410	63,442	62,253
Glutinous rice	44,140	86,736	88,161	87,296
Soya beans	114,327	145,428	112,311	118,220
Rape-seeds	43,462	42,132	49,749	49,572
Ground-nuts	—	59,613	50,355	52,622
Sesame	—	19,266	15,640	17,300
Leaf tobacco	—	12,598	11,294	12,673
Raw cotton	14,570	16,595	14,586	20,639

Mining

More than 1,000,000 tons of iron ore has been produced annually with Chinese capital, including about 380,000 tons at Tayeh, about 70,0000 tons at Hsiangpishan, about 280,00 tons at Fanchang and about 200,000 tons at Tangtu. The annual output of coal has amounted to some 20,000,000 tons, 39 per cent of which has been produced with the aid of foreign capital, the rest being accounted for by Chinese capital. The production of antimony in China is about 70 per cent of the world's total. China is also a leading producer of tungsten, accounting for 42 per cent of the world's total production.

On account of insufficient facilities the production of steel is small, and considerable supplies, therefore, have to be obtained from abroad. The production of minerals is as follows:

PRODUCTION OF MINERALS

(In units of 1,000 tons)

	1931	1933	1935	1936
Coal	28,820	18,585	14,938	15,034
Iron ore	2,201	1,136	1,364	1,340
Iron	—	173	—	—
Tin	6	8	9	—
Antimony	18	14	19	—
Zinc	14	11	9	—
Tungsten ore	4	6	7	7
Manganese	61	10	—	—
Gold	(118,505)	(94,608)	—	—
Silver	(153,000)	(200,585)	—	—

(Note: The figures in ( ) are in units of tael. The production in Machuria is included. The underlined figures are based on the 1937 edition of the Chinese Year Book.)

Manufacturing Industry

Modern industry was introduced into China after the Opium War of 1840. As a means for self-advancement, the Ching dynasty tried to promote industrial enterprises of a military nature and established the Anking and Shanghai arsenals in 1862. These were followed by the Kiangnan dockyard and a few more similar institutions. After the Sino-Japanese War of 1894, Japan acquired the right to conduct industrial enterprises in the treaty ports of China and the various Powers began working for the acquisition of similar rights. In 1897, Germany having obtained mining concessions along the Kiaochow-Tsinan Railway, intensified competition among the Powers in making investments in China resulted. Under the circumstances, the Chinese bureaucrats and landlords became interested in industrial investments and modern industry entered upon an important stage.

The outbreak of the Great European War in 1914 brought about a situation favourable for a rapid development of industry in China. As the war progressed, foreign capital, with the exception of Japanese, became less active, and gave the Chinese financiers a good opportunity to further the industrial development of their country. This situation, however, did not last very long as boom conditions disappeared with the termination of the war, and the various Powers renewed their efforts for supremacy. Such was the position until 1932 when the Chinese found themselves confronted with both a national and an industrial crisis.

In the light industries, Japanese and British capitals were definitely dominant. During the period from 1919 to 1935, the number of the spindles in the Japanese spinning mills in China increased seven times while those in the Chinese mills increased only three times. The number of weaving machines in the Chinese mills, too, increased by only

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slightly over three times against an increase by fifteen times in the Japanese mills. Detailed figures for the spinning and weaving industry, as given in the 1936 edition of the Year Book compiled by the Shen Pao, are tabulated below:

	1933	1934	1935	1936
Number of mills	133	136	143	143
Number of spindles	5,019,917	5,171,600	5,381,688	5,526,847
Number of weaving machines	39,564	42,834	47,064	52,009
Amount of cotton yarn produced	2,332,684 (bales)	2,272,834 (bales)	2,288,357 (bales)	2,025,489 (bales)
Amount of cotton cloth produced	20,121,900 (rolls)	23,465,437 (rolls)	999,323,134 (thousand square yards)	1,036,575 (thousand square yards)
Amount of raw cotton used	8,706,019 (piculs)	8,955,767 (piculs)	8,892,633 (piculs)	8,768,161 (piculs)
Number of workers	—	—	—	207,899

As a result of the hostilities of 1937 in connection with the China Incident, eight spinning mills under Chinese management were totally destroyed in Shanghai and five others partially destroyed.

The woollen textile industry in China has a history of 50 years but its development has been very slow. According to a survey made at the beginning of 1937, there were 39 mills, with a total capital of 5,069,770 yuan and 2,655 hp., engaged in the woollen textile industry in the country.

With reference to the manufacture of matches, the Chinese displayed considerable activity for a time but at present Japanese capital dominates the industry. No more than 40 per cent of the production of tobacco in China is accounted for by the Chinese; while the salt refining industry has been unable to achieve any remarkable development on account of the restrictions of the Finance Ministry of the National Government.

Prior to the outbreak of the China Incident, the conditions of the flour manufacturing enterprises in China were quite satisfactory. The total capital of the Chinese flour mills in 1935 amounted to 26,900,000 yuan, while the amount of flour produced during the one year ending in July, 1936, reached 61,941,612 bales. The control of the flour manufacturing enterprises in Hopei and Shantung Provinces has, however, since the outbreak of the Incident, fallen into the hands of Japanese capitalists.

The conditions of the machinery industry in China are not satisfactory when viewed from the standpoint of Chinese management. There have been more than 560 factories throughout the the country but their total capital has never exceeded 6,000,000 yuan, and the work they have done has been limited to repairs or manufacture of parts. Almost all necessary machines have been imported from foreign countries, imports of this kind during 1937 amounting to approximately 6,500,000 yuan, the principal items of which were connected chiefly with the expansion of spinning mills under the management of foreign capital and construction work undertaken on the strength of the refunding of the Boxer Indemnity.

The chemical industry in China is still in its infancy. The number of establishments engaged in the industry which have each a capital of more than 100,000 yuan is only 17, made up of five salt factories and twelve acid factories. Only two establishments are capitalized at more than 1,000,000 yuan each. The alcohol manufacturing enterprises in the country have a history of only five or six years but their conditions are comparatively satisfactory.

The following is a list showing the index number of production of the principal industries in China during the past few years:

INDEX NUMBER OF PRINCIPAL INDUSTRIAL PRODUCTS

(Base, 1931=100)

	1932	1933	1934	1935
Cotton Yarn	103.9	93.4	105.9	100.7
Tobacco	114.6	106.9	93.9	99.2
Wheat Flour	66.0	109.4	101.3	89.3
Matches	96.8	100.4	103.0	96.7
Cement	96.8	100.4	103.0	96.7
Beer	—	87.0	105.0	101.1
Alcohol	—	—	—	100.0
General Index	99.5	97.2	100.7	102.1

Accurate statistics for the factory workers in China are still unavailable. According to a survey conducted by the

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National Council of Industrial Associations during 1927, there were more than 2,680,000 factory workers and more than 11,000,000 persons engaged in handiwork during that year. The returns of the survey conducted by the Central Factory Inspection Office at Nanking on the basis of the revised factory law, show that there was a total of 6,344 factories in the various provinces and cities during the first half of 1935, employing a total of 521,215 workers. The number of railway workers was given as 61,545 persons by the Railways Ministry of the National Government, while the Communications Ministry gave the number of workers engaged in the postal service as 26,639 and 23,355 telegraph workers.

The following is a list giving the number of labour unions and their members on the basis of reports received by the International Labour Office:

	Number of Labour Unions	Number of Members
1932	647	411,329
1933	695	422,730
1934	759	462,742
1935	823	469,240

Transportation and Communications

Railways Railway construction in China was started in 1863 but it did not progress rapidly until after 1890. According to a survey compiled at the end of June, 1936, the total length of the state, provincial and private railways in the country was about 10,000 kilometres. The number of state lines was 16, the principal being as follows:

Peking-Hankow Line
Peking-Mukden Line
Tientsin-Pukow Line
Shanghai-Nanking Line
Soochow-Chiahsing Line
Shanghai-Hangchow-Ningpo Line
Peking-Suiyuan Line
Chengtai or Shansi (Shihchiachwang-Taiyuan) Line
Lunghai (Haichow-Tungkwan) Line
Canton-Kowloon Line
Shantung (Tsingtao-Tsinan) Line
Nanchang-Kiukiang Line
Canton-Hankow Line

The railway loans outstanding at the end of June, 1936, amounted to 1,441,637,538 yuan, about 90 per cent of which was accounted for by foreign loans. In other words, every one kilometre of the state railways in China then was under the obligation to redeem a foreign loan amounting to more than 144,000 yuan. The biggest creditor in connection with the railway loans was Great Britain, followed by France and Germany.

Road Road construction has become quite active during the last four or five years. The total length of motor-roads, which was only some 1,000 kilometres in 1921 and a little more than 66,000 kilometres in 1931, reached 109,749 kilometres at the end of 1936. The construction of public highways, which used to be associated chiefly with military operations in connection with civil disturbances and the anti-Communist-bandit drives, has also shown remarkable progress in recent years in line with the general construction programme.

Aviation Aviation in China has a history of only eight or nine years and almost all the activities in this field have been conducted with American and German capital.

The China National Aviation Corporation was brought into existence with a capital of 10,000,000 yuan in 1929 by American capital and technique. The air routes under the management of the corporation at the end of 1936 covered a total distance of 5,595 kilometres including the Shanghai-Chengtu line (2,023 kilometres), the Shanghai-Peking line (1,235 kilometres), the Shanghai-Canton line (1,543 kilometres) and the Chungking-Kunming line (780 kilometres).

The Eurasia Aviation Corporation was established in 1931 with a capital of 7,200,000 yuan, of which 2,500,000 yuan was paid by Germany. Up to 1935, the corporation had inaugurated air services covering a total distance of 6,560 kilometres including the Shanghai-Lanchow line (1,860 kilometres), the Peking-Canton line (2,050 kilometres), the Peking-Lanchow line (1,350 kilometres) and the Sian-Kunming line (1,300 kilometres).

The Southwest Aviation Corporation was established by the Kwangtung Provincial Government in 1934 and was placed under the control of the National Government in 1936 after the settlement of the Southwestern Affair involving a campaign launched by the Southwesterners against the Chiang Kai-shek faction. The air services under the management of this body include the Canton-Hanoi line (the northern line linking the two points via Lungchow, a distance of 838 kilometres, and the southern line connecting the two points via Kwangchowwan, a distance of 1,010 kilometres), the Canton-Nanning line (777 kilometres) and the Canton-Kiung-

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cow line (505 kilometres).

Besides, an aviation corporation was established in North China during November, 1936, in accordance with an agreement reached between Japan and the then Hopei-Chahar Political Council, to take charge of the air services linking North China to Manchoukuo.

Telegraphic Communication At the end of 1936, there were a total number of 1,404 telegraph offices operating a total length of 102,346.1 kilometres of telegraph lines throughout the country. The number of radio stations was 65. The development of the wireless telegraph in the country during the period from 1931 to 1936 is shown in the following table:

	Number of Radio Stations	Number of Transmitting Apparatuses	Number of Receiving Apparatuses
1931	32	73	101
1932	38	89	120
1933	39	99	123
1934	47	117	154
1935	60	143	207
1936	65	173	260

The international telegraphic systems of China are in the hands of the British-managed Eastern Extension Australia and China Company, the Danish-managed Great Northern Telegraph Company (actual control being in British hands) and the American-managed Commercial Pacific Cable Company. Between Japan and China there are cables either owned by the Japanese Government or under joint Sino-Japanese management.

The following is a list classifying the various telegraphic services in China according to management or control:

Points Connected By Telegraphic Services	Managed By
Tsingtao-Sasebo	Japan and China jointly
Shanghai-Hongkong	G. N. T. C.
Shanghai-Nagasaki	„
Shanghai-Hongkong	E. E. A. C. C.
Shanghai-Manila	C. P. C. C.
Shanghai-Nagasaki	Japan
Foochow-Tamsui	„

Shipping The shipping business in China has been almost completely under the control of foreign shipping interests. The greater part of the foreign trade of China has been conducted by foreign vessels and even in the inland river shipping, foreign interests have been dominant over Chinese shipping interests. The volume of shipping, which was 145,000,000 tons for 1935, suddenly decreased to 90,000,000 tons in 1937 on account of the military operations and stoppage of shipping in connection with the China Affair.

The movements of shipping during 1937 together with the activities of Chinese, British and Japanese vessels are shown in the following tables:

1. Movements of Shipping in China (1937)

	Foreign Shipping	Chinese Shipping	Total
Number of arrivals and departures	58,006	133,393	191,399
Tonnage	64,449,000	25,588,738	90,037,738
Percentage of tonnage	72.25	27.75	100.00

2. Arrivals & Departures of Chinese British & Japanese Shipping (1937)

	International Routes	Chinese National Routes	Total
Chinese shipping (excluding junks)	8.30%	4.15%	23.98%
British shipping	36.51	43.43	40.10
Japanese shipping	19.18	11.02	14.23

Among the foreign shipping interests which hold dominant positions in China are Messrs Butterfield and Swire, Messrs. Jardine, Matheson and Company, the Nisshin Kisen Kaisha, the Dairen Kisen Kaisha and the Standard Oil Company.

According to a survey conducted in May, 1935, there were then a total of 20 foreign firms interested in the shipping business in China, operating 199 vessels of a total of 457,337 tons. The number of Chinese shipping companies each having no less than 5,000 tons of ships was 46 which operated 228 ships of a total of 350,961 tons. Of the foreign firms, 6 were Japanese which operated 59 vessels of a total of 141,004 tons against 124 vessels of a total of 305,100 tons for 10 British firms.

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Foreign Trade

Imports and exports in units of 1,000 | yuan are given below:

	Imports	Exports	Total	Excess of Imports
1904	536,046	373,120	909,166	162,926
1909	651,490	528,150	1,179,641	123,339
1914	867,975	537,947	1,405,923	330,028
1919	1,008,022	982,801	1,990,823	25,221
1924	1,586,372	1,202,440	2,788,812	383,932
1929	1,972,083	1,584,440	3,554,524	389,642
1931	2,233,376	1,416,962	3,650,339	816,413
1932	1,634,726	767,535	2,402,261	867,190
1933	1,345,567	611,827	1,957,395	733,739
1934	1,029,665	535,214	1,564,879	494,450
1935	919,211	575,809	1,495,020	343,402
1936	941,544	705,741	1,647,289	235,803
1937	953,386	838,256	1,791,642	115,130
1938	886,200	762,641	1,648,841	123,559

(Note: Up to 1932 the figures include the trade of Manchuria.)

1. Principal Imports

(In 1,000 yuan)

	1934	1935	1936	1937
Metals & ores	98,884	87,443	108,055	131,138
Oils	109,217	101,697	105,133	118,556
Miscellaneous goods	52,099	55,671	119,927	95,825
Machinery and tools	59,306	65,853	59,981	65,013
Books and maps	49,553	53,125	57,467	65,302
Raw cotton & cotton manufactures	126,003	68,679	54,360	37,563
Chemicals	41,594	37,443	51,840	61,282
Vehicles and vessels	36,312	37,016	52,484	42,102
Cereals and flour	111,743	135,917	49,220	58,556
Miscellaneous metal manufactures	53,833	34,806	46,712	41,439

2. Principal Exports

(In 1,000 yuan)

	1934	1935	1936	1937
Textile fibres	74,761	97,396	112,980	128,227
Animals and animal products	77,867	80,256	103,985	124,494
Oils	31,665	57,280	91,387	127,040
Ores, metals and metal products	30,737	43,575	56,743	102,453
Cotton yarn and cotton thread	54,320	42,475	47,476	48,696
Seeds	27,944	49,001	40,805	35,881
Hides, leather and skins	29,108	23,629	40,502	53,785
Tea	36,099	29,624	30,662	30,787
Miscellaneous goods	28,752	29,649	24,639	27,657
Cereals and cereal products	15,722	18,921	24,792	15,170

3. Imports of Gold into China

Imported from	1936	1937
	yuan	yuan
British India	4,419	—
England	761,137	292
Hongkong	308,711	1,721,234
Japan	13,602	—
Others	3,706	—
Total	1,091,575	1,721,526

4. Exports of Gold from China

Exported to	1936	1937
	yuan	yuan
England	19,064,851	24,555,334
Hongkong	—	2,822,277
Total	19,064,851	27,377,611

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The above two tables show an excess of exports over imports, amounting to 17,973,276 yuan in 1936 and 25,656,085 yuan in 1937.

5. Imports of Silver into China

Imported from	1936 yuan	1937 yuan
England	2,579	1,589
Hongkong	4,568,055	502,000
Japan	109,798	92,880
Others	33,050	—
Total	4,713,482	596,469

6. Exports of silver from China

Exported to	1936 yuan	1937 yuan
England	661,961	—
Hongkong	36,788,031	399,085,596
Japan	300	607
America	216,886,471	—
Total	254,336,763	399,086,203

The foregoing two tables show an excess of export over import, amounting to 249,623,281 yuan in 1936 and 398,489,734 yuan in 1937.

FOREIGN TRADE BY COUNTRIES

(Unit: 1,000 yuan)

Year		1935	1936	1937	1938
Total	Imports	919,211	941,545	953,386	886,200
	Exports	575,809	705,741	838,256	762,641
With Japan	Imports	139,593	153,577	150,432	209,864
	Exports	82,059	102,367	84,306	50,736
With Great Britain	Imports	98,232	110,497	111,695	70,606
	Exports	49,463	64,884	80,380	56,769
With U. S. A.	Imports	174,930	185,512	188,859	151,254
	Exports	136,410	186,321	231,449	86,853
With Germany	Imports	103,385	150,238	146,374	112,939
	Exports	28,926	39,174	72,477	56,440

Finance

The budget for the 26th year of the Republic (from July 1st, 1937 to June 30th, 1938) amounted to 1,000,649,499 yuan, as compared with 990,658,450 yuan for the preceding fiscal year. Details of the budget are shown in the following tables:

1. Revenue (In yuan)

	Amount	Percentage	Amount for Preceding Year	Comparison with Preceding Year
Customs duty	369,267,522	36.90	317,937,514	16.13%
Salt gabelle	228,625,553	22.85	189,187,225	20.85
Tobacco and spirits tax	21,046,642	2.10	16,987,395	23.90
Stamp duty	11,300,000	1.13	11,300,000	—
Consolidated taxes	175,617,650	17.55	132,796,117	32.25
Mining tax	4,751,638	0.48	3,631,862	30.83
Exchange tax	170,000	0.03	1,350,000	(-) 87.41
Income tax	25,000,000	2.50	5,000,000	400.00
Inheritance tax (new tax)	2,000,000	0.20	—	100.00
Banking tax	1,600,000	0.16	1,600,000	—
Receipts from state property	4,143 917	0.41	5,791,767	(-) 28.45
Receipts from state enterprises	24,134,307	2.41	21,201,531	12.83
Administrative receipts of government	13,847,095	1.38	10,901,232	27.02
Business profits of government	16,076,784	1.61	41,397,583	(-) 61.17
Receipts from local bodies	3,680,040	0.37	3,198,000	115.07
Miscellaneous receipts	99,391,350	9.93	6,666,113	139.10
Loans	—	—	221,676,111	(-)100.00
Total	1,000,649,499	100.00	990,658,450	1.01

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2. Expenditure (In yuan)

	Amount	Percentage	Amount for Preceding Year	Comparison with Preceding Year
Kuomintang	7,311,440	0.73	5,419,080	34.92
State Council	17,962,546	1.79	15,535,130	15.63
Defence Services	392,499,952	39.22	322,019,200	21.89
Interior	6,188,932	0.62	8,836,520	(-) 29.96
Foreign Affairs	9,435,816	0.94	9,690,234	(-) 2.62
Finance	69,222,090	6.92	64,515,566	7.31
Education	42,934,368	4.29	44,339,962	(-) 3.17
Justice	4,315,846	0.43	3,240,898	33.17
Industry	3,072,322	0.31	4,226,447	(-) 27.31
Communications	5,056,595	0.51	4,835,734	4.57
Mongolian and Tibetan Affairs	2,500,362	0.25	2,320,766	7.74
Subventions	31,015,076	3.10	105,816,000	(-) 70.69
Pacification and relief funds	6,678,497	0.67	5,664,704	17 90
Redemption fund	324,693,754	32.45	239,037,908	35,83
Construction fund	70,000,000	7.00	53,110,221	31.80
Reserve fund for relief purposes	3,000,000	0.30	5,713,360	35.68
Second reserve	4,751,907	0.47		
Capital funds for state undertakings	—	—	96,337,720	(-)100.00
Total	1,000,000,000	100.00	990,658,450	1.01

The settled accounts for the fiscal year of the 23rd year of the Republic (1934-35), as reported by the Ministry of Finance headed by Finance Minister H. H. Kung of the National Government, are tabulated below:

1. Revenue

(In yuan)

Tax receipts	744,922,042.20
Customs duty	353,175,774.95
Salt gabelle	167,437,077.36
Consolidated taxes	104,566,384.64
Cigars and Cigarettes	68,133,649.60
Cotton cloth	15,633,721.46
Wheat flour	4,786,867.71
Matches	8,948,167.92
Cement	3,086,313.48
Snuff	3,977,664.46
Spirits and tobacco duty	11,484,844.06
Stamp duty	6,914,406.46
Mining tax	4,232,259.30
Exchange tax	139,763.71
Banking tax	1,613,539.06
Receipts from state property	2,270,595.96
Receipts from state enterprises	60,503,154.53
Administrative receipts of government	10,627,049.06
Net profits or government enterprises	1,281,060.00
Other receipts	20,676,133.07
Receipts in loans and advances	226,195,589.69
Brought forward from preceding year	59,589,332.69
Total	1,030,706,964.58

2. Expenditure

(In yuan)

Party expenses	6,420,863.57
Civil expenses	230,868,398.94
State Council	16,448,979.01
Ministry of Interior	5,395,405.61
Ministry of Foreign Affairs	8,703,246.32
Ministry of Finance	68,553,342.77
Ministry of Education	31,739,487.23
Ministry of Justice	3,727,229.72
Ministry of Industry	6,725,402.94
Ministry of Communications	6,553,691.63
Ministry of Mongolian and Tibetan Affairs	1,669,457.19
Construction fund	26,364,620.28
Capital funds for state undertakings	537,200.00
Subventions	55,488,072.42
Pacification and relief funds	1,557,205.47
Relief fund	700,000.00
Military expenses	387,855,936.31
Investments in banks	73,500,000.00
Loan Service	237,498,355.57
General Reserve	4,784,901.81
Brought forward from preceding year	89,778,508.47
Total	1,030,706,964.58

A review of the National Government's budgets for the five fiscal years beginning in 1930 shows that the principal items in the table of expenditure are military expenses and loan service funds while the amount set aside

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for education and construction expenses is comparatively small. This fact is well illustrated by the following figures:

1. Military Expenses

(In one million yuan)

	Amount	Percentage to Total Expenditure
1930	312	40.2
1931	304	40.6
1932	321	45.9
1933	373	44.6
1934	384	41.2
1935	321	33.8
1936	322	33.7
1937	392	39.2

(Note: The underlined figures denote that some of the expenses were defrayed during the preceding fiscal year.)

2. Appropriations for Redemption of Loans & Payment of Indemnity

(In one million yuan)

	Amount	Percentage to Total Expenditure
1930	290	37.5
1931	270	36.1
1932	210	30.0
1933	244	29.2
1934	237	25.2
1935	274	29.6
1936	239	24.4
1937	324	32.4

3. Education & Construction Expenses

(In one million yuan)

	Amount	Percentage to Total Expenditure
1933	24	2.8
1934	58	6.2
1935	73	7.6
1936	97	9.7
1937	112	11.2

Most of the revenue comes from customs duties, the salt gabelle and consolidated taxes. The customs duty accounted for 36.9 per cent of the total revenue during the 1937-38 fiscal year (in the 1928-29 fiscal year it was as high as 65.9 per cent) while the salt gabelle accounted for 22.9 per cent and the consolidated taxes, 17.5 per cent. Detailed figures are tabulated below:

PRINCIPAL SOURCES OF INCOME

(In one million yuan)

	Customs Duty	Salt Gabelle	Consolidated Taxes	Total
1929	245	85	39	369
1930	294	130	40	462
1931	389	115	74	618
1932	312	145	83	540
1933	340	159	89	588
1934	335	176	113	624
1935	316	184	116	616
1936	324	205	(132)	—
1937	342	(228)	(175)	—

(Note: The parenthesized figures in the above table are based on the budget estimates of the National Government.)

Banking

The modern-type banking business in China may be said to have commenced in 1900 when the country began to import foreign goods in large quantities. The modern-type banks thus appearing in the country are divided into two categories, i. e. foreign establishments and the Chinese institutions. The increases, 157, and decreases, 156, in the number of Chinese commercial banks during the period from 1912 to 1936 show a net gain of one.

For a long time, the old-fashioned credit associations of China exercised a great influence upon banking circles but, after the panic of 1932, many credit associations went into bankruptcy, while some others were reorganized into modern-type banks. Since the monetary system in the country was unified and a large number of branches of the modern-type banks have commenced operating in the interior, the time honoured associations have been losing their influence. The number of credit associations in the various provinces and their paid-up capital are said to be as follows:

	Number of Credit Associations	Total Amount of Paid-up Capital (Unit: 1,000 yuan)
Kiangsu Province	188	29,947
Chekiang ,,	269	7,563
Shansi ,,	39	1,587
Shantung ,,	75	2,292
Honan ,,	25	2,610
Shensi ,,	6	155
Hopei ,,	99	6,718
Szechwan ,,	53	4,061

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		Number of Credit Associations	Total Amount of Paid-up Capital (Unit 1,000 yuan)
Anhwei	,,	17	445
Kiangsi	,,	73	2,132
Hupei	,,	55	2,824
Hunan	,,	59	1,102
Fukien	,,	85	5,955
Kwangtung	,,	174	8,115
Suiyuan	,,	20	1,376
Total		1,217	76,904

According to the latest available figures, the number of Chinese banks with deposits departments is 28, the total deposits being as below:

	Total Deposits with 28 Banks (In yuan)
1921	13,221,332
1931	206,668,240
1932	246,117,664
1936	456,222,902

Foreign Banks Operating in China

	Head Office	Branches
1. Japanese Banks		
Yokohama Specie Bank	Yokohama	Canton, Hankow, Hongkong, Peking, Shanghai, Tientsin, Tsingtao
Bank of Chosen	Keijo (Seoul)	Shanghai, Tientsin, Tsingtao, Peking
Bank of Taiwan	Taihoku	Shanghai Hankow, Canton, Amoy, Hongkong, Foochow, Swatow
Kanan Bank	,,	Foochow, Canton
Mitsubishi Bank	Tokyo	Shanghai
Mitsui Bank	,,	,,
Sumitomo Bank	Osaka	,,
Bank of Tsinan	Tsinan	Tsingtao
Bank of Tientsin	Tientsin	Peking
Exchange Bank of China	,,	,, (doing no business now)
Bank of Hankow	Hankow	Shanghai
2. British Banks:		
Hongkong & Shanghai Banking Corporation	Hongkong	Shanghai, Tientsin, Hankow, Canton, Peking, Tsingtao, Amoy, Chefoo, Foochow
Chartered Bank of India, China and Australia	London	Shanghai, Tientsin, Hankow, Canton, Hongkong, Peking, Tsingtao
Mercantile Bank of India	London	Shanghai, Hongkong
P. & O. Banking Corporation	London	Shanghai, Hongkong
E. D. Sasson Banking Co.	Hongkong	Shanghai
3. American Banks:		
National City Bank of New York	New York	Canton, Hankow, Hongkong, Peking, Shanghai, Tientsin
Chase Bank	,,	Shanghai, Tientsin, Hongkong
Tientsin Commercial and Credit Corporation, Inc.	Tientsin	
Underwriters Saving Bank for the Far East	Shanghai	Hongkong
4. French Banks:		
Banque de l'Indochine	Paris	Canton, Hankow, Hongkong, Mengtzu, Peking, Shanghai, Tientsin, Kunming
Banque Franco-Chinoise pour le Commerce et l'Industrie	Paris	Peking, Tientsin, Shanghai, Hongkong
Union Mobilière	Shanghai	(Tientsin)
5. Belgian Banks:		
Banque Belge pour l'Etranger	Brussels	Shanghai, Hankow, Tientsin, Hongkong (stet)
Credit Foncier d'Extreme-Orient	,,	Shanghai, Tientsin, Hankow, Peking, Tsinan, Hongkong
6. Dutch Banks:		
Nederlandsche Handel Maatschappij N. V.	Amsterdam	Shanghai, Hongkong

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	Head Office	Branches
Nederlandsche Indische Handels Bank	„	Amoy, Shanghai, Hongkong
7. German Bank:		
Deutsch Asiatische Bank	Berlin	Canton, Hankow, Shanghai, Tientsin, Tsingtao, Peking
8. Soviet Bank:		
Moscow Narodny Bank	Shanghai	
9. Italian Bank:		
Italian Bank for China	Shanghai	Tientsin
10. Portuguese Bank:		
Banco National Ultramarino	Lisbon	Macao, Hongkong

Monetary System

The year 1935 deserves special mention as the year which witnessed China going off the silver standard and adopting the controlled currency system on the basis of foreign exchange. The drastic reform was necessitated by the rapid soaring of the price of silver and the violent rise of the exchange rates of the Chinese currency. The new monetary system was established with the support of the banking capital of Great Britain, while the monetary agreement concluded with the United States contributed much toward the maintenance and operation of the system.

After the outbreak of the China Affair in July, 1937, and even after the fall of Nanking, capital of the National Government, into the hands of Japanese forces, the Chinese monetary system continued to be strongly upheld, contrary to expectations. Among the factors accountable for the continuance of the monetary system were the support extended to the National Government by Great Britain and others and the exchange stabilization funds which the National Government were able to create with the large quantities of silver it obtained from various quarters in the country and shipped abroad.

Emergence of the Provisional Government of the Chinese Republic in North China and the establishment of the Federal Reserve Bank, also in North China, as well as the inauguration of the Renovation Government of the Chinese Republic in Central China, however, rendered it inevitable for the National Government to modify its exchange policy. Under date of March 13th, 1938, the National Government issued a notice announcing that the sales of exchange by the Central Bank in Shanghai would be discontinued and that the Central Bank in Hankow and its branch in Hongkong would conduct such sales instead. This change brought about a week tone in the exchange market in Shanghai, but a collapse was prevented by the deflation arising from the shortage of the old legal tender and the allotment of foreign currencies. Under the circumstances, the Central Bank changed its original scheme and opened an office in Shanghai to receive exchange purchase offers for transmission to the head office in Hankow.

With the nationalization of silver in November 3, 1935, the note issue, which had been in many banks' hands, became the prerogative of the three Government Banks, but the Farmers' Bank was exempted for the time being because of its connections in the interior, where the Government Banks did not function.

The following is a table showing the amount of notes issued by the Central Bank, the Bank of China, the Bank of Communications and the Farmers' Bank of China, demonstrating the growth with the withdrawal of private issues. (The figures are given in units of 1,000 yuan):

	Central Bank	Bank of China	Bank of Communications	Farmers' Bank	Total
End of December, 1935	176,065	286,245	176,244	29,847	668,402
End of December, 1936	325,592	459,310	295,045	162,014	1,241,952
End of December, 1937	430,608	606,548	371,144	230,798	1,639,098
End of January, 1938	432,244	623,324	372,927	244,142	1,677,637
End of February, 1938	441,650	632,986	361,143	261,409	1,777,188
End of March 1938	444,354	654,188	319,013	261,632	1,679,187

The reserves of the aforementioned four banks against note-issues were estimated at the end of February, 1938, to be as follows:

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	Coins & Gold and Silver Bars	Bonds
Central Bank	285,502,000 yuan	156,148,000 yuan
Bank of China	406,340,000	226,646,000
Bank of Communications	216,808,000	144,334,000
Farmers' Bank of China	175,284,000	86,125,000

National Defence

For a number of years, the National Government under the leadership of General Chiang Kai-shek was engaged on large-scale warlike preparations with a hostile eye upon Japan, and this finally led to the outbreak of the China Incident. A review of the conditions of the military operations in connection with the incident shows that although the Chinese troops displayed considerable powers of resistance in some regions, their general standard was low. The lack of unity and discipline and imperfect equipment betrayed the nature of the Chinese troops as semi-feudal bodies. The backwardness of China is reflected in the fact that the National Government, in carrying on its military operations of resistance against Japan, must look to foreign countries for the supply of almost all the arms needed.

There is a point which cannot be overlooked in the consideration of the Chinese troops and that is that the Chinese troops have of late come to be political-minded as a result of the racial movement. The conditions of the Chinese troops in the early stages of the China Affair were as shown in the following lists:

	Commander	Affiliation	Location of Headquarters
First Route	Chen Tiao-yuan	Chiang Kai-shek faction	
Second Route	Liu Chih	,,	Kaifeng
Third Route	Han Fu-chu	Shantung army	Tsinan
Fourth Route	Liu Chien-hsu	Hunan army	Chuhsien (Chekiang)
Eleventh Route	Liu Mao-en	Liu Chenhua clique	Liuan (Anhwei)
Fifteenth Route	Ma Hung-kui	Ninghsia army	Ninghsia
Sixteenth Route	Hsu Yuan-chuan	Formerly of Chang Tsung-chang clique	Wanhsien (Szechwan)
Twentieth Route	Chang Fang	Honan mixed army	Kiangsi
24th Route	Ma Lin	Mohammedan army	Chinghai
26th Route	Sun Lien-chung	Honan army	Chengting (Hopei)
27th Route	Feng Chin-tsai	Shensi army	Tali (Shensi)
Fourth Route Army	Yu Han-mou	Kwangtung army	Canton
Fifth Route Army	Li Tsung-jen	Kwangsi army	Kueilin
Sixth Route Army	Liu Shiang	Szechwan army	Chengtu

Foreign Relations

After the outbreak of the China Incident, originating in the Lukouchiao affair of July 7, 1937, the National Government instituted a great propaganda compaign and mobilized its diplomatic services in an attempt to gain the sympathy and assistance of third countries.

The first appeal of the National Government to the League of Nations was made on August 30th of the same year. On September 13th, the National Government invoked Articles 10, 11 and 17 of the League Covenant in making its second appeal to the Geneva institution. The League Council took up the appeal for discussion on September 16th and then referred the matter to a committee of 23 members, which held its first meeting on September 21st and resolved to invite Japan, China, U. S. A. and Germany to a conference. Japan and Germany declined the invitation but the United States consented to participate in the discussion as an observer.

On September 21st, the Chinese delegate presented a note to the League in connection with the bombing of Nanking by the Japanese air force. The committee of 23 members brought up the question on September 27th and on the basis of the information obtained

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from the Chinese side, passed a resolution censuring Japan for the bombardment of the National Government's capital. The League Assembly unanimously adopted the resolution on the following day. Meeting again on October 1st, the committee of 23 members decided the composition and powers of a subcommittee of 12 members including representatives of Great Britain, China and the Soviet Union. The Chinese side presented another anti-Japanese resolution which, however, had to be modified at the subcommittee meeting, although the Chinese side prepared it only after it had given up its original intention of invoking the provisions of the League Covenant concerning sanctions against Japan.

The chairman of the subcommittee prepared a formula by way of revising the Chinese proposal and Great Britain presented an amendment to the chairman's formula. As neither of them could be agreed upon, the subcommittee decided to create a drafting committee of 6 members on October 4th. The following day witnessed the completion of the draft resolution which was referred to the committee of 23 members and then to the League Assembly. At the meeting of the Assembly which was held on October 6th, all approved the draft resolution except Siam and Poland which abstained from voting. The resolution thus passed contained the following five points:

1. The president of the Assembly shall be requested to take necessary steps in regard to the proposal for the convocation of a conference of those League members who are signatories to the Nine-Power Treaty.

2. The Assembly shall express moral support to China.

3. The Assembly shall recommend to the League nations that they refrain from taking such actions as would weaken the resisting power of China, thereby increasing the difficulties between Japan and China in the present dispute.

4. The Assembly shall recommend to the League nations that they consider the extent to which they shall assist China.

5. Although the Assembly has decided to close its session, the president shall be empowered to call a session of the Assembly any time at the request of the committee of 23 members.

Thus, it may be seen that the League of Nations, while expressing sympathy with China, avoided such words as could be construed as criticism of Japan and which might excite the Japanese people, so that the resolution which it adopted was merely a formal one. By doing so, the League virtually shifted the responsibility for dealing with the Sino-Japanese conflict on to the shoulders of the Nine-Power Treaty Conference which was convened later. The question of recognizing the annexation of Ethiopia by Italy incidentally showed more clearly than ever the inability of the League to help China.

In accordance with the resolution of the Assembly, the president requested the League nations which were signatories to the Nine-Power Treaty to meet in conference concerning the Sino-Japanese conflict. Apparently with a view to avoiding responsibility, both Great Britain and the United States induced Belgium to send out invitations to a proposed conference at Brussels. Although the United States is not a member of the League of Nations, it participated in the Brussels parley with readiness as it played the leading part in the conclusion of the Nine-Power Treaty. The Soviet Union also took part in the parley on the strength of its being a member of the League of Nations while both Japan and Germany refused to participate because they were no longer within the League structure.

The schedule to open the Brussels conference on October 30th was changed on account of the political change in Belgium and the meeting did not commence until November 3rd. When it started, the delegates of the various countries, including the Soviet Union but excluding China, decided that a special committee should be created, in accordance with the proposal presented by the United States, to examine the reply of Japan refusing to participate in the Nine-Power Treaty conference and to employ their good offices in facilitating efforts for a compromise between China and Japan. In this connection, it must be noticed that the Italian delegate emphasized that the best way to find a solution to the question at issue would be to request Japan and China to open direct negotiations.

On November 6th, the Nine-Power Treaty conference decided on another note addressed to Japan, urging peace between Japan and China. The Japanese Government, however, firmly maintained the stand that it had previously taken in its refusal to participate in the Brussels parley. The Chinese delegate then presented a proposal to en-

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force economic sanctions against Japan, which met with instant opposition by the Italian delegate. The Italian delegate also opposed the joint proposal of Great Britain, France and the United States to issue a declaration holding that the action of Japan in China was in contravention of the Nine-Power Treaty and the Kellogg anti-war pact, Sweden announced its intention to abstain from voting on the ground of its lacking important interests in the Far East, and Norway and Denmark followed suit. Accordingly, the joint proposal was adopted with a vote of 14 to one.

An adjournment followed the issuance of the declaration. When the Japanese military operations in the Kiangnan area progressed, the Nine-Power Treaty conference resumed activity on November 22nd, but without anything being achieved, the meeting was brought to an end on November 24th when an adjournment for an indefinite period was declared.

Soviet-Chinese Non-aggression Treaty The negotiations between Nanking and Moscow which had been under way for some time for the conclusion of a non-aggression pact between China and the Soviet Union progressed rapidly along with the development of the situation in connection with the Sino-Japanese conflict and on August 29th, the authorities at Nanking and Moscow who had been maintaining secrecy about their negotiations announced that a Soviet-Chinese non-aggression pact had been concluded. Reports were current that in addition to the non-aggression pact, the National Government concluded a secret pact for mutual assistance with Moscow against Japan but no confirmation has been available. Whether there be such a secret pact or not, however, there has been increasing Soviet assistance to the National Government since the outbreak of the China Incident, including the supply of arms, ammunition, aviators and aircraft.

The Soviet Ambassador to China, Mr. Bogomoloff, who had meant to remain in Nanking until the last moment in the face of the steady advance of Japanese forces on the capital of the National Government, suddenly left Nanking for Moscow by air on September 28th. Upon his arrival at Moscow, he was dismissed from office and was succeeded by Mr. Orelsky who reached Hankow by air in December and has since been maintaining close connections with the Chiang Kai-shek administration. The National Government also issued an order to the Chinese Ambassador in Moscow. Mr. Chiang Ting-fa, during December, instructing him to come home. When the ambassador returned by way of the Indian Ocean during the early part of April, he was relieved of his duties and as his successor, General Yang Chieh, formerly assistant chief of the General Staff who had previously been dispatched to Moscow, was appointed Chinese Ambassador to the Soviet Union under date of May 11th.

Peace-making Efforts of the German Ambassador Under instructions from his home government, the German Ambassador to China, Mr. Oscar P. Trautmann, in the fall of 1937, made endeavours to pave the way for direct negotiations between the National Government and the Japanese Government for a solution of the Sino-Japanese conflict. The Chinese side, however, failed to seize the opportunity provided by the German envoy and the hostilities were continued. Details of the peace-making efforts of Germany were not revealed but in the course of the 72nd session of the Imperial Japanese Diet, on January 22, 1938, Foreign Minister Hirota stated that the Japanese Government presented the following four demands to the National Government:

1. China should abandon the pro-Communist and anti-Japanese policy and should cooperate in the anti-Communist policy of Japan and Manchoukuo.
2. Demilitarized zones should be created within necessary areas and special machineries should be established within the regions concerned.
3. An agreement on close economic collaboration should be concluded among the three nations of Japan, Manchoukuo and China.
4. China should pay necessary reparations to the Japanese Empire.

Lists of Diplomats The following are lists of the various foreign envoys in China and the Chinese envoys to the various foreign countries.

FOREIGN ENVOYS IN CHINA

	Name	Date of Arrival at Post
British Ambassador	Sir Archibald John Kerr Clark Kerr	Apr., 1938
American „	Nelson Trusler Johnson	Sept., 1935

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	Name	Date of Arrival at Post
French Ambassador	Paul Emile Naggiar	July, 1936
German „	Oscar P. Trautmann	Sept., 1935
Italian „	Giuliano Cora	Apr., 1937
Soviet „	Luganetz Orelsky	Dec., 1937
Spanish Minister		
Swedish „	Baron Johan Beck-Friis	Aug., 1937
Cuban Chargé d'Affaires	Francisco Bonacheay Romero	
Norwegian Minister	Fin Koreu	May, 1935
Portuguese „	Armando Navarro	Dec., 1930
Danish „	Oscar de Oxholm	March, 1933
Belgian „	Baron Jules Guillaume	Sept., 1937
Polish „	Georges Bartel de Weydenthal	Jan., 1934
Dutch „	Baron G. W. de Vos van Steenwyk	Sept., 1935
Brazilian „	Renato Lago	Feb., 1936
Swiss Chargé d'Affaires	Etienne Lardy	Jan., 1933
Chilean „	Eleazar Vega	Oct., 1935
Peruvian „	Fernandy Devila	May, 1937
Mexican Minister	General Francisco J. Aguilar	Apr., 1937
Finnish „	Ville Niskanen	May, 1937

CHINESE ENVOYS ABROAD

Location of Post	Office	Name
Great Britain	Ambassador	Quo Tai-chi
United States	„	C. T. Wang
Soviet Union	„	Yang Chieh
Germany	„	Cheng Tien-fang
France	„	V. K. Wellington Koo
Italy	„	Liu Wen-tao
Holland	Minister	Chin Wen-ssu (W King)
Switzerland	Minister	Hu Shih-tseh (C. Hoo)
Turkey	„	Huang Te-chien
Belgium	„	Chien Tai (Tsien Tai)
Spain	Chargé d'Affaires	Wang Te-yen
Portugal	Minister	Li Chin-lun (C. F. Lee)
Denmark	„	Wu Nan-ju
Brazil	„	Hsiung Chung-chih (S. S. Young)
Peru	„	Li Chun
Mexico	„	Tan Shao-hua (S. H. Tan)
Cuba	„	Chu Shih-chuan
Panama	„	Shen Chin-ting (G. D. Shen)
Chile	„	Chang Chien (H. K. Chang)
Poland	„	Wei Chen-tsu
Sweden	„	Wang Ching-chi
Norway	„	„

Delegates to the League of Nations are V. K. Wellington Koo, Quo Tai-chi and Chien Tai.

Sino-Japanese Hostilities in 1937-39

The Manchurian Incident which broke out in 1931 would have terminated with the accomplishment of the Japanese campaign in Jehol during 1933 had it not been for the persistent provocations by Chinese troops on the border of the new independent state of Manchoukuo. As it was, the Sino-Japanese hostilities were extended to North China in May, 1933. The end of the hostilities was marked by the conclusion of the Tangku Agreement and in order to meet the requirements of the new situation thus brought about, the Executive Yuan of the National Government created a political readjustment committee under the chairmanship of the late Mr. Huang Fu. The relations between the new

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Chinese organ in North China and the Japanese side, however, were none too satisfactory. To make matters worse, anti-Japanese terrorisms were frequently committed there by the machinations of the Kuomintang and various secret Chinese societies. The assassination of the presidents of two Chinese newspapers in Tientsin which had connections with the Japanese side, in May, 1935, finally led to the presentation of the Japanese demand for the abolition of the Kuomintang branch in North China and the withdrawal of the Chinese central army from Hopei Province. By way of settling the affair, the so-called Umetsu-Ho Agreement was concluded between the then commander of the Japanese garrison in North China and the Chinese War Minister General Ho Ying-chin who was in charge of the North China branch of the Military Affairs Committee at the time.

Consequently, prospects became brighter and it was loudly advocated that economic cooperation should be established among Japan, Manchoukuo and China. Failing to grasp the real significance of the advocacy, the Chinese side took a non-conciliatory attitude and the North China regime that had been dealing with the Japanese side was suddenly dissolved in August, 1935. In such a manner, the National Government increased its influence in North China and anti-Japanese machinations there were intensified. In the meantime, a movement for autonomy was launched by the Chinese farmers with the result that the East Hopei Anti-Communist Autonomous Government was established under the chairmanship of Mr. Yin Ju-keng within the demilitarized zone as stipulated by the Sino-Japanese truce for North China. Thereupon, the National Government created a Hopei-Chahar Political Council under the chairmanship of General Sung Cheyuan in December of the same year to conform to the new developments.

The situation failed to improve, however, because the Chinese side showed no sign of willingness to realize the necessary econoimc cooperation among the Japanese, Manchoukuo and Chinese peoples. The non-conciliatory attitude of the National Government towards Japan became more conspicuous after the Suiyuan affair, which occurred during the latter part of 1936, and the Sian affair. The negotiations under way between the Japanese and Chinese authorities for a solution of the Chengtu affair broke down and the anti-Japanese sentiment of the Chinese heightened throughout China. Under the conditions, the China Incident broke out.

Lukouchiao Incident On the night of July 7, 1937, a small group of Japanese soldiers was suddenly fired upon by Chinese troops while engaged in manoeuvers at Lukouchiao on the outskirts of Peking. Negotiations were opened immediately for a settlement of the affair but while the negotiations were still in progress, the Chinese troops at Lungwangmiao and other points again made provocations which led the Japanese forces in North China to commence operations against the Chinese. Lungwangmiao was occupied by the Japanese on July 8th and the Chinese troops at Lukouchiao were disarmed. The negotiations finally resulted in an agreement whereby the Chinese troops withdrew to the bank of the Yungting River. On July 9th, however, the Chinese troops advanced to Lungwangmiao in violation of the agreement, thus aggravating the situation again.

While maintaining a policy for preventing amplification of the affair, the Japanese Government viewed the situation with apprehension and announced on July 11th that reinforcements would be dispatched to North China. Meanwhile, the Chinese central army steadily advanced northwards and firing by the Chinese troops took place at intervals at various points. Under the circumstances, the then commander of the Japanese garrison in North China, General Kazuki, announced on July 20th that resolute actions would be taken to deal with the repeated Chinese provocations.

The first severe fighting after the outbreak of the Lukouchiao affair occurred on July 25th when Japanese forces retaliated against the Chinese troops which had fired upon Japanese soldiers repairing the military telephone line linking Tientsin to Peking, in the neighbourhood of the Langfang station. As a result of the occurrence, the Japanese commander sent an ultimatum to the Chinese authorities, demanding the withdrawal of the 37th division under the Command of General Feng Chih-an of the 29th Army from Peking by noon of July 28th. The Chinese firing at the Kwanganmen gate in Peking further stiffened the attitude of the Japanese military authorities, who finally ordered the air force, artillery and infantry into action with a view to driving away the entire 29th Army.

The situation in Tientsin became disquieting because the 38th division under the command of General Chang Tzu-

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chung of the 29th Army concentrated in the neighbourhood of that city. The Japanese garrison enforced special precautions in the city on the night of July 28th when Chinese troops attacked the Japanese. On the following day, the Japanese forces began capturing the Chinese bases of operations in the city and by July 31st had gained complete control. In the meantime, the 37th division evacuated Peking.

On July 29th, the peace preservation corps in Tungchow, the seat of the East-Hopei Anti-Communist Autonomous Government, mutinied and massacred the local Japanese residents including the staff members of the Japanese special service mission there. After the massacre, the mutineers kidnapped Mr. Yin Ju-keng, chairman of the autonomous government, and advanced to the northeast but were soon suppressed by Japanese forces.

Following the escape of General Sung Che-yuan from Peking, peace preservation committees in Peking and Tientsin were inaugurated and Japanese forces entered the walled city of Peking on August 8th, thereby restoring peace and order in the Peking-Tientsin district.

Around Shanghai After the Lukouchiao affair, the anti-Japanese activities in Central and South China increased rapidly under the direction of the National Government with the result that the general Sino-Japanese situation became more and more threatening. The Chinese began establishing military facilities within the Shanghai demilitarized zone, a breach of the Sino-Japanese truce agreement an Shanghai. On August 9th, Lieutenant Oyama and another member of the Japanese Landing Party in Shanghai were assaulted and murdered on the Extension Road of the International Settlement by members of the local Chinese preservation corps. Again on August 13th, Chinese plainclothes agents and regular soldiers fired upon Japanese patrols near the headquarters of the landing party.

Thereupon, the Japanese Government modified its policy of restricting the field of hostilities and resolved upon suppressing the hostile intentions of the Chinese. The resolution was made at a special session of the Cabinet Council on August 14th and was immediately announced in a statement of the Government. The China Incident thus developed in real earnest.

On the same day, units of the Japanese naval air force carried out a bombardment of the Chinese aviation fields in Hangchow and Kwangte. The air force continued daily raids on the Chinese air bases in Nanking, Nanchang and soochow for the purpose of crippling the Chinese air force, besides operating in cooperation with the landing party for the control of the Shanghai area. The landing party started bombardment of the Chinese positions near the North Station on August 13th, establishing its defence works in the North Szechwan Road area.

The Imperial Japanese Diet opened a special session on September 4th to deliberate on measures to cope with the situation arising from the outbreak of the Sino-Japanese hostilities. The Imperial Rescript granted on the occasion of the opening of the session expressed regret at the fact that the Empire had been forced to take resolute action to punish the Chinese troops for their outrages and clarified the fact that the operation of the Imperial forces was aimed at the consolidation of peace in East Asia by urging the National Government to reconsider its attitude. An additional budget to finance the military operations and various related bills were presented to the special Diet session and approved.

Development of North China Fighting The 37th division of the 29th Army which evacuated the Peking region concentrated along the Peking-Hankow Railway line while the 38th division of the same army withdrew from the neighbourhood of Tientsin to proceed southwards along the Tientsin-Pukow Railway line. About that time, the Chinese troops including units of the Central Army were already rushing warlike preparations in and around Paoting on the Peking-Hankow Railway, Tsangchow on the Tientsin-Pukow Railway and Changchiakow (Kalgan) on the Peking-Suiyuan Railway, obviously with a view to encircling the Peking-Tientsin area. The Japanese forces started counter operations by first advancing from Peking on Nankow to repulse the Chinese troops which had entered the demilitarized area in violation of the Doihara-Chin Agreement.

Nankow, strategic point on the Great Wall, was occupied by the Japanese forces on August 12th. Three days later, the Japanese succeeded in capturing the natural stronghold of Pataling. Prior to this, the Japanese Kwantung Army commenced operations to assist its friends operating within the Great Wall. Units of the army marched from Jehol into Chahar and occu-

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pied Changchiakow on August 27th with the result that the entire Chahar Province soon fell into the hands of the Japanese forces. In the meantime, the Inner Mongolian troops started action for the realization of their aspirations of autonomy and commenced operations against the agents of the National Government along the Peking-Suiyuan Railway line with the cooperation of the Japanese forces. Under the conditions, the Japanese forces in the north were divided into two groups, one advancing on Shansi Province and the other marching into Inner Mongolia.

In the Peking-Hankow Railway sector, military operations began making rapid progress on August 15th when the natural stronghold of Fangshan was captured by the Japanese forces. This was soon followed by the Chochow battle. The fall of Chochow into the hands of Japanese forces constituted a signal victory for the Japanese in the North China campaign. On September 24th, Paoting which virtually formed the general headquarters for the Chinese operating along the Peking-Hankow Railway line was taken by the Japanese. On the same day, Tsangchow which was the most important base of operations for the Chinese in the Tientsin-Pukow Railway sector was completely occupied by the Japanese forces.

Development of the Shanghai Fighting Japanese troops commenced landing in the neighbourhood of Lotienchen on the lower reaches of the Yangtze River and Woosung at the estuary of the Hwangpoo River on August 23rd to reinforce the Japanese marines who had been fighting against more than 10 times as many Chinese troops since August 13th. The operations then started progressing in steadily enlarged areas. The walled town of Paoshanhsien was captured by a unit of the Japanese forces on September 6th and connections between this unit and those occupying Lotienchen and Yuehpuchen were soon established. The connections between the Japanese units operating against the Chinese holding the "tochka" (pill-box) positions on the bank of the Hwangpoo River and in the neighbourhood of the Chuking Road and other Japanese units, however, were not established until September 13th on account of the stubborn resistance put up by the Chinese.

The Japanese gradually pressed the Chinese troops back towards the Municipal Government building, and the operations centred around the creeks where the Japanese advance was checked by the stubborn resistance put up by the strongly entrenched Chinese troops. On October 8th, General Iwané Matsui, supreme commander of the Japanese forces in the Shanghai area ordered a general offensive against the Chinese on October 23rd. Two days later, the Chinese troops started retreating, leaving their positions to be occupied by the Japanese who then advanced to Nanhsiang and the Soochow Creek sector.

On November 5th, large groups of Japanese soldiers landed on the northern bank of Hangchow Bay and immediately advanced on Sungkiang and Chekiang. As a result of this surprise landing, the Chinese carried out a general retreat from the Shanghai area and the city of Shanghai, together with Nantao, completely fell into the hands of the Japanese forces on November 12th.

Cleaning-up Operations in North China The Japanese forces operating in the Peking-Hankow Railway sector held a ceremony on entering into the walled town of Paoting on September 25th. On October 8th, Chengting also fell into the hands of the Japanese who launched a general offensive against Shihchiachwang on October 10th and succeeded in capturing the strategic point the same day. After occupying Shunte, the last important Chinese position in Hopei Province, on October 15th, the Japanese advanced into Honan Province and captured Changte on November 5th.

The Japanese forces operating in the Tientsin-Pukow Railway sector continued their advance, acting in concert with their friends in the Peking-Hankow Railway sector. On October 1st, they advanced to Shantung Province and captured Sangyuan. Their operations were soon extended to the Yellow River sector following the occupation of Techow, Chinese stronghold in the northeastern section of Shantung Province.

The various units of the Kwantung Army operating in the Peking-Suiyuan Railway sector took Tatung, the most important area in North Shansi, on September 13th. They then commenced operating to assist in the attack against Hsinkouchen, the natural stronghold which the Chinese troops meant to maintain at all costs as the first line of the defence of Taiyuan. In the face of the vigorous advance of the Japanese forces, however, the Chinese had to begin retreating on November 3rd, leaving numberless dead behind them. In the meantime, a Japanese unit captured Chinghsing, in the colliery

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district, on October 13th and continued to attack Niangtzukwan on the border of Shansi Province. Niangtzukwan fell and the Japanese forces advance on Taiyuan from various directions, finally occupying the provincial capital on November 9th, which marked the accomplishment of the battles in North China and Inner Mongolia.

Occupation of Nanking & Hangchow The Japanese forces gained complete control of Greater Shanghai on December 12th when the operations for clearing Nantao of the remnants of the defeated Chinese troops were successfully concluded. The positions of the Chinese on the outskirts of the city fell easily and Chiating and Nanhsiang were soon taken by the Japanese. The fall of Soochow and Wuhsi followed and operations for the capture of Nanking, the then capital of the National Government, were commenced.

On December 2nd, Kiangyin, stronghold on the Yangtze River fell into the hands of the Japanese who then advanced to Chinkiang and Chuyung, occupying the famous aviation field in the latter place on December 5th. In the meantime, those Japanese units which had crossed the Taihu lake after capturing Soochow reached a point about 10 miles southeast of Nanking on December 5th. Another group of Japanese forces which had been marching westwards after the occupation of Kwangte completely occupied Wuhu on December 10th, thus threatening to cut the retreat of the Chinese troops in Nanking. On the same day, the offensive against the walled town of Nanking was launched and the entire capital fell into the hands of the Japanese three days later.

On December 17th, Prince Asaka as well as General Matsui, the then supreme commander of the Japanese forces in Central China, and Admiral Hasegawa, commander of the Japanese squadron operating in Chinese waters, took part in the triumphal entry of the walled town of Nanking. The offensive was launched on December 22nd against Hangchow which the Japanese forces captured without losing a single soldier.

The Chinese sustained enormous losses in the Nanking battle, leaving 53,874 dead behind them when they were routed. The booty taken by the Japanese included 108 heavy guns, 19 field and mountain guns, 79 trench-mortars, 37 anti-aircraft guns, 7 anti-aircraft machine-guns, 19 howitzers, 956 machine-guns, 136 automatic rifles, 9,334 rifles, 115 revolvers, 10 tanks, 6 airplanes, 36 automobiles, 77,850 hand-grenades, 8,216 rounds of ammunition for heavy guns, 1,026 rounds of ammunition for field and mountain guns and 62,572 rounds of ammunition for trench-mortars.

Hsuchow Battle The fall of Nanking marked the completion of the first stage of the China Incident. The Chinese troops, made up of 7 divisions of the Kwangsi army, 2 divisions of the Szechwan army and the troops under the command of Generals Yu Hsueh-chung, Pang Ping-hsun and Sung Che-yuan as well as the remnants of General Han Fu-chu's troops, and the Central Army then began to strengthen their positions along the Tientsin-Pukow Railway line and the Lunghai Railway line. The commencement of the Japanese preparations for the Hsuchow battle was marked by the occupation of Pengfou on February 2nd following the capture of Linhuikwan on the previous day.

In the process of the Japanese preparations for the Hsuchow battle, about 6 divisions under the command of General Tang En-po were lured into the eastern section of Shantung Province. Failing to perceive the real intentions of the Japanese forces, the Chinese concentrated as many as 30 divisions in the southern section of Shantung, while conducting with elation the propaganda of victory in the Taierhchwang sector.

A part of the Japanese forces advancing from the south was manœuvred for the capture of Yencheng in the northeastern section of the Kiangtung region and also of Founing. They then gained control of Haichow. On May 5th, the main body of the forces crossed the Huai River and advanced on Hsuchow by way of Suhsien. On the other hand, the Japanese units advancing northwards from the district west of the Tientsin-Pukow Railway line cut the road leading to the Hsuchow area in Mengcheng, Yungcheng and Haohsien. Continuing, they succeeded in cutting the last important line of Chinese communication, namely, the Lunghai line, in the neighbourhood of Tangshan on May 14th. Simultaneously, the connections between the Japanese forces in Central China and those marching southwards from North China were established. The Japanese units marching southwards from the neighbourhood of Chining in Shantung advanced to the Lanfeng sector by way of Tsaochow on May 13th, which marked the virtual completion of the Japanese encirclement of the Chinese positions in the Hsuchow area.

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The air units of both the Japanese navy and army operated daily for the bombardment of the Chinese positions with the result that the Chinese troops, in spite of their numerical strength, soon became unsteady and dismayed. On May 19th, the Morozumi unit of the Japanese forces succeeded in occupying one corner of the walled town of Hsuchow, which was immediately followed by the penetration into the town by other Japanese units. The Chinese stronghold, the defence of which was characterized by the Chinese boasted Chiang Kai-shek line, thus fell into the hands of the Japanese, and on May 27th, the historic interview between General Count Hisaichi Terauchi, the supreme commander of the Japanese forces in North China, and General Shunroku Hata, the supreme cmmander of the Japanese forces in Central China who succeeded General Matsui during the early stages of the preparations for the Hsuchow battle, took place in the neighbourhood of the walled town of Hsuchow. On the same day, the Japanese War Minister and Navy Minister were granted an Imperial Message complimenting the forces on their success in capturing Hsuchow.

According to an announcement issued by the army section of the Imperial Headquarters on May 24th, the Chinese troops sustained a total of 240,000 killed and wounded at the least, with some 103,000 dead bodies being left on the battle-field. The Japanese forces captured 96 guns, 270 heavy machine-guns, 86 machine-guns, 2,031 freight cars and 8 armoured trains as well as large quantities of ammunition.

Following the Hsuchow battle, a part of the Japanese forces marched westwards, pressing hard on the fleeing Chinese troops. With the cooperation of the Japanese units crossing the Yellow River from the north, the Yasuda, Nasu and Yokoyama units occupied Lanfeng on May 24th and then captured Kweite on May 27th. The operations for the capture of Kaifeng, the provincial capital of Honan which formed the first line of the defence of the Wuhan area, followed. The general offensive was launched on June 4th and on the following day, the Chinese stronghold was in the hands of the Japanese forces.

The Japanese forces then proceeded to attack Chengchow, junction on the Peking-Hankow Railway and the Lunghai Railway. In the meantime, the Chinese troops breached the embankment of the Yellow River at more than 10 places in an attempt to check the Japanese advance, with the result that tens of thousands of Chinese homes were flooded. The rapid actions taken by the Japanese forces, however, prevented more serious consequences; the embankment was repaired and the Chinese flood sufferers were rescued and cared for.

Hankow Battle Some of the Japanese forces which had occupied Hofei (Luchow) on May 14th started advancing on June 6th in the direction of Anking, the provincial capital of Anhwei, which was taken by a combination of naval, army and air units of the Japanese forces. This was followed by the fall of Hukow and Kiuking. On the other hand, a number of Japanese army units captured Taihu on July 26th and then took Susung. Continuing, they crossed the provincial border into Hupei and captured Huangmei on August 2nd. Thus, the Japanese naval, army and air units steadily pressed on the Wuhan area from the north, northeast and east.

In the face of the steady Japanese advance, the National Government transferred its administrative organs from Hankow to Chunking and advised the local inhabitants to seek shelter at safer places, while rushing warlike preparations by strengthening the defence works in the area. The first line of the defence of the Wuhan area extended as far north as Kunghsien, with Hsuchang on the Peking-Hankow Railway line being made the centre. This line was left in charge of General Tang Enpo. The second line which had its centre at Sinyang traversed the Peking-Hankow Railway and was committed to the charge of General Sun Lien-chung. The third defence line formed a semicircle linking Wushengkwan on the Peking-Hankow Railway to the southern bank of the Yangtze River by way of Macheng, east of Hankow, and crack artillery units and mechanized units were posted along it. Two extra lines were established for the protection of the three main lines, one leading from Kushih to the Yangtze River in the south by way of Macheng and the other along the Tapieh mountain range. The northern extra line had its centre at Loyang and was placed under the command of General Cheng Chien while General Li Tsung-jen was appointed commander of the southern extra line with its centre located at Kushih. Still another section of the defence was created at Macheng with General Chang Fa-kuei appointed commander; this sec-

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tion was primarily aimed at preventing Japanese advance from the bank of the Yangtze River.

Occupation of Canton When the battle for Hankow was in full swing, a campaign no less spectacular was started in South China by the Japanese Army in cooperation with the Navy. Crack units of the Japanese Army and Navy at dawn, October 12th, 1938, succeeded in making a surprise landing at Bias Bay in South China, and made a swift advance toward Canton. On October 15th they occupied Waichow, and on the 19th reached Tsengshing. At 3:30 October 21st, Japanese tank units entered Canton. General Yu Han-mou and other leaders of the Canton armies had fled from Canton before the Japanese entry, and the remnants of Chinese troops in Canton were routed by the Japanese forces on October 21st, 1938.

Fall of Hankow The Wuhan district comprising the three cities of Hankow, Hanyang and Wuchang fell on October 27th, 1938. After breaking through the Chinese positions on the Shih River and Mount Fukinshan, Japanese forces reached the Peking-Hankow railway on October 12th, 1938, thus completing a pincer movement against Hankow. The success of Japanese forces in South China served to confound the Chinese troops in defence of Hankow and all key points fell before the Japanese onslaughts one after another, while General Chiang Kai-shek who had declared to share the fate of Hankow was compelled to flee from the city.

After the fall of Hankow the Japanese forces in North and Central China engaged in clearing the banditry of the Chinese troops in the occupied areas.

Hainan Campaign Early in the morning of February 10th, 1939, crack units of the Japanese Army and Navy succeeded in effecting a surprise landing on Hainan Island, and the Island was soon completely occupied by the Japanese forces.

Activity of the Imperial Navy The Imperial Japanese Navy has displayed remarkable activity since the early stages of the China Incident, at times operating in close cooperation with army units and at other taking independent action. In the beginning, the navy concentrated its efforts on the prevention of amplification of the incident in line with the policy of the Imperial Government and the withdrawal of Japanese residents from various points in Central and South China where the anti-Japanese sentiment heightened with developments in North China. The assault and murder of Lieutenant Oyama of the Japanese Landing Party in Shanghai on August 9th, however, brought about a sudden change in the attitude of the navy and on August 13th, the Japanese marines commenced operations against the Chinese troops.

On August 14th, Chinese airplanes carried out a raid on Japanese warships, the headquarters of the Japanese Landing Party, the Japanese Consulate-General and also dropped bombs in the neighbourhood of the Cathay Hotel and other centres of the International Settlement, causing many casualties among civilians. With a view to crippling the Chinese air force, the navy ordered out an air squadron, which crossed the ocean in defiance of a stormy weather, to attack Hangchow and Kwangte. On the following day, the air squadron bombarded Nanchang, Nanking, Shanhsing, Hangchow, Chiahsing, Soochow, Chuyang and Yangchow, smashing 100 Chinese planes held ready for action on the ground, shooting down about 50 others in aerial warfare and destroying some Chinese aerodromes.

August 25th witnessed the issuance of a statement by Admiral Hasegawa, commander of the Japanese squadron operating in Chinese waters, announcing the blockade of the China coast from the estuary of the Yangtze River to Swatow. The scope of the blockade was enlarged on September 5th to the entire Chinese coast, except the leased territories of third nations and Tsingtao. The declaration of the enlargement was made jointly by Admiral Hasegawa and Admiral Yoshida, commander of the Japanese naval unit operating in South China.

Prior to this, Japanese warships effected the occupation of Tungsha Island. The naval operations for the stoppage of shipping were conducted in two divisions for some time but were later unified in command. A statement announcing the unification was issued on November 20th in the name of Admiral Hasegawa.

Many Chinese warships have been sunk by the Japanese navy, among them, to October 4th, were the cruisers Pinghai, Haichou, Yingjui and Chaoho, in addition to one cruiser of the 2,500-ton class and the gunboats Yat-sen (Ihsien), Tesheng, Yungsui and Yungsheng, the Chinese naval force thus being practically annihilated.

On May 10th, a Japanese naval unit landed on Amoy Island and, driving out the Chinese troops holding the pill-

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box positions, captured the eastern end of the island. The unit carried on its drive against the Chinese, with the co-operation of air corps, until May 11th when the entire island was completely occupied. On the 20th of the same month, another Japanese naval unit attacked Lienyun port, terminus of the Lunghai Railway, occupying the port by effecting a landing in front of the enemy.

The Japanese naval air force sent a squadron of about 30 machines to conduct an aerial bombardment of the Chinese military establishments in Canton and vicinity on May 28th. Daily bombardments followed and the Chinese side appealed to third countries with the assertions that the Japanese air force had been bombing defenceless cities and causing casualties among civilians. The naval section of the Imperial Headquarters, however, contradicted the Chinese assertion by enumerating facts showing that Canton formed an important base of the Japanese military operations.

Under the protection of the navy, the Takahashi and Sato units advanced up the Yangtze River and landed at a point on the lower reaches of Anking on June 12th. The surprise attack forced the Chinese troops to retreat, leaving Anking to be occupied by the Japanese on the same night. Concerted actions of the army, naval and air units of the Japanese forces followed for the clearing of the river of mines and booms as well as for crushing the Chinese troops in their way, and on July 4th they succeeded in taking Hukow, strategic point on the upper reaches of the Yangtze River. Kiukiang was taken on July 26th, and Hankow was now menaced.

Chungking Attacked The Japanese naval air forces made successful raids on Chungking, seat of the Nationalist Government on May 3rd and 4th, and similar raids have been repeated in following months.

Summary of Japanese Military Gains and Losses On May 29, 1939, the Army section of the Imperial Headquarters made public the results of the Sino-Japanese hostilities from the outbreak of the China Affair in July, 1937, to the end of April, 1939.

The total area under Japanese occupation in China comprises the seven provinces of Chahar, Suiyuan, Hopeh, Shantung, Shansi, Kiangsu and Anhwei in their entirety, the greater part of Honan Province, wide areas in the four provinces of Chekiang, Kiangsi, Hupeh and Kwangtung and all of Hainan Island.

The Japanese occupied region in China covers an area of 1,562,938 square kilometres, about two-and-half times as large as Japan, the area of which is 675,365 square kilometres.

The proportion of the Japanese occupied area to China Proper, which has an area of 3,157,346 square kilometres, is 50 to 100, while the percentage of the Japanese occupied area to continental China (including the outlying provinces), which has an area of 10,059,877 square kilometres, is 16 to 100.

COMPARATIVE SINO-JAPANESE LOSSES

(Compiled at the end of April, 1939)

Fronts	Campaigns	Sectors	Period	Chinese Losses Bodies abandoned on battlefields	Japanese Losses Killed
(From July, 1937, until November, 1938)				823,296	47,133
North China	Haichow Campaign & Clean-up Campaign	Haichow Sector and Other Ports of North China	From December, 1938 to April, 1939	73,200	
Central China	Nanchang Campaign	Wuning and Nanchang Sector	March 19 to March 31	12,300	
	Lushan Campaign	Lushan Mountains	April 17 to April 24	920	
	Anlu Campaign & Clean-up Campaign in Other Parts of Central China	Yingcheng and Anlu Sector and Other Places	December, 1938 to April, 1939	17,822	12,865
South China,	Hainan Campaign, Others	Hainan Island & Other Places in South China	December, 1938 to April, 1939	8,807	
	Total			113,049	

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The total losses from the outbreak of the China Affair up to April, 1939, were 936,345 Chinese soldiers killed and left on the battlefield as against 59,998 Japanese killed.

N.B. The results of the Japanese clean-up campaigns in various parts of China have not yet been fully reported. The above list, therefore, is incomplete. Conservative estimates of total Chinese casualties during the period under review may be placed at 2,300,000, including 936,345 bodies actually counted on the battlefields.

ARMS AND WAR MATERIALS CAPTURED BY THE JAPANESE UP TO THE END OF APRIL, 1939

	(From the Outbreak of the China Affair, July, 1937 to November, 1938)	(From December, 1938 to April, 1939)	Total
Rifles	208,017	7,556	215,573
Light Machine-guns	7,982	378	8,360
Heavy Machine-guns	3,222	124	3,346
Revolvers	730	285	1,015
Trench-Mortars	1,211	26	1,237
Field, Cavalry and Mountain Guns, including 15 Centimetre Heavy Guns	686	129	815
Heavy Guns	330	3	333
Infantry Guns	108	—	108
Anti-aircraft Guns	99	—	99
Anti-tank Guns	198	10	208
Grenade Throwers	27	4	31
Bayonets	5,652	184	5,836
Spears	605	107	712
Swords	12,104	81	12,185
Hand Grenades	2,304,039	17,502	2,321,541
Gun shells	817,921	1,873	819,794
Rifle ammunition	13,596,192 rounds	461,542	14,057,734 rounds
Dumdum Bullets	20,000	3,200	23,200
Trench-Mortar Shells	1,718,173	248	1,718,421
Poison-gas Bombs	4 cases	—	4 cases
Revolver Cartridges	37,170 rounds	—	37,170 rounds
Grenades	6,027	—	6,027
Lead Bullets	7,000	—	7,000
Bombs	9	—	9
Mines	152	—	152
Mechanical Mines	60	—	60
Gas Masks	4,430	5	4,435
Tanks, Armoured Cars, Motorcars and Motor-lorries	561	66	627
Aeroplanes	3	—	3
Locomotives	89	—	89
Passenger Carriages and Waggons	2,219	—	2,219
Searchlights	2	—	2
Armoured Trains	8	—	8
Wireless Sets	17	18	35
Telephones	—	8	8
Gunboats	—	1	1
Junks	30	86	116
Steam launches	—	2	2
Bicycles	—	26	26
Bridge-building Materials	For Use by Two Companies	—	For Use by Two Companies
Gasoline	4,000 tins	—	4,000 tins
Horses	1,743	444	2,187

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N.B. The above list is based on the exact figures which appeared in the reports received from the front; all intangible designations, such as "large quantities," are excluded from the list. The amount of ammunition captured by Japanese forces, therefore, may be considerably larger than that shown in the above list. Large quantities of medical supplies, carts, waggons, clothing and provisions, including rice and tobacco also have been captured from the Chinese armies, but this list is concerned only with major items of arms and ammunition. The gun shells mentioned above comprise all sorts of shells, including all heavy gun missiles, except those used for trench-mortars.

Naval Achievements Achievements of the Japanese Naval Air Force in China, as announced by the Navy section of the Imperial Headquarters on November 9, 1938, are tabulated below.

RESULTS OF MAJOR AIR COMBATS

Date	Places	Number of Planes Shot Down		Destroyed on the Ground		Total
		con-firmed	uncon-firmed	con-firmed	uncon-firmed	
July 4	Nanchang	37	8	9	0	54
July 15	Nanchang	0	0	15	0	15
July 16	Hankow	10	0	3	0	13
Jnly 17 & 18	Nanchang	8	0	19	0	27
July 19	Hankow	1	0	13	5	19
August 3	Hankow	27	5	7	0	39
August 6	Hankow	0	0	8	7	15
August 18	Hengyang	14	2	9	3	28
August 30	Nanyung	17	3	0	3	23
September 28	Yunnanfu	7	0	14	0	21
October 4	Liangshan	7	0	9	0	16
October 22	Liangshan	5	0	8	0	13

COMPARATIVE SINO-JAPANESE LOSSES OF AEROPLANES

Date	Shot Down			Destroyed on the Ground			Total	Japanese Total
	con-firmed	uncon-firmed	Total	con-firmed	uncon-firmed	Total		
Up to end of June	439	59	498	459	57	516	1,013	88
Up to end of July	76	12	88	78	15	93	181	5
Up to end of August	66	13	82	26	13	39	121	6
Up to end of September	13	0	13	29	8	37	50	6
Up to end of October	13	1	1	27	8	35	49	6
Grand Total	610	85	195	619	601	720	1,415	111

Operations by Japanese naval planes during the month of November, 1938 were extensive. Bombing expeditions were conducted in the provinces of Kiangsi, Hupeh, Szechuan, Hunan and Kwantung. The air field and military establishments at Ichang in Hupeh Province were bombed many times, while repeated visits were paid to Nanning in Kiangsi Province, Chungking, Liangshan and Chengtu in Szechuan Province, Hengyang in Hunan Province and various points along the Chekiang-Kiangsi and Canton-Hankow Railways. Chinese troop concentrations at Mienyang, 100 kilometres southwest of Hankow, were also attacked.

In Central China, the Japanese naval force continued its drive up the Yangtze during November, sweeping mines and removing booms. After re-opening the waterway at Shuikow, the naval force reached Sangchiashih, 12 miles above Yaowan, on November 5th. Paotachow was reached the following day.

Naval Achievements The Navy section of the Imperial Headquarters on May 31, 1939 announced the results of the Japanese naval operations between January 1st and May 31st, including the losses inflicted on the Chinese air force and the number of mines discovered and disposed of by the Japanese fleet.

(1) Chinese Losses in Aeroplanes: During the period under review, the Chinese air force lost 58 planes, includ-

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ing eight which were not confirmed, bringing the total of Chinese losses since the outbreak of the current Affair to 1,561 planes, including 218, which have not yet been confirmed. The Japanese naval air force lost three planes in the period under review, making a total of 116 lost since the beginning of the China Affair.

(2) Chinese Mines Discovered and Disposed of: The Japanese fleet discovered and disposed of 536 mines in the Yangtze River, bringing the total number of mines discovered and disposed of since the outbreak of the Affair to 2,848, while 237 mines were discovered and disposed of in the Pearl River, making a total of 654 since the beginning of the hostilities. The grand total of mines discovered and disposed of since the inception of the China Affair is placed at 3,502.

Emergence of New Regimes

Provisional Government of the Chinese Republic

Along with the amplification of the Lukouchiao affair of July 7th, which finally developed into the China Affair, the Hopei-Chahar Political Council ceased to function, with the result that a state of anarchy began to prevail in North China. In order to cope with the situation, peace preservation committees were organized within the various areas occupied by the Japanese troops but as they could work only for the maintenance of peace and order in their respective localities, it was strongly urged that a new regime should be established to take charge of the administration of North China as a whole. Accordingly, the Provisional Government of the Chinese Republic was inaugurated at Peking on December 14, 1937, one day after the fall of Nanking, the capital of the National Government.

The Provisional Government is composed of three committees, namely, the Deliberative Committee, the Administrative Committee and the Judicial Committee. The general principles of the official organization of these organs are as follows:

1. Deliberative Committee:

Article 1—The deliberative committee shall be the highest deliberative organ of the Provisional Government.

Article 2—The committee shall have one chairman, five standing members and a number of members.

Article 3—The matters for deliberation shall include (1) administrative policy, (2) legislative bills, (3) budget estimates and settled accounts, (4) appointment of officials of Chienjen rank, (5) declaration of war, negotiation for peace and the conclusion of treaties and (6) other matters which are recognized as requiring the consideration of the said committee.

Article 4—The regulations governing the proceedings of the deliberative committee shall be determined separately.

Article 5—The committee shall have a secretariat.

2. Administrative Committee:

Article 1—The administrative committee shall be the highest administrative organ of the Provisional Government.

Article 2—The committee shall have one chairman and five members.

Article 3—The matters for consideration of the administrative committee shall include (1) legislative bills to be presented to the deliberative committee, (2) budget estimates and settled accounts related to the deliberative bills to be presented to the committee concerning declaration for peace and treaties, (4) amnesties, naturalizations and reinstatements, (5) matters concerning the powers of the organs under its jurisdiction and (6) other matters which are recognized as requiring the consideration of the said committee.

Article 4—The regulations governing the proceedings of the administrative committee shall be determined separately.

Article 5—The administrative committee shall have a secretariat and seven departments, namely, the administrative department, the department of the interior, the department of public peace, the department of education, the department of justice, the department of economics and the department of industry.

Article 6—The administrative committee may engage the service of advisers or counsellors with a view to achieving the best results in administration.

Article 7—The administrative committee may have investigators to inspect conditions of the administration of the various localities.

Article 8—The administrative committee may have auditors to audit budget accounts. The regulations governing auditing shall be determined separately.

3. Judicial Committee:

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Article 1—The judicial committee shall be the highest judicial organ of the Provisional Government.

Article 2—The committee shall have one chairman and five members.

Article 3—The matters for the consideration of the judicial committee shall include (1) unification of the interpretation of laws and ordinances, (2) the change of judicial precedents, (3) such matters to be referred to the deliberative committee as are within its jurisdiction, (4) appointment and dismissal of officials of Chienjen rank of the organs under its jurisdiction and (5) other matters which are recognized as requiring consideration of the committee.

Article 4—The regulations governing the proceedings of the judicial committee shall be determined separately.

Article 5—The judicial committee shall have a secretariat, a supreme court, a court of administrative litigation and a committee on the disciplining of officials.

The Provisional Government announced the structures of its various organs under date of January 1, 1938. Three days later, it issued a decree that the old laws and ordinances would be applied for the time being so long as their provisions did not run counter to the purport of the manifesto issued by the Provisional Government.

Following is a list of the important staff members of the Provisional Government:

1. Deliberative Committee:
   Chairman: Tang Erh-ho
   Standing Members: Wang Ko-min, Chu Shen, Tung Kang, Wang I-tang, Chiang Chao-tsung, Kao Ling-wei, Chi Hsieh-yuan.
2. Administrative Committee:
   Chairman: Wang Ko-min
   Members: (Director of Administrative Department) Wang Ko-min
   (Director of Department of Interior)
   (Director of Public Peace Department) Chi Hsieh-yuan
   (Director of Department of Education) Tang Erh-ho
   (Director of Legislative Department) Chu Shen
   (Director of Relief Department) Wang I-tang
   (Assistant Director of Relief Department) Yao Kuo
   (Director of Department of Industry) Wang Yin-tai
   (Director of Central Construction Office) Yin Tung
   (Assistant Director of Central Construction Office) Li Hsuan-wei
3. Judicial Committee: Chairman, Tung Kang
4. Important Local Officials:
   Kao Ling-wei (Governor of Hopei), Su Ti-jen (Governor of Shansi), Ma Liang (Governor of Shantung), Hsiao Jui-chen (Acting-Governor of Honan).

Amalgamation of the East-Hopei Government The East-Hopei Anti-Communist Autonomous Government issued a statement at the time of the inauguration of the Provisional Government of the Chinese Republic, announcing that it would be willing to dissolve itself in appreciation of the fact that the policy of the new regime and its own proved to be one and the same, and would begin immediately to prepare for the dissolution. By way of putting the finishing touches to the preparations, Mr. Chih Tsung-mo, chief administrator of the East-Hopei Government, held an interview with Mr. Wang Ko-min, chairman of the administrative committee of the Provisional Government, on January 30th, when an agreement was reached between them to merge the East-Hopei into the Provisional Government on February 1st. Official notes embodying the agreement were exchanged between them and their contents were published the same day.

Under date of April 6th, the Provisional Government promulgated a set of regulations prohibiting crimes against the lives and property of individuals and the welfare and order of the community under the penalty of death. The legislation was intended for coping with the transition period, being prescribed to remain in force for three years only.

Education On March 25th, the Provisional Government decided the fundamental policy towards education and on the following day, instructions based on the policy were issued to the various educational institutions in the name of Education Minister Tang Erh-ho. The principal points of the instructions were as follow:

1. In the past, the educational policy as followed by the National Govern-

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ment was to enhance the authority of the Kuomintang and stimulate antagonism against Japan. It is this policy that has led to the present incident. A strict control is, therefore, required in order to stop such pro-Kuomintang and anti-Japanese education in the future.

2. In the rehabilitation of schools, attention shall be paid in the first place to primary schools and later extended to secondary and higher schools. For the establishment of schools, permission of the Provisional Government shall be obtained and instructions of the Department of Education shall be sought.

3. In consideration of the fact that education is capable of making a great contribution towards the betterment of living, close relations with actual life should be maintained in enforcing this educational policy. In education at primary schools due attention shall be paid to the requirements of living as well as to hygiene.

4. Secondary schools shall, as a rule, be divided into two categories, one for male students and the other for female students. Otherwise they shall have separate classes for males and females. Until women's higher professional schools and women's universities are established, however, the general higher professional schools and universities may admit female students to study together with male students.

5. In the education of females, due considerations shall be given to their primary missions, bôth in society and the home, as distinct from those of males. Special stress shall be laid upon character building in their education.

6. All those schools managed by foreigners shall be properly controlled and directed so that they may follow the educational policy of the Provisional Government.

7. With reference to physical training in primary and secondary schools, the materials for instruction shall be arranged with due consideration to national arts as well as exercises.

8. Boy scouts shall be organized with a view to training in collective action and public service. Separate groups shall, as a rule, be formed for each town or village.

9. Teachers at primary and secondary schools shall be trained anew so that their mistaken conceptions, as manifested in the past, may be rectified.

Friendly Policy Towards Japan In response to the statement of the Japanese Government issued on January 16th announcing that no diplomatic dealings would be conducted with the Chiang Kai-shek regime in the future, the Provisional Government at Peking announced its determination to work for the relief of the masses of people suffering from the ravages of war and for the prevention of the spread of Communism with the co-operation of Japan. The Provisional Government made the announcement on January 27th by issuing a lengthy statement in which it enumerated various salient facts showing the blunders committed by the Kuomintang and the Chiang Kai-shek regime and in which it voiced its appreciation of the readiness of the Japanese Government to adjust its diplomatic relations with China by dealing with the Provisional Government. In the statement, the Provisional Government pledged itself to work for the reconstruction of the country, and thereby contribute towards the consolidation of peace in the Orient with the cooperation of the Japanese nation.

With a view to the protection of the Chinese residents in Japan as well as facilitating the conduct of dealings with the Japanese Government, the Provisional Government decided to create a branch office in Tokyo. The decision was carried out on April 10th when the Tokyo branch was inaugurated.

For the purpose of extending respect to the Japanese Government and people and at the same time holding important conversations with the leaders of the Japanese Government, Mr. Wang Ko-min, chairman of the administrative committee of the Provisional Government, arrived in Tokyo on May 1st, flying from Shanghai the same day. Upon arrival Mr. Wang issued a statement through the Japanese Foreign Office, which read in substance as follows:

"The distance between Japan and China has been so shortened that either may be reached from the other in a day, but it is a matter of regret that diplomatic relations between the two nations have been characterized by frequent untoward events culminating in the present unprecedented situation. Whether in power or out of it, I have been making efforts for the collaboration between the Japanese and Chinese peoples. Particularly, I have done my bit at one time as member of the Hopei-Chahar Political Council and at another time as member of the Political Readjustment Committee in North China after the influence of the Kuomintang was extended to that sector of the Chinese Republic. In connection with the present incident, it must be noted

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that I urged peace from the very beginning. When the statesmen of the National Government plunged the people into distress, I found it difficult to remain indifferent and accordingly organized the Provisional Government of the Chinese Republic in Peking in cooperation with my kindred spirits with a view to the restoration of the situation to normalcy and the stabilization of the living of the people.

"I am happy to say that the organization of the Provisional Government has been perfected and the fundamental principles concerning a merger with the Renovation Government have also been decided. This time I have come to Japan with the object of thanking the Government and people of the country for the great assistance they extended to us in the formation of the Provisional Government. Stabilization of the situation in China is, in my opinion, a prerequisite for tranquillity in East Asia and it is essential that the Japanese and Chinese peoples should maintain close relations and supply each other's needs in the interest of East Asian peace. It is my earnest hope that the Government and people of Japan will continue to render great assistance to the Provisional Government in the future from the standpoint of the general situation in East Asia."

North China Customs The Provisional Government took over, on December 16th, 1937, the Maritime Customs in North China which had been under the control of the National Government. On the same day, Mr. Wang Ko-min, chairman of the administrative committee of the Provisional Government, issued the following statement:

"The present Government, which was established on December 14th on the basis of the collective will of the masses of the people, considers the administration of the Customs is important not only from the financial viewpoint but also from the vital and delicate relations it has with commerce and industry. It is impossible for the present Government to neglect any item of administrative affairs in order to promote the real happiness and welfare of the people, and any part of the organisation of the old regime, which was engrossed in causing international political troubles through its pro-Communist and anti-Japanese policy in disregard of the stabilization of the living of the people, should be replaced. It advised, therefore, the Maritime Customs inspectors at Tientsin and Chinwangtao to submit to the direction and control of the present Government. Both the Customs inspectors and their subordinates were willing to accept the advice in appreciation of the situation and accordingly the present Government has taken over the two Customs peacefully. With reference to the obligations secured by the Customs revenue, the present Government will dispose of the share in a fair and adequate manner."

Soon after its inauguration, the Provisional Government created a tariff readjustment committee to study a concrete plan for revising the Customs tariff in conformity with the changed situation. As a result of the function of the committee, a public notice was issued on January 21st and put in operation the following day. The notice follows:

"The Customs revenue forms an important item of the income of the state; it not only occupies a leading position in the finances of the country but also is intimately related to the commerce and industry of the nation. In consideration of this fact, the Government has decided to effect a tariff readjustment with a view to securing the Customs revenue and guaranteeing the various creditor nations' claims concerned. The readjustment will be carried out generally in accordance with the determination of the Customs authorities. On the basis of the already-established policy of the Government, however, the following revision will be effected:

1. Manchoukuo and the Kwantung Leased Territory shall be regarded as foreign lands and a Customs duty shall be imposed on the goods imported therefrom and the goods exported thereto.

2. A revision of the tariff regulations shall be effected to meet the minimum requirements of the stabilization of the living of the people in general and the revised regulations shall be enforced as from January 22nd of the 27th Year of the Chinese Republic (1938).

3. The present surtax on the Customs duty shall be abolished immediately and instead a relief surtax corresponding to 5 per cent of the total amount shall be levied for the relief of areas affected by calamities."

With reference to the tariff revision, the authorities of the Provisional Government issued an informal statement which read in substance as follows:

"The present tariff revision is the result of one month's careful deliberation of the tariff readjustment committee. In connection with import duties,

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reductions and exemptions were made in regard to the minimum number of items prerequisite for the rehabilitation of the devastated areas and the relief of suffering people. With reference to export duties, adequate reductions and exemptions were made in conformity with the requirements of the industrial reconstruction of the devastated areas. In short, the tariff revision was effected from the standpoint of relieving the suffering masses and no discrimination was made against any foreign country.

"Mention must be made here of the fact that the specific trade tariff in East Hopei has now been discontinued and henceforward the revised tariff regulations will be applied to East Hopei, also. Thus, the trade situation will become stable and dishonest dealings and evasions of Customs duty will be vigorously suppressed.

Federal Reserve Bank of China With the object of promoting the industrial development of the country and the economic advance of the nation, the Provisional Government decided on January 7th to establish a Federal Reserve Bank of China, besides commencing efforts to unify the monetary system. On February 6th, the regulations governing the organization of the Federal Reserve Bank of China were promulgated and in accordance with the regulations, representatives of eight Chinese banks participating in the new institution and those of the interested Japanese quarters assembled to hold the inaugural general meeting of the new organ.

The following is a list of the leaders of the Federal Reserve Bank of China:

President and Vice-President, Wang Shih-ching
Adviser, Kiichi Sakatani
Directors: Pan Pai-mei (Manager of the Bank of China)
Hsu Pai-yuan (Manager of the Bank of Communications)
Wang I-ling (Manager of the Kincheng Banking Corporation)
Hsu Han-ching (Manager of the Continental Bank)
Hsia Yun-sheng (Manager of the Bank of East Hopei)
Li Hsuan-wei (Director of the General Affairs Bureau of the Administrative Department)
Auditors: Yueh Chien-fu (Manager of the Yien-yieh Commercial Bank)
Wang Meng-chui (Manager of the China and South Seas Bank)
Hsiung Meng-chu (Director of the Financial Bureau of the Administrative Department)

The Federal Reserve Bank of China commenced its business on March 10th when new currencies were issued for circulation in North China. The Provisional Government issued a statement in which it announced, among other things, that the Federal Reserve Bank of China had concluded a contract with the Japanese Banking Syndicate for a credit amounting to ¥100,000,000. The Provisional Government also promulgated a set of regulations concerning the adjustment of old currencies as follows:

Article 1—The bank-notes and coins issued by the Federal Reserve Bank of China shall be the national currency and all payments shall be made therewith. However, the old bank-notes hitherto in circulation shall be recognized as being current in so far as they conform to the provisions of the present regulations.

Article 2—The bank-notes of the Bank of China and the Bank of Communications as well as those issued by the Hopei Provincial Bank and the Bank of East Hopei may remain in circulation for one full year only from the date of the enforcement of the present regulations.

The bank-notes as mentioned in the foregoing paragraph shall be current at the rate of one yuan per one yuan of the national currency for the time being.

Article 3—The bank-notes of the Central Bank of China and those bank-notes of the Bank of China and the Bank of Communications which bear place names other than Tientsin, Tsingtao and Shantung may remain in circulation for three months only from the date of the enforcement of the present regulations.

The bank-notes as mentioned in the foregoing paragraph shall pass current at the rate of one yuan per one yuan of the national currency for the time being.

Article 4—Those bank-notes hitherto in circulation which are not mentioned in Article 2 and 3 shall be allowed to pass current for three months only on the basis of the provisions of the foregoing article. However, the treasury-notes issued by the Min Sheng Bank

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of Shantung and the bank-notes of the Shansi Provincial Bank, the Shansi-Suiyuan Local Railways Bank, the West Suiyuan Development Bank and the North Shansi Salt Industrial Bank shall be dealt with in accordance with separate regulations.

Article 5—Small notes and coins of less than one yuan shall be handled according to separate regulations.

Article 6—Those banks issuing bank-notes as mentioned in Article 2, Article 3 and Article 4 shall recover their bank-notes in accordance with orders issued by the Government.

Article 7—All payments to the Government including those of taxes and public levies shall be made with the national currency. For the time being, however, the Government shall specify the kind of payments whereto the present regulations are applicable and the government offices which shall accept such payments.

Supplementary Rule

The present regulations shall be enforced as from the day of their promulgation.

Simultaneously, the Provisional Government promulgated a set of regulations for control of such actions likely to disturb financial conditions as are enumerated hereunder:

1. The taking out of silver without the permission of the Government.

2. Dealing in paper currency and exchange for speculative purposes.

3. Circulation of wild rumours about financial matters.

4. Other attempts at disturbance in financial circles.

Sino-Japanese Economic Council Negotiations between the authorities of the Japanese Government and those of the Provisional Government resulted in an agreement to create a Sino-Japanese Economic Council to function as the highest directing organ for the economic development of North China through Sino-Japanese collaboration. Mr. Wang Ko-min, representing the Provisional Government, and the representative of the supreme commander of the Japanese forces in North China met together in Peking on March 26th to sign a memorandum providing for the organization and operation of the council. Immediately after the signing, a joint statement was issued by the headquarters of the Japanese forces and the Provisional Government, which explained the purpose of the new organ. The statement also stated that the economic council was to be composed of 10 members equally divided between the Japanese and the Chinese and that the chairmanship was to be assumed by the chairman of the administrative committee of the Provisional Government while the vice-chairman was to be selected from among the Japanese members of the body.

The economic council was so organized as to have five sections, namely, the banking section, the financial section, the commercial section, the mining and industrial section and the agricultural section. It was indicated that the economic development of North China under the direction of the economic council would be generally divided into two stages. In the first stage, efforts would be concentrated on assisting in the accomplishment of the industrial programmes of Japan and Manchoukuo, thus laying the foundation of the economic co-operative body of Japan, Manchoukuo and China. Positive efforts for the promotion of the development of North China would be made in the second stage. The principal points follow:

1. To make efforts in the first stage to promote the exploitation of the Tatung and Kanlan coal mines with a view to feeding the heavy industries of Japan and Manchoukuo.

2. To work, along with the aforementioned efforts, for the improvement and perfection of the railway and shipping facilities in North China by way of providing for the positive development of North China in the second stage.

3. To endeavour, at the same time, to promote the production of salt at Changlu with a view to increasing the supply of industrial salt needed by the soda industry, staple fibre industry and glass industry of Japan.

4. To work, also, in the first stage, for the rehabilitation of the agricultural districts through the distribution of seeds and guidance in the improvement of crops as well as the adjustment and increase of financial facilities in order to facilitate the positive development of North China in the second stage.

Organization of the Hsin Min Hui With the object of co-operating in the execution of the policy of the Provisional Government, the Hsin Min Hui was inaugurated in Peking on December 24th. After the inaugural meeting, which was attended by many notables including Mr. Wang Ko-min, chairman of the administrative committee of the Provisional Government, a manifesto was issued clarifying the aim of the new body and announcing that deter-

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mined efforts would be made to combat Communism.

After perfecting its central and local organizations, the Hsin Min Hui launched its vigorous new people's movement aiming principally at the political training of the masses and the promotion of agricultural co-operative societies. In the promotion of agricultural co-operative societies, the association stresses respect for the traditional self-governing systems of the agricultural villages and pays special attention to the creation of experimental co-operative zones, besides the training of technical instructors of co-operative societies.

Renovation Government of the Chinese Republic

Along with the progress of the Japanese military operations in Central China, the plan of the Chinese leaders in Shanghai for the establishment of a new regime materialized and the Renovation Government of the Chinese Republic was inaugurated with solemn ceremony at Nanking, the old capital of the Kuomintang administration, on March 28th. Upon its inauguration, the Renovation Government announced a 10-point platform as follows:

1. To enforce a constitutional system providing for three powers standing independent of one another and doing away with the autocratic rule by one party.

2. To exert the utmost efforts for the prevention of the spread of Communism in East Asia, thereby consolidating the foundation of the state and eliminating the source of troubles.

3. To base diplomacy on the principle of equality and make its aim the furtherance of national prestige, promoting Oriental peace in conformity with the conditions of the world and securing permanent friendships with treaty nations.

4. To have the inhabitants of the various areas affected by the military operations return home and cause them to go about their respective business as before, and create peace preservation corps, even in those areas which have not been affected by the military operations, so as to terminate banditry.

5. To place the relief of unemployment, the exploitation of natural resources, the promotion of industry and the improvement of agricultural crops under the direction of the state, inviting foreign capital and realizing a close co-operation with friendly nations for the purposes.

6. To promote the development on a sound basis of the various commercial, industrial and banking enterprises with a view to increasing the wealth of the nation.

7. To foster a people of profound wisdom and strong constitution by adding the essence of modern science to the traditional moral principles and culture of the Chinese Republic and rectifying the previous radical education and superficial knowledge.

8. To work for balancing the budget by curtailing expenses while lessening the burden on the people by abolishing all bad taxes.

9. To adopt the merit system so that men of talent and learning may render efficient services to the country and respect the freedom of speech so that the people may criticize the government at any time.

10. To enforce strict official discipline by severely punishing breaches of discipline and reforming the administrative structure.

With reference to relations with foreign Powers, the Renovation Government issued a statement announcing that the legitimate rights and interests of the Powers would be respected according to the principles of international law and international usage but that the new regime would not recognize any treaty which a foreign Power might conclude with the Kuomintang administration after the inauguration of the Renovation Government.

The general principles of the official organization of the Renovation Government are given below:

Article 1—The Renovation Government of the Chinese Republic shall exercise governing powers in the Chinese Republic.

Article 2—The Renovation Government of the Chinese Republic shall be composed of the following three yuan:

1. Executive Yuan.
2. Legislative Yuan.
3. Judicial Yuan.

Article 3—The Executive Yuan, Legislative Yuan and Judicial Yuan shall each have one president and one vice-president.

Article 4—The Executive Yuan shall be the highest administrative organ of the Renovation Government of the Chinese Republic.

Article 5—The Executive Yuan shall be composed of the various departments as enumerated hereunder:

1. Foreign Affairs.
2. Interior.
3. Pacification.

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4. Finance.
5. Education.
6. Industry.
7. Communications.

The departments may be merged, increased or decreased according to the conditions of state affairs.

Article 6—The Executive Yuan shall have the following sections:

1. Secretariat.
2. Board of Decorations.
3. Board of Examination.
4. Board of Statistics.
5. Board of Ceremonies.
6. Currency Board.
7. Board of Affairs Concerning Chinese Residents Abroad.

Article 7—The Executive Yuan shall have a deliberative committee which, having three standing members, shall meet in session when required by state affairs. The presidents and vice-presidents of the Executive Yuan, Legislative Yuan and Judicial Yuan and the heads of the various departments of the Executive Yuan shall be ex-officio members of the said committee. The official organization of the committee shall be determined separately.

Article 8—The Legislative Yuan shall, until the inauguration of the national assembly, take charge of the deliberation on the legislative bills, budget estimates and matters concerning amnesty, declaration of war and negotiation for peace.

Article 9—The Legislative Yuan shall have a legislative committee of from 40 to 60 members and meetings of the committee shall be presided over by the president of the Legislative Yuan.

Article 10—The Judicial Yuan shall be the highest judicial organ of the Renovation Government of the Chinese Republic and shall have a department of Judicial administration while judicial affairs concerning administration shall be handled at an administrative litigation court.

Article 11—The present general principles shall be enforced as from the day of their promulgation.

The following is a list of the important staff members of the Renovation Government:

President of Executive Yuan,	Liang Hung-chih
Foreign Minister,	Chen Lu
Foreign Vice-Minister,	Lien Yu
Home Minister,	Chen Chun
Home Vice-Minister,	Hsia Chi-feng
Acting Pacification Minister,	Jen Yuan-tao
Pacification Vice-Minister,	Jen Yuan-tao
Finance Minister,	Chen Chin-tao
Finance Vice-Minister,	Yen Chia-shih
Education Minister,	Chen Tse-min
Education Vice-Minister,	Ku Fa-jan
Communications Minister,	Chiang Hung-chieh
Communications Vice-Minister,	Jen Fu-pang
" "	Hu Nai-tai
Minister of Industry,	Wang Tzu-hui
Vice-Minister of Industry,	Shen Neng-yi
Director of Department of Judicial Administration,	Hsu Hsiu-chih
President of Legislative Yuan,	Wen Tsung-yao
Governor of Kiangsu,	Chen Tse-min
Governor of Anhwei,	Yi Tao-liang
Governor of Chekiang,	Wang Jui-kai

Hua Chung Iron Mining Kungssu The first joint Sino-Japanese concern to be formed under the Renovation Government of the Chinese Republic was the Hua Chung Iron Mining Kungssu (corporation) which was inaugurated in Shanghai on April 8th. The inaugural meeting was attended by many notables including Mr. Wang Tzu-hui, Industry Minister of the Renovation Government, and Major-General Harada of Japan.

Taking Over of the Shanghai Customs Negotiations were commenced between Sir Robert Craigie, the British Ambassador to Japan, and Mr. Horinouchi, the Japanese Foreign Vice-Minister, in February concerning the question of the Shanghai Customs. The final agreement between them on the matter was reached on May 2nd and on the following day, the Japanese Government publish-

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ed the progress of the negotiations and the contents of the agreement. According to the agreement, Mr. Li Chien-nan, superintendent of the Shanghai Customs, forwarded a note to Mr. Rawford, Commissioner of the Shanghai Customs, containing the following four points:

1. Foreign loans, the Boxer Indemnity and all other payments shall be in accordance with the arrangements made between Japan and Great Britain.

2. The remainder existing after the expenses of the Shanghai Customs, the security for foreign loans and the Boxer Indemnity have been paid shall be disposed of according to the order of the Renovation Government.

3. Matters concerning the Customs tariff and Customs regulations and questions between China and Japan shall be in accordance with the order of the Renovation Government.

4. The five-coloured flag which is designated as the national flag by the Renovation Government shall be raised atop of the Shanghai Customs building.

Commissioner Rawford approved of the note and the Shanghai Customs were peacefully taken over by the Renovation Government.

Revision of Customs Regulations While the Provisional Government in Peking effected a revision of the Customs tariff affecting 254 items on January 22nd after taking over the North China Customs, the situation brought about by the emergence of the Renovation Government in Central China rendered it necessary for the two governments to unify their tariff policies in consideration of relations with the various Powers. Accordingly, negotiations were opened between the authorities of the two governments, who agreed that the Customs system should be fundamentally reformed so as to conform to the changed situation. The revised tariff based on the agreement was announced on May 31st and enforced as from June 1st. In effecting the revision, the Provisional Government and the Renovation Government issued the following joint decree:

Article 1—A revision of the regulations governing import duties of the 27th year of the Chinese Republic (1938) is hereby promulgated and the same revision shall be enforced as from June 1st of the 27th year of the Chinese Republic.

Article 2—The regulations governing export duties of the 23rd year of the Chinese Republic (1934) shall be revised and the revised regulations shall be enforced as from June 1st of the 27th year of the Chinese Republic (1938).

Article 3—The surtax on import duties hitherto in force shall be discontinued and instead a relief surtax amounting to 5 per cent of the duty shall be levied for the relief of distressed areas.

Article 4—The various regulations of the maritime customs hitherto in force, which do not conflict with the present decree, shall be regarded as remaining in force unless otherwise provided for.

Supplementary Rules

Export duty shall be levied on native products exported to Manchoukuo and the Kwantung Leased Territory.

Import duty shall be levied on goods imported from Manchoukuo and the Kwantung Leased Territory.

In connection with the above-mentioned tariff revision, the authorities of the Japanese Foreign Office granted a press interview, in the course of which the following remarks were made:

"The new import duties as a rule follow the customs regulations enforced on January 1st, 1931, with a change to the metric system, and retain a part (20 items) of the revised tariff promulgated on January 20th by the Provisional Government of the Chinese Republic. They are to be enforced in North China and Central China alike. The new export duties follow the tariff promulgated by the Provisional Government of the Chinese Republic on January 20th and are to be enforced in Shanghai as well. The new re-export duties follow the revised levies in force in the Shanghai area since October 1st and are to be enforced in North China as well.

"It may be recalled that the tariff enforced in 1931, which forms the basis of the afore-mentioned new import duties, was the first tariff to be determined by the National Government on the basis of the tariff autonomy which it acquired with the approval of the Powers concerned in 1929. The tariff was reasonable in regard to Japanese goods, too. In 1933 and 1934 when the National Government effected upward revisions of the tariff, however, an anti-Japanese tariff wall was built up. It is a matter of common knowledge that the Japanese Government made repeated demand to the National Government for the abolition of the tariff wall.

"This time the Provisional Government and the Renovation Government have adopted the comparatively low and reasonable tariff, which fact must be welcome to both Japan and other inter-

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ested countries. It may be not quite in conformity with the current situation to revive the tariff of 1931 but we have to appreciate the measures taken by the new Chinese regimes because both time and careful study are required for effecting a tariff reform and further, the economic situation in China has not yet been stabilized as the China Incident is still in progress.

"In short, the tariff revision which has just been effected is a downward revision when viewed as a whole and is a reasonable one in the light of prevailing conditions. It is a matter for congratulation for the future of the new-born China that the structure of the Customs has been unified through close co-operation between the Provisional Government and the Renovation Government."

Question of Merging the Two Governments

A delegation of the Renovation Government, comprising Mr. Liang Hung-chih, President of the Executive Yuan; Mr. Chen Chin-tao, Minister of Finance, and Mr. Jen Yuan-tao, Vice-Minister of Pacification, arrived in Peking on April 3rd to hold important conversations with the leaders of the Provisional Government with a view to realizing a unified central government. The conversations resulted in a complete accord of opinion that the two governments should be merged at an opportune time. The delegation of the Renovation Government left Peking to return to their posts on April 6th after reaching an understanding with the leaders of the Provisional Government on the following points:

1. The foreign policy should be unified under the supervision of the Provisional Government and the Renovation Government should report all diplomatic affairs to the Provisional Government as such affairs occur.

2. The customs tariff should be unified according to the tariff policy of the Provisional Government.

3. For the time being, the salt gabelle collected in Central China should be assigned to cover the expenses of the Renovation Government. The consolidated tax being levied on cement, cigars, cotton yarn, flour, matches and beer should also be made a source of revenue for the Renovation Government for the time being.

4. The bank-notes and coins issued by the Federal Reserve Bank of China should be made current in Central China in due course of time and until then the old legal tender may circulate in Central China.

Formally to return the visit of the delegation of the Renovation Government, Mr. Wang Ko-min, chairman of the administrative committee of the Provisional Government, arrived in Shanghai on April 28th and called on Mr. Liang Hung-chih on April 30th. In the course of their interview, further conversations concerning the question of merging the two governments were held. This time they agreed to have a joint committee created as a preparatory organ for the realization of the merger of the two governments.

Mongolian Governments

South Chahar Autonomous Government The old Chahar Provincial Government collapsed on August 24th, 1937, when General Liu Ju-ming, chairman of the provincial government, together with his lieutenants, fled the district. Four days later, a peace preservation committee was organized as an emergency measure to cope with the situation. Representatives of the various circles in the province then met in conference on September 3rd when a resolution was passed for the establishment of a South Chahar Autonomous Government by severing the relations between the province and the National Government. The new regime was inaugurated on September 4th.

The leaders of the autonomous government include:

Members of the Supreme Committee:

Tu Yun-yu (in charge of finances and banking)

Kan Pin-hsiang (in charge of communications)

Chen Wang-yu

North Shansi Autonomous Government A peace preservation committee for North Shansi was created on September 14th, 1937, one day after the occupation of Tatung by Japanese forces. On October 15th, the North Shansi Autonomous Government was established in accordance with the following organic law:

Article 1—The North Shansi Autonomous Government shall represent the collective will of the inhabitants of North Shansi.

Article 2—The North Shansi Autonomous Government shall have one highest adviser, one highest committee-man and two committee-men.

The highest committee-man shall supervise the conduct of the affairs of the Government, controlling the various governmental organs.

Important matters of the Government

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shall be referred to a conference of the highest adviser, the highest committee-man and the committee-men.

Article 3—The North Shansi Autonomous Government shall have a secretariat, a civil administrative board, a finance board and a public safety board.

Article 4—The various boards shall each have one adviser and one director. The board directors shall take charge of the business of their respective boards acting under the instructions of the highest committee-man.

Article 5—The Secretariat shall handle the government seals, documents, personnel affairs and confidential matters of the Government.

Article 6—The Civil Administrative Board shall handle matters concerning the local administration, education, public works and local industries.

Article 7—The Finance Board shall handle matters concerning taxation, public loans, banking, governmental enterprises and key industries.

Article 8—The Public Safety Board shall handle police and judicial affairs.

Article 9—The regulations governing the organization of the secretariat and the various boards shall be determined separately.

Article 10—The present organic law shall be enforced as from the day of its promulgation.

Inner Mongolian Autonomous Government A general meeting of the leaders of Inner Mongolia was held in the walled town of Suiyuan on October 27th, 1937, when a resolution was passed for the formation of an Inner Mongolian Autonomous Government under the chairmanship of Prince Yun to be assisted by Prince Teh as vice-chairman. The general principles of the official organization of the autonomous government are as follows:

Article 1—The chairman of the Inner Mongolian Autonomous Government shall be a person who has rendered meritorious services in the restoration movement of the Mongols and shall be designated as such at the Mongolian congress. The chairman shall be the head of the Inner Mongolian Autonomous Government. In the absence of the chairman, the duty shall be performed by the vice-chairman.

Article 2—The Inner Mongolian Autonomous Government shall have for its territory the regions which originally belonged to the Mongols. For the time being, however, its territory shall comprise the Ulanchap League, the Silinghol League, the Ikochao League, the Houho City and the Paotou City.

Article 3—The Inner Mongolian Autonomous Government shall aim at the prevention of the spread of Communism and stand for the amity and harmony of races.

Article 4—(omitted)

Article 5—The chronological year of the Inner Mongolian Autonomous Government shall be in conformity with the period counting from the era of Chinghis (Genghis) Khan.

Article 6—The Inner Mongolian Autonomous Government shall have its capital in Houho.

Article 7—The regulations governing the relations between the Inner Mongolian Autonomous Government and its various local organs shall be determined separately.

Article 8—The organic law of the Inner Mongolian Autonomous Government shall be determined separately.

The provisional organic law of the Inner Mongolian Autonomous Government is given below:

Article 1—The Inner Mongolian Autonomous Government shall be composed of a political council and a general headquarters and shall be supervised by a chairman.

Article 2—The chairman shall be elected at the Mongolian congress and his term of office shall be five years. The regulations governing the organization and powers of the Mongolian congress shall be determined separately.

Article 3—The chairman shall be responsible for all matters concerning the administration of the Union of Inner Mongolia.

Article 4—The Inner Mongolian Autonomous Government shall have one vice-chairman who shall assist the chairman and represent him when he is absent under unavoidable circumstances. The vice-chairman shall be appointed by the chairman with the approval of the Mongolian congress.

Article 5—The political council shall have a president who shall supervise the conduct of all affairs of the council.

Article 6—The general headquarters shall handle military affairs and shall have a commander-in-chief.

Article 7—The decrees issued by the chairman shall be countersigned by the commander-in-chief when military affairs are concerned and by the president of the political council when other matters are concerned.

Article 8—The Inner Mongolian Autonomous Government may have political and military advisers in order to assist the chairman.

Article 9—The Inner Mongolian Au-

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tonomous Government may have counsellors in order to give counsel to the chairman in regard to administrative affairs.

Article 10—The regulations governing the various sections of the Inner Mongolian Autonomous Government and the various local government offices shall be determined by the decree of the chairman.

Supplementary Rule

The present organic law shall be enforced as from December 1st of the 732nd year after the era of Chingghis Khan.

The following is a list of the important staff members of the autonomous government:

Chairman, Prince Teh
Vice-Chairman, Li Shou-chen
President of the Political Council, Tao Ko-tao
Commander-in-Chief, Li Shou-chen

(Note: At the outset, Prince Yun was elected chairman of the autonomous government but after his death on March 24th, the chairmanship was assumed by Prince Teh.)

Federation of Autonomous Governments of Mongolian Provinces In appreciation of their common cause which is featured by the determination to combat Communism and work for racial harmony, the autonomous governments of Inner Mongolia, South Chahar and North Shansi created a joint committee on November 22nd, 1937, in order to facilitate their concerted actions. The agreement for the creation of the organ was signed by representatives of the three governments who assembled in Changchiakow (Kalgan) on November 22nd for the said purpose. It must be noted that the realization of the close co-operation among the three governments forms a strong wing of the anti-Communist axis created by Japan, Germany and Italy.

The first general meeting of the joint committee was held on November 23rd when it was decided to establish a Mongchiang (Mongolian Marches) Banking Corporation to do the banking business in South Chahar and Suiyuan. The new bank, capitalized at 12,000,000 yuan and financed equally by the three autonomous governments, opened its business on December 1st. On the same day, it approached the Bank of Japan with an offer to purchase ¥1,000,000 worth of public loan bonds of Japan. Upon the founding of the bank, the Bank of South Chahar, which forms the nucleus of the new concern, issued a statement which in substance read as follows:

"The Bank of South Chahar, which was opened to business with its head office in Changchiakow (Kalgan) on October 1st has already made considerable contribution towards promoting financial facilities along the Peking-Suiyuan Railway line. As a result of the creation of the joint committee of the autonomous governments of Inner Mongolia, South Chahar and North Shansi, it has now been decided to rename the present bank "the Mengchiang Banking Corporation," as if it were the establishment of a new bank. The capital is to be increased to 12,000,000 yuan. Both the government bank in Suiyuan and the Feng Yeh Bank will be absorbed into the new concern."

The China Affair and Diplomacy

A review of the attitudes of the various Powers toward the China Affair shows that Great Britain and the Soviet Union have been extending both material and moral assistance to the Chiang Kai-shek regime since the outbreak of the incident. The United States has refrained from the application of its Neutrality Act but it has been maintaining a neutral attitude, while showing delicate movements. The attitude of France has been one of following the example of Great Britain in most cases. As for Germany and Italy, they are both closely bound to stand on the side of Japan by the anti-Communist pact but the attitude taken by Germany has been slightly different from that taken by Italy on account of its economic interests in China.

Anglo-Chinese Relations When the Incident spread to Shanghai, Great Britain, regarding the Yangtze Valley as her sphere of influence, began to render assistance to the Chiang Kai-shek regime. She came to take a hostile attitude toward Japan while extending both direct and indirect assistance to support the Chiang administration. Particularly, she took such actions in the course of the Shanghai battle as could not be passed unnoticed.

Simultaneously, Britain made great efforts to induce the United States and France to intervene in the Sino-Japanese conflict, displaying constant diplomatic activities. When the North China incident occurred, the British Government expressed its desire to realize a close co-operation between Britain and the United States in dealing with the situation and made overtures to the Washington authorities. With reference

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to the British overtures, Mr. Cordell Hull, the Secretary of State of the United States, stated in the course of a press conference that the Government had received a notification from the British Foreign Secretary and had merely ackowledged the notification, which showed that the United States had not accepted the British proposals which were reported to be concerted actions by Britain, the United States and France urging Japan and China to discontinue the use of armed force. It was further reported that Britain made such proposals to the United States at the instance of the Chiang Kai-shek regime and after consulting with France.

As the United States maintained a cautious attitude, showing no sign of an intention to accept the British proposals, however, the British Government acted independently and through its diplomatic service, expressed its views and wishes to the Japanese Government.

When the Sino-Japanese hostilities commenced in Shanghai, the various interested Powers separately urged that Shanghai be excluded from the war zone. The situation in Shanghai, however, continued to be aggravated and on August 18, 1937, the British Government suddenly presented proposals to the Japanese Government and the National Government for the creation of a neutral zone in Shanghai. The proposals contained the following major points:

1. The Shanghai area shall be made a neutral zone and both the Japanese and Chinese forces shall withdraw from the zone.

2. The demarcation of the neutral zone shall be made through local negotiations on the spot.

3. Matters concerning the protection of the Japanese residents in the neutral zone shall be handled by the British Government on condition that the Governments of the United States and France extend their assistance.

It is said that the neutral zone proposals were worked out by Mr. J. W. Davidson, British consul-general in Shanghai, and adopted by the British Government. The proposals were also submitted to the American and French Governments together with a request that the two governments co-operate in the realization and execution of the proposals. The National Government accepted the proposals and the French Government expressed support for them but the American Government, considering the proposals to be impracticable, took an indifferent attitude and did not give a reply. The Japanese Government maintained that the Shanghai hostilities had been caused by Chinese provocation and that the way to a solution of the issue was for the Chinese regulars and peace preservation corps to evacuate the demilitarized zone as stipulated by the Shanghai truce of 1932 and thus rejected the British proposals.

The British Government forwarded an official note to the Japanese Government on August 21, 1937, demanding an indemnity. The British note asserted that Japan should be responsible for the payment of an indemnity against the losses sustained by British residents through the Sino-Japanese conflict and that Japan should be responsible for paying rentals, besides making compensation for losses, in regard to the buildings owned by British nationals within the International Settlement which were occupied by Japanese forces.

Thus, Britain made one diplomatic move after another and aimed at inducing the United States to take concerted action. The matter was submitted to the League of Nations, but the League proved powerless, and delegated the subject to a conference of the signatories of the nine-Power treaty with a view to dragging the United States, leading figure in the conclusion of the pact, into the whirlpool. The United States, however, maintained a cautious attitude.

Finding it difficult to secure the cooperation of the United States immediately, Britain finally resolved to act, even single-handed, in rendering the greatest possible assistance to the Chiang Kai-shek regime, the assistance being mainly financial.

It is considered that the key to the limit of the British assistance to the Chiang regime lies in the amount of the Chinese specie holdings abroad. Previously, large quantities of silver had been hoarded in China but when the monetary system was reformed, the National Government obtained an enormous amount of silver through the nationalization of the white metal. It is believed that the specie holdings of China in London and New York were increased to an unprecedented extent. It is the existence of the specie holdings that has formed the basis of the British financial assistance to the Chiang administration.

Attitude of the American Government As already stated, Great Britain made overtures to the Government of

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the United States when the North China incident occurred, but the latter did not accept the overtures. While there has been no perceptible change in the attitude of avoiding embroilment in the Sino-Japanese dispute, the United States has gradually become nervous over the Far Eastern situation, and though taking an attitude rather cautious as compared with that of the Stimson doctrine, the present administration of the United States has of late come to follow a policy which seems to have only minor differences from that followed by the preceding administration. Nevertheless, it must be noticed here that the United States has always acted in such a manner as to show its intention of dealing with the situation from an independent standpoint, refusing to dance to the tune played by Great Britain.

Breaking the silence which the Government of the United States had maintained toward the North China incident, Mr. Cordell Hull, the American Secretary of State, made a statement on July 16, 1937, that the United States was concerned over any trouble in any section of the world because such trouble could not but affect the interests, rights or obligations of the United States. The statement emphasized the abstract principle of peace or respect of treaties and also touched upon the question of armaments. This statement did not mention any specific nation and merely repeated the foreign policy of the Washington Government, being illustrative of the cautious attitude taken by the United States.

When the situation became aggravated through hostilities spreading to the international port area of Shanghai, much discussion arose in both government and civilian circles in the United States about the question of operating the Neutrality Act, but it was finally decided that it should not be invoked in consideration of the necessity of guaranteeing the security of the American residents in China and the necessity of avoiding embroilment in the vortex of war. For the purpose of guaranteeing the security of the American residents, a contingent of 200 marines was rushed to Shanghai from San Diego and at the same time, the American residents in the dangerous localities were advised to withdraw to safe places.

Further, the Government of the United States urged that the Japanese and Chinese Governments should protect the vested rights and interests of the United States and forwarded a notice to the effect that the Japanese and Chinese Governments should assume responsibility for any losses which the Government of the United States and American citizens might sustain as a result of the Sino-Japanese hostilities.

In consideration of the public opinion at home, President Roosevelt formally announced the banning of shipment of arms to Japan and China by government-owned vessels on September 14th.

Great international sensation was caused by the news that several hundred casualties including four American citizens (one of them being the correspondent of the New York Times) had been caused in a central position in Shanghai by a bombardment by Chinese planes and on September 23rd, 1937, Secretary of State Cordell Hull telegraphed a strong protest to the National Government and at the same time made another statement on the current situation. The second statement clarified certain points which had been left ambiguous by the first statement, giving a general idea of the determination of the American Government to avoid embroilment in any political alliance or trouble but to oppose extreme isolation.

On October 5, 1937, President Roosevelt in addressing an audience in Chicago made the highly inflammatory remarks that international peace was at stake, blamed the aggressor nations (though not giving any specific names) and urged the peace-loving nations to cooperate with one another in effecting a quarantine against the aggressor nations. The speech of President Roosevelt gave an impression that the United States was finally abandoning the policy of quiet watching and was about to take some positive actions. The truth, however, seemed to be that the President intended his speech for home consumption as well as a gesture toward the League of Nations and the conference of the signatories of the nine-Power pact.

On October 6th, one day after President Roosevelt had made his speech in Chicago, the Department of State issued a statement asserting that the action taken by Japan in China ran counter to international principles, besides infringing upon the nine-Power pact and the anti-war pact. This was a statement of the views of the American Government appreciating the official report received from the League Assembly on October 6th. Stress was then laid upon the importance of the various principles governing international rela-

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tions such as were clarified by President Roosevelt in his Chicago speech, namely:

1. Opposition to the use of armed force for the execution of policies and interference with the internal affairs of other countries;

2. Adjustment of international relations through peaceful negotiations and by agreements;

3. Respect by all nations of the rights of other nations;

4. Upholding of the principle of sanctity of treaties.

It was also observed that President Roosevelt had pointed out the following points in examining the international situation:

1. Unless all nations observe law and morality, it will be impossible for tranquillity and peace to exist between nations or within a nation;

2. International anarchism will undermine the very foundation of peace;

3. It in turn will, either immediately or in the future, jeopardize the security of nations, big or small;

4. It therefore is the greatest concern to the American people to see that the spirit of respecting treaties and international morality is restored.

Thus, it may be noted that the third American statement did nothing more than stress the attitude of the United States for upholding principles of peace and for respect of international treaties.

With the League of Nations having taken care to facilitate the United States to co-operate by having revived the advisory committee of 23 nations which had been created at the time of the Manchurian Incident, the United States appointed its Minister to Switzerland to participate in the League meetings in the capacity of an observer and with the same object that characterized the participation of the United States in the League meetings at the time of the Manchurian affair. In other words, the United States' representative to the League meetings gave his counsel at the request of the League but did not participate in any voting.

When the political stage shifted from the League of Nations to the conference of the signatories of the nine-Power pact, the United States dispatched a delegation headed by Mr. Norman Davis, Ambassador-at-large. Great Britain attempted to make the United States the prime mover at the nine-Power pact conference, which was held at Brussels, on the ground that the United States sponsored the nine-Power pact, but the United States did not act just as Britain wished her to do. As a result, the Brussels conference, too, ended in failure.

On May 14, 1938, two days after Secretary of State Cordell Hull announced the principle of non-recognition of invaded territories in connection with the recognition by the League of Nations of the annexation of Ethiopia by Italy, the authorities of the Department of State expatiated upon the announcement and declared that the non-recognition principle would be maintained in regard to the new Chinese regimes established in North China and South China from the same standpoint that the Government of the United States refused to recognize the independence of Manchoukuo. It was also stated that accordingly, Mr. Nelson T. Johnson, the American Ambassador to China, was to be stationed at Hankow so long as the Chiang Kai-shek regime remained there and that the Ambassador was to be transferred to wherever the Chiang administration should establish its offices.

In June, 1938, the United States together with Great Britain and France issued a statement denouncing aerial bombardments, under the influence of the propaganda conducted by the Chinese in connection with the bombardment of Canton by the air force of the Japanese Navy. The Chinese publicists told the various nations that the Japanese naval air force had been bombarding defenceless Chinese cities, causing casualties among non-combatants. On June 11th, Secretary of State Cordell Hull, in the course of a press conference, touched upon the matter and intimated that the Government of the United States would express its opposition against aerial bombardments through checking the exportation of military planes.

Soviet Assistance When Mr. Sun Fo, special emissary of the National Government who had been on a tour of Europe since January with the mission of securing assistance from the Soviet Union and Great Britain and France, paid a second visit to Moscow in June, 1938, rumours were revived about the conclusion of a secret military alliance between the Soviet Union and China. This happened at a time when the Chinese troops had suffered a crushing defeat in the Hsuchow area at the hands of Japanese forces and were in great consternation retreating towards Hankow. It was considered by some circles as possible that the National Government, like a drowning man catching at a straw, had concluded a military

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pact with the Soviet Union by accepting the severe terms imposed by the latter, among which were said to be the following five major points:

1. Joint defence of the Soviet-Chinese frontiers;
2. Supply of arms to the Communist guerrilla corps;
3. Recognition of the specific rights and interests of the Soviet Union in Sinkiang, Ninghsia and Chinghai;
4. Employment of Soviet nationals to serve as advisers to the chairman of the National Government;
5. Reform of the administrative structure of the National Government.

Whether the contents of the alleged secret pact are exactly based on the afore-mentioned terms or not still remains to be known but it is considered almost certain that the Soviet Union secured specific rights and interests in the Sinkiang area in the negotiations for the pact. Some sources even reported that the Soviet Union acquired the right to station one division of Soviet troops in Sinkiang in return for supplying arms to the Chiang Kai-shek regime's troops. At any rate, it is clear that the Soviet Union has been making positive machinations aiming at the increase of the influence of the Chinese Communists through assisting in the long-term anti-Japanese operations.

Positive Activity of France The attitude of France toward the China Affair has been one of following the example of Great Britain in most cases, reflecting the diplomatic dealings between the two countries in regard to the European situation. Since the outbreak of the incident, France has endeavoured to supply arms to the Chiang Kai-shek regime, concluding an agreement with Dr. H. H. Kung for a 200,000,000-franc credit for the purchase of arms for the Chiang administration. One of the routes for the transportation of the arms leads from Haiphong in French Indo-China to Kunming in Yunnan Province by rail, with Kunming being linked to Kweiyang in Kweichow Province by motor car and carriage. The other route leads also from Haiphong to Chennankwan on the border of Kwangsi Province by rail, with Chennankwan being linked to Nanning and Kweilin by motor car and carriage.

It was further reported that an agreement had been reached between France and the Chiang Kai-shek regime whereby a railway connecting Chennankwan and Nanning would be constructed in five months with French capital. Following the defeat of the Chinese troops in the Hsuchow area, it was indicated that France was going to give greater assistance to the Chiang regime than ever before in consideration of the close relations between French Indo-China and Yunnan Province where the Chiang regime means to establish its final base. It is easy to suppose that France has been active in securing whatever possible concessions she can from the Chiang regime in return for her assistance, taking advantage of the relations between Yunnan and French Indo-China.

After the German military advisers to the National Government had withdrawn from China, France joined the Soviet Union in supplying necessary military advisers to the National Government.

Germany and Italy Both Germany and Italy are bound by the anti-Comintern pact to stand by Japan in the China Affair. There has, however been a difference between the attitude taken by Italy and that of Germany. Italy was quick in liquidating all sorts of relations with the Chiang regime such as might be taken to mean Italy's assistance to it, by discontinuing the sale of arms to China and withdrawing its nationals from among the military advisers to the National Government. The attitude taken by Germany in manifesting friendship toward Japan, however, was not quite thorough-going from the very outset. It was not until the latter part of May when the German Government issued a strict order to the German military advisers to the National Government to withdraw that the German advisers resolved to quit the National Government. This dealt a great blow to the Chiang regime inasmuch as the plans of operations and the construction of defence works had been principally in the charge of the German advisers.

Special mention must be made here of the fact that Germany tried to pave the way for peace between Japan and China, but its good offices were set at naught by the lack of sincerity on the part of the Chiang Kai-shek régime, as it was mentioned elsewhere.

Incident and China's Economy

The exact figures of the economic losses which China has sustained directly and indirectly as a result of the Incident are still difficult to obtain, but a Chinese economic expert estimates that up to the end of March, 1938, they totalled some 14,000,000,000 yuan, and included approximately 200,000,000 yuan for military operations, 10,000,000,000 yuan damage to general buildings and property, 800,000,000 yuan lost by commercial and industrial circles and the

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decrease in taxation receipts, and 3,000,000,000 yuan in the incomes of individuals in general.

Surveys conducted by various Chinese circles show that the Chinese losses sustained directly in connection with the hostilities in Shanghai total 4,450,384,560 yuan, as compared with 1,483,461,854 yuan in the Shanghai affair of 1932. The losses arising from the destruction of civilian houses by fires are estimated at 333,000,000 yuan. The various cultural organs are estimated to have sustained a total loss of 10,360,000 yuan, including 6,000,000 yuan for 15 universities and colleges, 2,100,000 yuan for 27 secondary schools, 260,000 yuan for 42 primary schools and 2,000,000 yuan for institutions for social education. The estimated losses sustained by shipping interests total 70,000,000 yuan, for 475 steamers of no less than 100 tons each or a total of 570,000 tons of steamers sunk, confiscated or used for blockading purposes in the Shanghai area.

According to an estimate by an American, the total losses sustained by foreigners amount to 844,400,000 yuan. Details of the estimate are shown in the following table:

Factories and equipment thereof	350,000,000 yuan
Other immovable property	200,000,000 "
Import profits	12,500,000 "
Export profits	5,000,000 "
Decrease in domestic trade	140,000,000 "
Damages to steel, iron and other metal wares	13,400,000 "
Imports by other ports	12,500,000 "
Damages to warehouses	50,000,000 "
Losses of merchandise in war zones	50,000,000 "
Losses of shipping firms	10,000,000 "
Miscellaneous losses of foreign residents	1,000,000 "
Total	844,400,000 "

A report dated November 8th which was presented to the Ministry of Industry by the social welfare bureau of the Shanghai Municipal Office estimates that a total loss amounting to 500,000,000 yuan was caused to more than 2,000 factories within the city of Shanghai alone, including Chapei, Kiangwan, Woosung and Chenju. Some details concerning the losses sustained by the weaving and spinning mills are shown in the following table:

	Number of Mills	Number of Spindles	Number of Weaving Machines
Weaving and spinning mills located in the city of Shanghai	31	1,237,074	8,754
Weaving and spinning mills which sustained losses in the incident	13	423,394	2,342
Percentage of losses	42%	34%	26.7%

The number of factory workers and mill hands who became jobless on account of the incident is quite enormous. According to an investigation made in the early part of November, there were in Shanghai only about 50,000 factory workers and mill hands or 30 per cent of the number recorded prior to the outbreak of the incident. In other words, about 120,000 workers were thrown out of employment as a result of the outbreak.

The loss of the Shanghai-Nanking area dealt a great blow to the economy of China. In this connection, it must be noted that a great difference exists between the loss of the Shanghai-Nanking area, which was thoroughly devastated by gunfire, and the loss of the Peking-Tientsin area, which was taken over intact from the control of the Chiang Kai-shek regime. There is no need to emphasize the fact that Shanghai formed the economic centre of China, accounting for one half of the manufactured goods produced in the country, numerous weaving and spinning mills, flour mills, cement factories, arsenals and ship-building yards being located there. In Nanking, there were ice-factories, flour mills and silk weaving mills. Big rice-cleaning mills, flour mills, filatures and spinning mills were located in Wuhsi and manufactories for flour, matches and cement were to be found in Chinkiang, while Hangchow was the seat of the only aeroplane factory of China and in addition contained some arsenals.

Some details of the Chinese spinning mills which were either totally or partially destroyed by gunfire in the Shanghai area are shown in the following tables:

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1. Totally Destroyed Chinese Spinning Mills

Name of Mill	Spindles	Doublers	Looms	Labourers employed
Yung An No. 2	49,696	—	—	1,856
Yung An No. 4	69,460	35,200	—	1,800
Pao Shing	12,240	2,520	200	855
Tien Sheng	11,588	—	—	630
Shen Hsin No. 1	72,476	—	1,387	3,902
Shen Hsin No. 8	50,400	—	—	2,122
Ming Sung	9,000	400	128	Not working
Heng Dah Sing Kee	21,600	—	—	850
Total	296,560	38,120	1,715	12,025

2. Partially Destroyed Spinning Mills

Name of Mill	Spindles	Doublers	Looms	Labourers employed
Dah Foong Ching Kee	29,950	—	—	1,940
Chung Hsin	34,000	—	—	1,940
Chen Ting	28,502	—	—	2,044
Tai Chi	25,500	5,040	640	140
Heng Fong	54,544	—	614	3,000
Total	172,498	5,040	1,254	9,064

The losses sustained by the Japanese spinning mills cannot be considered as pure economic losses to China but this fact does not prevent the losses from constituting a change in an important component of China's economic structure. It is estimated that the Japanese interests in Shanghai sustained total losses amounting to 200,000,000 yen, of which the losses to spinning mills are estimated at around 40,000,000 yen. The Japanese spinning mills in Tsingtao, comprising 6,500 spindles, 47,000 doublers and 4,412 looms were totally destroyed. The losses thus sustained are estimated at over 100,000,000 yen.

As a result of the Manchurian Incident and the China Affair, the Chiang Kai-shek regime lost the greater part of its important industrial zones. This fact is well illustrated by the following table which shows the distribution of modern industry in China (the table apparently having been compiled by Chinese, as might be supposed from the inclusion of the "Three Eastern Provinces."):

DISTRIBUTION OF MODERN INDUSTRY (1934)

Industry	Three Eastern Provinces	Hopei, Shantung, Kiangsu, Chekiang	Fukien Kwangtung	Others
Steel and iron	13.0%	15.0%	—	72.0%
Cast iron	4.5	81.8	13.7%	—
Leather	4.5	67.0	2.0	26.5
Cement	80.0	14.0	6.0	—
Rubber	—	85.4	14.6	—
Oil	57.7	23.5	12.5	6.3
Machinery	25 factories	174 factories	20 factories	42 factories
Match	13 "	52 "	11 "	9 "
Paper	9 "	16 "	3 "	4 "
Glass	—	34 "	12 "	32 "
Tobacco	—	44 "	—	—
Silk	42 "	121 "	37 "	12 "
Egg	—	5 "	—	118 "

The separation of North China from the Chiang Kai-shek regime is also highly significant from the standpoint of national resources. The emergence of the Provisional Government of the Chinese Republic in Peking to replace the Chiang administration in governing North China brought about a situation favourable for including the vast natural resources in a Japanese-Manchoukuo-

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Chinese economic bloc. The following tables show the estimated deposits of coal, the output of coal, and the estimated deposits of iron ore in the various provinces of North China:

1. Deposits of Coal

Location	Deposits	Proportion to Total Deposits in China
Hopei Province	3,071,000,000 tons	1.26%
Shantung "	1,639,000,000 "	0.67
Honan "	6,624,000,000 "	2.72
Shansi "	127,127,000,000 "	52.17
Shensi "	71,950,000,000 "	29.53
Chahar "	504,000,000 "	0.21
Suiyuan "	417,000,000 "	0.17
Total	211,332,000,000 "	86.73

2. Output of Coal (1931)

Origin	Production	Origin	Production
Hopei Province	7,660,000 tons	Shensi "	227,000 "
Shantung "	2,093,000 "	Chahar "	114,000 "
Honan "	1,844,000 "	Suiyuan "	91,000 "
Shansi "	2,266,000 "	Total	14,295,000

3. Deposits of Iron Ore

Location	Deposits	Proportion to Total Deposits in China
Hopei Province	32,424,000 tons	13.69%
Shantung "	13,700,000 "	5.78
Honan "	1,019,000 "	0.43
Chahar "	91,645,000 "	38.69
Total	138,788,000 "	58.59

The estimated deposits of coal in Central China are shown in the following table:

Location	Deposits	Proportion to Total Deposits in China
Anhwei Province	360,000,000 tons	0.15%
Chekiang "	100,000,000 "	0.04
Kiangsu "	217,000,000 "	0.09
Total	677,000,000 "	0.28

In Central China, there are not many areas under Japanese influence which contain deposits of iron ore. The Taochung and Tangtu iron mines in Anhwei Province, however, are two of the most important mines of this kind in China, their output being shown below:

OUTPUT OF IRON ORE

	1932	1933	1934
Taochung Iron Mine	101,333 tons	110,000 tons	280,000 tons
Tangtu Iron Mine	166,710 "	150,000 "	200,000 "

The principal agricultural products of North China and Central China and the amount of the annual production thereof are tabulated as follows:

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1. Principal Agricultural Products of Central China

(In piculs)

	Kiangsu Province	Anhwei Province	Chekiang Province	Total
Rice	97,633,000	41,229,000	83,956,000	222,818,000
Wheat	57,434,000	26,818,000	8,841,000	84,252,000
Barley	28,680,000	10,936,000	6,356,000	45,971,000
Glutinous Rice	15,330,000	4,279,000	12,521,000	32,130,000
Rapeseed	3,667,000	3,241,000	5,310,000	12,218,000
Sesame	1,787,000	1,432,000	176,000	3,395,000
Raw Cotton	3,951,000	495,000	642,000	5,088,000

2. Principal Agricultural Products of North China

(In piculs)

	Wheat	Kaoliang	Millet	Soyabeans
Hopei Province	37,769,000	17,721,000	28,556,000	5,556,000
Shantung ,,	67,297,000	34,143,000	34,912,000	26,996,000
Honan ,,	78,985,000	23,319,000	28,313,000	16,610,000
Shansi ,,	17,265,000	8,170,000	13,857,000	1,610,000
Shensi ,,	24,129,000	2,095,000	4,882,000	1,287,000
Chahar ,,	2,259,000	5,586,000	3,767,000	763,000
Suiyuan ,,	2,553,000	1,655,000	1,800,000	369,000
Total	230,257,000	92,689,000	116,096,000	53,196,000

	Maize	Rice	Raw Cotton	Ground-nuts
Hopei Province	25,130,000	2,647,000	2,539,000	7,339,000
Shantung ,,	16,190,000	82,000	1,790,000	11,070,000
Honan ,,	15,064,000	4,642,000	1,367,000	4,680,000
Shansi ,,	5,900,000	79,000	496,000	159,000
Shensi ,,	5,349,000	2,858,000	539,000	336,000
Chahar ,,	406,000	250,000	—	—
Suiyuan ,,	86,000	—	—	—
Total	68,125,000	10,559,000	7,131,000	23,584,000

Trade The foreign trade of China during the first half of 1937, that is, prior to the outbreak of the China Incident, was unusually active, but its substance suffered a sudden change as a result of the outbreak. The effect of the Incident is well illustrated by the following figures:

Table No. 1

(not affected by Incident)

(In yuan)

	Jan.-July, 1937	Jan.-July, 1936
Imports	731,587,000	535,759,000
Exports	571,837,000	393,552,000
Total	1,303,424,000	929,311,000
Excess of imports	159,750,000	142,207,000

Table No. 2

(affected by Incident)

(In yuan)

	Aug.-Dec., 1937	Aug.-Dec., 1936
Imports	224,647,000	408,764,000
Exports	266,286,000	313,239,000
Total	490,933,000	722,003,000
Excess	42,286,000	95,525,000

(Note: The underlined figures denote excess of exports, while those not underlined denote excess of imports.)

The excess of exports recorded for the period from August to December is quite singular and was brought about by a sudden and greater decrease in imports than exports, probably through the hurried shipment of stocks out of the various ports. The increase in

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shipments to Hongkong was particularly conspicuous. Under the circumstances, it is but natural that the volume of trade with Japan should have shrunk remarkably. This is shown in the following table:

CHINA'S TRADE WITH JAPAN

(In yuan)

	Jan.-July, 1937	Aug.-Dec., 1937
Imports	19,527,000	2,749,000
Exports	10,221,000	2,553,000
Total	29,748,000	5,302,000

The monthly average of imports fell from 2,500,000 yuan in the pre-incident period to 550,000 yuan after the outbreak, and the monthly average of exports fell from 1,460,000 yuan to 510,000 yuan.

The effect upon the trade with the United States was remarkable. The monthly average of imports dropped from 26,000,000 yuan before the incident to 10,000,000 yuan after, but it must be noticed that the trade with Great Britain showed no such decline. This fact indicates the active trade conducted through Hongkong and also manifests the specific position of Britain in the China Incident.

The position of Shanghai in foreign trade presents a striking contrast to the prosperity of Hongkong. The amount of foreign trade conducted by Shanghai during 1937 was 914,000,000 yuan, made up of 510,000,000 yuan in imports and 404,000,000 yuan in exports. Compared with the similar figures for 1936, imports decreased by 8 per cent and exports increased by 11.8 per cent while the total amount showed a decrease of 0.1 per cent. While the trade conducted by Shanghai accounted for 56 per cent of the foreign trade of China during 1936, the percentage dropped to 51 per cent in 1937, Shanghai's percentage being from January to July 56.9 per cent and from August to December 34.7 per cent. Generally speaking, the share of South China in the foreign trade of the republic has increased remarkably.

The following tables show the changes brought about by the Incident in the foreign trade of China as classified according to localities.

1. Imports (In 1,000 yuan)

	1936		1937	
	Amount	Percentage	Amount	Percentage
North China	140,903	14.9	145,790	15.3
Central China	637,697	67.5	591,944	61.9
South China	165,923	17.6	218,500	22.8
Total	944,523	100.0	956,234	100.0

2. Export (in 1,000 yuan)

	1936		1937	
	Amount	Percentage	Amount	Percentage
North China	191,112	27.0	215,741	25.7
Central China	380,640	53.0	417,025	49.7
South China	135,039	19.1	206,004	24.6
Total	706,791	100.0	838,770	100.0

3. Trade in 1937 (In 1,000 yuan)

	January-July		August-December	
	Amount	Percentage	Amount	Percentage
Imports				
North China	114,194	15.6	31,636	14.1
Central China	500,372	68.3	91,572	40.8
South China	117,061	16.1	101,439	45.1
Total	731,587	100.0	224,647	100.0
Exports				
North China	160,452	28.4	55,289	20.7
Central China	312,714	54.6	104,313	39.1
South China	98,673	17.0	107,331	40.2
Total	571,837	100.0	266,933	100.0

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According to customs statistics, the imports of China during the first quarter of 1938 amounted to 231,840,000 yuan (as compared with 271,486,000 yuan for the corresponding period of the preceding year) and in exports 134,268,000 yuan (as compared with 239,981,000 yuan for the corresponding period of the preceding year). In other words, the trade during the first quarter declined by 15 per cent in imports and 38 per cent in exports from the similar figures for the corresponding period of 1937. Details of the change, according to localities, are shown below:

	Imports		Exports	
	Jan.-March 1938	Jan.-March 1937	Jan.-March 1938	Jan.-March 1937
North China	15.48%	14.47%	24.74%	28.61%
Central China	24.50	70.27	25.55	52.86
South China	60.02	15.26	49.71	18.53
Kowloon	43.23	4.53	4.34	0.34
Canton	7.15	3.20	19.98	6.16

The foregoing figures show that the increase in the trade conducted by South China centred around Kowloon. In this connection, it must be observed that while the Yangtze River had hitherto constituted the principal channel for the conduct of the foreign trade of China, the channel shifted to the Hankow-Canton Railway as a result of the blockade of the lower reaches of the river after the outbreak of the China Incident.

Railways and Public Highways Construction of railways has been the most important economic item carried out in China during recent years, particularly noteworthy being the completion of the Canton-Hankow Railway in September, 1936. As the situation in North China became strained, greater attention was paid to perfecting the network in South China, but as a result of the China Incident, the greater part of the Chinese railways has been placed under Japanese control, as shown in the following table:

Name of Railway	Total track	Under Japanese control (in kilometers)	Under Chiang régime
North of the Yangtze River			
Peking-Hankow	1,319	800	519
Tientsin-Pukow	1,105	1,105	—
Peking-Suiyuan	878	878	—
Peking-Shanhaikwan	466	466	—
Kiao-Tsi	453	453	—
Lung-Hai	1,226	530	696
Cheng-Tai	278	278	—
Taokow-Chinghwa	152	152	—
Tung-Pu	1,013	1,013	—
Kaifeng-Honan (?)	214	214	—
South of the Yangtze River			
Nanking-Shanghai	329	329	—
Shanghai-Hangchow-Ningpo	209	209	—
Soochow-Chiating	74	74	—
Canton-Hankow	1,242	—	1,242 (?)
Chekiang-Kiangsi (?)	650	—	650
Nanchang-Kiukiang	128	—	128
Canton-Kowloon	143	143 (?)	—
Kiangnan	178	178	—
Total	10,135	6,822	3,147

Thus, over 60 per cent of the Chinese railways has been separated from the control of the Chiang Kai-shek régime. There is no need to emphasize the military and economic importance of this great loss to the Chiang régime, which,

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under the circumstances, began to concentrate its efforts on the construction of public highways to link its territory with French Indo-China, Burma and Soviet territory. In connection with the construction of railways and public highways, special mention must be made of the fact that the Chiang regime, along with the progress of the construction work, obtained increased foreign capital and thus became more and more bound to certain foreign countries.

Development of New China

The China Affairs Board

A central institution to carry on the important work of aiding in the construction of the new China and of realizing a new order in East Asia was created on December 16, 1938 with the inauguration of the China Affairs Board. Need had been felt for a powerful administrative organ to direct the task of development in China, a task with which the very existence of Japan is allied and which naturally includes problems of the utmost importance.

Concrete plans for the creation of a central administrative organ had been seriously discussed by the Army, Navy and Foreign Departments. Early in October, 1938, the Cabinet formally decided on the establishment of the institution now known as the China Affairs Board, which came into being on December 16th upon the promulgation of Imperial Ordinances concerning the Organization of the China Affairs Board and of the Liaison Office of the China Affairs Board, and concerning Amendments on the Organization of the Foreign Office.

As an explanation of the purpose with which the Board was created, we quote here from the address delivered by the then Prime Minister Prince Konoé on the occasion of its inauguration. Prince Konoé stated:

"The ultimate objective of the present hostilities, as has been enunciated on various occasions, does not stop with victory in arms but rather lies in the reconstruction of China and the establishment of a new order in the Far East based on the principle of co-operation between Japan, Manchoukuo and China. The overthrow of the anti-Japanese, pro-Comintern Régime of Chiang Kai-shek must lead the people of China to recognize the rationality and justice of cooperating with Japan, politically, economically and culturally.

"In pursuance of this task the China Affairs Board has been created. The Board endeavours, on the one hand, to co-ordinate and unify the various forces at home directed toward the consummation of the achievements of the China Affair and, on the other, to keep in close touch through its Liaison Division with the actual developments in China. Creation of the China Affairs Board will enable the Government to conduct more efficiently the planning and execution of construction work in East Asia and will thereby hasten the attainment of the ultimate objective of the present conflict."

Thus, the China Affairs Board serves as a connecting link between the Government and the operations in China, presenting a united front in the prosecution of national policies. Created in connection with and existing for the duration of the China Affair, the new Board is presided over by the Prime Minister. Exclusive of purely diplomatic affairs, its business comprises (1) political, economic and cultural problems relating to the China Affair; (2) the study and investigation of governmental policies to be taken in regard to the matters coming under the above category; (3) supervision of the operations of the companies established under special laws for the purpose of doing business in China as well as the control of the business transactions in China by persons who are so engaged; (4) the maintenance of unity in the administrative affairs of the different Government Offices relating to China.

Accordingly, the activity of the Board covers a wide field, political, economic and cultural, in which is included the problems of co-operation with the new Governments in China, the supervision of the North China Development Company and the Central China Promotion Company and matters relating to the culture and welfare of the Chinese people. In its organization, the Board is divided into various Bureaus, besides the President's Secretariat, including the Political, Economic, Cultural and Technical Bureaus. The Prime Minister is the President ex officio and is assisted by the Foreign, Finance, Army and Navy Ministers as Vice-Presidents. The Director-General of the Board is Lieutenant-General Heisuke Yanagawa and under him are fifty officers and sixty clerks.

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As the result of the taking over of cultural work in China by the China Affairs Board, the Bureau in the Foreign Office which hitherto had charge of this work has changed its name and will devote itself to international cultural affairs, excluding those in China. Other minor changes took place in the organizations of the Foreign Office and of the Department of Overseas Affairs.

As for the place where the Liaison Division of the China Affairs Board is to be established and the area within which it will function, these will be chosen and designated by the Prime Minister. It may be added that there is additionally a Liaison Committee whose duty it is to promote unity among the different Government Departments with reference to the undertakings of the China Affairs Board.

Rehabilitation and Reconstruction

It is a well-known fact that the Chinese people have long acquiesced in the oppressive rules of governments and have endured extortion and exploitation by war lords. With all the blessings of fertile land, their lives and existence have constantly been threatened. Once a civil war has broken out, fathers and brothers are taken for the armies, the products of their labour are relentlessly requisitioned and taxes are levied most exorbitantly; after the fighting, nothing remains but devastation over all the war areas. They have, in the past, experienced the hard lot of war refugees in seeking food and shelter in strange villages, towns and cities.

After the sweeping victories of the Imperial forces on all fronts the Chinese masses experienced nothing but sympathy, kindness and relief—things totally different from what they had expected: medical care for the sick, food for the hungry, shelter for the homeless. Thus, under the protection of the Japanese armies peace and order have been restored and energetic activities for reconstruction have been started amidst confusion and devastation. The fact that the Imperial Army is fighting not against the Chinese people but for emancipation has been brought home to their minds.

Activities for the enlightenment of Chinese masses have been taken up by the Enlightement and Rehabilitation Corps.

The functions of the corps are to enlighten the masses in the war areas concerning Japan's purposes, to persuade and help the refugees to return to their towns and villages, to extend relief to the suffering, and to assist the Chinese in establishing and maintaining peace and order in all localities. Futhermore, to assist in economic and cultural reconstruction is another important function of these soldiers of peace.

These soldiers of peace invariably follow the Imperial forces. Residents in the war areas where the Chinese troops stubbornly hold their lines are accustomed either to flee with the Chinese forces when they retreat or to seek refuge beforehand somewhere in the interior fearing that looting and other outrages will likely be committed by the retreating forces. Nothing but desolation, therefore, is to be found in towns and villages. The few figures to be seen are usually the aged or deformed or children who have lost their parents. Even these helpless people cannot be easily approached in order ple cannot be easily approached in order to that help and relief might be extended to them, because they have been inculcated by the Communists with the false story that the Japanese soldiers will slaughter even women and children. The first step in the activities of the soldiers of peace is to disarm the fears of the masses and win their confidence. The next step is to try to restore peace and order.

Camps for rufugees are set up for the homeless; food and food-stuffs are distributed among the hungry; medical attention is administered to the sick, and even measures for preventing epidemics are carried out as occasion demands.

Establishment of employment bureaus and publication of local newspapers are found effective in securing rehabilitation. Such natural and humane acts as giving candy to and playing with children and taking special care of the aged have worked for the winning of the confidence of the Chinese masses. For this type of humanistic activities many Japanese and Chinese women workers are offering self-sacrificing services.

Assisting in economic rehabilitation and reconstruction is a measure not only essential for the material life of the people in the new China but also one having vital bearing upon their morale. Activities which come under the functions of the Enlightenment and Rehabilitation Corps, though limited in scope and temporary in nature, are the promotion of circulation of money and resumption of agricultural and commercial activities among rehabilitated villagers. The organization of harvesting groups has been founded to encourage the return of farmers to their fields. As they are supplied with Sun flags, the farmers can be distinguished from

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disguised bandits or remnants of Chinese troops. Protected thus against falling victim to bandit attacks and secure against Japanese fire, these returning farmers have gathered in their crops in many places. For the products of these farms, the establishment of markets has necessarily been promoted.

Assisting in cultural reconstruction is another essential function of the soldiers of peace. Through their endeavours the Chinese leaders who have been disillusioned with the policy anti-Japanism hitherto enforced and are awakened to the possibilities of Sino-Japanese collaboration have already commenced activities for constructing a new culture based not upon exaggerated, narrow nationalism and disastrous anti-Japanism but upon the ideal of the moral State and of a moral world order. This change in cultural principles has naturally given rise to a desire to know Japan and the Japanese language. Accordingly, not only in the Peking-Tientsin area but also in Tsinan and other cities enthusiasm for learning Japanese is running high. Four Japanese language schools with 3,000 students are being conducted in the city of Tsinan alone.

The grateful hearts of the Chinese masses toward the Imperial Army have taken expression in various forms in many places. Recently the commander of a Japanese unit was presented a tablet bearing a eulogy by the residents of Tehsien, Shantung Province. The Chinese have generally co-operated with Japanese troops in repairing roads and bridges, recruiting coolies, getting supplies and facilitating encampments.

Assisting in organization of "villages for caring for and protecting roads" is another important function of the Enlightenment and Rehabilitation Corps. These villages are organized by the Chinese living along the principal railway lines with a view to promoting interest in the movement for caring for and protecting roads, training leaders, and organizing and guiding junior and women's bands. Several of these villages have now been organized in districts under Japanese occupation; the members of the organization, or villagers, are required to serve daily in taking care of and protecting railways, highways and lines of communication. Besides, they are expected to sound alarms in case of bandit raids. In recompense for these services they are accorded the right of priority in protection by the authorities in case of danger. The villagers are further compensated by the supply of their wants, food-stuffs and other necessaries of life, seeds and young plants of superior quality. The establishment of village schools and other educational facilities are also offered to them.

Where these villages are organized, the villagers have gradually come to understand the true motives and intentions of the Japanese assistance and to respect the members of the Corps. Instances have been reported in which villagers sheltered Japanese workers in their homes from the raids of bandits. Though unarmed, these soldiers of peace have always been safe, freely and friendlily mingling with the masses.

Organization of young men's, boys' and women's bands for the purpose of training and preparation for future leadership has been successfully carried out. The most advanced band is one of boys organized at Shihkiachwang with a membership of several hundreds. These boys not only engage in menial work such as street sweeping but also assist in the work of enlightenment and rehabilitation. Their services in that town and in near-by villages have contributed materially toward realizing the ideal of Sino-Japanese collaboration.

Wherever the Japanese forces advance, Japan's soldiers of peace are busily occupied in the Yellow River basin, Shansi, Shensi and other provinces. Those at work, totally unarmed, as friends and advisers of the agrarian masses, particularly in districts behind the lines where remnants of defeated Chinese troops, bandits and Communists are rampant in disturbing peace and order, are really worthy of being called "soldiers of peace." Due, in a considerable degree, to their heroic and devoted activities, even in Shansi Province, the noted stronghold of Red China, the ideal of a moral order based upon Japanese-Manchoukuoan-Chinese collaboration has dawned. Thus a new China is emerging. Chinese youths who seek to master the Japanese language, Chinese children who are joyfully playing with Japanese soldiers, and Chinese labourers who are energetically working for construction of hope—these make up the picture of the new China, the real friendly neighbour of Japan.

Prior to the outbreak of the present Affair, school children of Tungkwanghsien used to sing:

> Stand up for our fatherland, sons of China!
> Wipe away our disgrace, compatriots!
> March forward, every one of you,
> To annihilate all Japanese;
> To kill only one of them means little.

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But such a hymn of hatred is to be heard no longer. Instead, children are singing songs of joy and happiness, some of them in Japanese. Indeed, the present Affair, one of the greatest upheavals in modern China, regrettable as it is from the point of view of destruction of lives and property it entailed, has given the Chinese a new world and a new import to their national life.

Establishment of Central Companies

Two companies were established on November 7, 1938, for the economic development of North and Central China. For North China the Kita-Shina Kaihatsu Kabushiki Kaisha or North China Development Company is capitalized at ¥350,000,000, half of which is borne by the Japanese Government. The other company is the Naka-Shina Shinko Kabushiki Kaisha or Central China Promotion Company capitalized at ¥100,000,000, half of which is borne by the Japanese Government.

The North China Development Company commenced its business in 1938 with a paid-up capital of ¥99,319,000, under the presidency of Sonyu Ōtani, former Minister for Overseas Affairs, for the capitalization and supervision of business corporations engaged in transportation, communications, eléctricity, mining and salt enterprises in North China, and to carry on its own enterprises.

The Central China Promotion Company also started its business in 1938 with a paid-up capital of ¥31,382,000 under the presidency of Kenji Kodama, former president of the Yokohama Specie Bank, and is already capitalized for the establishment of 7 business corporations and 1 bank in Central China.

Conditions of North China

Prices Soar According to the investigations made by various circles the prices of commodities in North China are soaring. The index numbers of wholesale prices at Tientsin and retail prices at Tientsin and Peking are as follows:

INDEX NUMBER OF WHOLESALE PRICES AT TIENTSIN

(Base: 1926=100)

Year	General	Foodstuffs	Clothes	Metallic goods	Building material	Fuel	Miscellaneous
1931	122.55	114.39	117.03	145.34	116.88	139.43	132.35
1934	92.31	80.64	90.73	105.60	106.22	110.99	97.66
1936	110.62	115.50	99.07	116.42	110.74	111.40	98.68
1938	168.21	156.36	134.98	241.07	176.52	191.24	165.27
1939 (Feb.)	187.14	173.31	153.90	264.82	207.62	202.21	173.93

INDEX NUMBER OF RETAIL PRICES AT TIENTSIN

(Base: 1930=100)

Year	General	Foodstuffs	Clothes	Fuel	Miscellaneous
1937 (Jan.)	89.75	88.27	89.27	103.41	85.80
1938 (Jan.)	108.93	112.30	81.24	137.72	106.00
1939 (Jan.)	140.57	142.81	112.96	169.74	136.37

INDEX NUMBER OF RETAIL PRICES AT PEKING

(Base: April, 1937=100)

Year	General	Foodstuffs	Fuel	Cotton textiles	Miscellaneous
1937 (June)	98.15	93.23	99.40	101.81	—
1938 (Jan.)	111.16	116.44	123.06	105.33	99.84
1938 (June)	134.77	117.27	168.27	135.78	117.74
1939 (Jan.)	141.67	128.80	160.34	138.47	139.07

Foreign Trade of North China With the restoration of peace the foreign trade of North China has improved, and in 1938 the total amount of trade reached 574,512,000 yuan or legal tender notes, an increase of 242,498,000 yuan or 73 per cent as compared with 1936.

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FOREIGN TRADE OF NORTH CHINA

(Unit: 1,000 tender notes)

	Exports	Imports	Excess of Exports (+) or Imports (−)
1932	163,392	264,467	(−) 101,075
1933	152,271	204,676	(−) 52,405
1934	135,781	161,776	(−) 25,995
1935	159,644	150,133	(+) 9,511
1936	191,111	140,903	(+) 50,208
1937	215,741	145,790	(+) 69,951
1938	254,526	319,986	(−) 65,460

The number of trade vessels entered into 6 ports in North China, i. e. Tientsin Tsingtao, Chefoo, Chinwangtao, Lungkow and Weihaiwei, in 1938 reached 4,433 with an aggregate tonnage of 4,091,212 tons. Of the 6 ports Tientsin headed the list with 2,201 vessels, a great increase as compared with 756 vessels in the previous year.

Increase of Japanese Residents The number of Japanese subjects resident in North China, which was 43,897 in May, 1937, increased to 130,862 at the end of 1938. Details follow:

JAPANESE RESIDENTS IN NORTH CHINA

At the end of 1938

Number of households	38,704
Number of persons	130,862
From Japan proper	
Number of households	31,504
Men	57,623
Women	40,209
Total	97,832
Koreans	
Number of households	7,050
Men	13,743
Women	10,436
Total	24,179
Formosans	
Number of households	150
Persons	451
Residents in rural districts	8,400

Peking had 26,357, Tientsin 34,731, Tsingtao 20,530 and Tsinan 10,500.

CHRONICLE OF THE SINO-JAPANESE HOSTILITIES,

July 1937—June 1939

1937:

July 7—North China Incident occurred at Marco Polo Bridge.

July 15—The Japanese Government decided to despatch Japanese troops to North China.

July 25—Hostilities began at Langfang.

July 28—Commander Katsuki notified the Chinese authorities of the Imperial Army's decision to take free action.

July 29—Japanese troops began operations against the Chinese 29th Army.

August 8—Japanese troops entered Peking. Japanese residents in the cities on the Yangtze completed evacuation.

August 9—The Oyama incident occurred in Shanghai.

August 13—Hostilities began in Shanghai.

August 14—Commander Hasegawa of the Third Fleet of the Imperial Navy, declared the intention of the Imperial Navy to attack the Chinese forces.

The air force of the Imperial Navy made their first attacks on Chinese military centres in Central China, flying over the China Seas from Japan.

August 15—The air force of the Imperial Navy carried out the first attacks on Nanking and other military centres and destroyed more than 40 Chinese planes.

August 19—The Japanese Landing Party occupied a Chinese wharf at Shanghai.

August 23—The Imperial Army effected a forced landing at Shanghai under cover of and in cooperation with the Navy and Naval Forces.

August 25—The Imperial Navy in Chinese waters declared the closing of a part of the China coast to the traffic of Chinese vessels.

August 27—The Imperial Army entered Changchiakow (Kalgan).

Augugt 31—Woosung was occupied by the Imperial forces.

The air forces of the Imperial Navy made their first attacks on Canton.

September 1—The Naval air forces attacked Shanghai.

September 4—Japanese residents evacuated Tsingtao.

September 5—The entire coast of China was blockaded by the Imperial Navy.

September 8—The Imperial Army entered Inner Mongolia.

September 13—Tatung was occupied by the Imperial Army.

September 19—The Commander of the Third Fleet gave notice of the extension of naval operations in and around Nanking.

September 24—The Imperial Army entered Paoting.

The air forces of the Imperial Navy attacked Hankow and Nanchang.

September 29—The Japanese Naval Landing Party made general advances from

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North Szechwan Road.
September 30—Pailingmiao, Inner Mongolia, was occupied by the Imperial Army.
October 8—Chenting was taken by the Imperial Army.
October 10—Shihkiachwang fell into the hands of the Imperial Army.
October 14—Kalgan was occupied by the Imperial Army.
October 17—Paotow was captured by the Imperial Army.
October 18—The air forces of the Imperial Navy bombed Hankow and other places and destroyed more than 30 Chinese planes.
October 26—The Shanghai Race Course and Tachangchen were occupied by the Imperial Army.
October 27—The North Station, the Chapei sector and Chenjuchen were taken by the Japanese Naval Landing Party.
October 30—The air forces of the Imperial Army bombed Taiyuan and destroyed 17 Chinese planes.
November 3—Japanese forces advanced to the south of Soochow Creek.
November 5—The Imperial Army accomplished a forced landing on the northern coast of Hangchow Gulf, under the protection and in cooperation with the Imperial Navy.
November 9—Taiyuan was occupied by the Imperial Army.
Shanghai and Nanshih encircled by Japanese forces.
November 11—Occupation of Nanhsiang.
November 13—The air forces of the Imperial Army bombed Sian.
Linhochen, Chiating and Kashan-hsien, were occupied.
The Japanese Naval Landing Party took Nanshih.
November 14—Occupation of Taitsang-hsien.
November 15—Kunshan-hsien was occupied.
November 19—Soochow and Kashing (Chiahsing) were taken.
November 20—The removal of the Nanking Government to Chungching was announced.
November 25—Occupation of Wusih.
November 29—Changchow and Kwangteh were captured.
Küyung was occupied.
December 9—The air forces of the Imperial Navy bombed Nanchang, Nanking and other places, and destroyed 25 Chinese planes.
December 10—General attack on Nanking by the Japanese forces began.
December 13—The fall of Nanking.
December 14—The air forces of the Imperial Navy bombed Nanchang and Anching, and destroyed 35 Chinese planes.
December 22—The Naval air forces bombed Nanchang and Chowkiakow, and destroyed 30 Chinese planes.
December 24—Occupation of Hangchow.
December 27—The Imperial Army entered Tsinan.

1938:

January 4—The air forces of the Imperial Navy attacked Suchow (Hsuchou), Hankow and the Canton-Hankow railway line, and destroyed 21 Chinese planes.
January 5—Occupation of Yenchow in Shantung.
January 10—The Japanese forces landed at Tsingtao.
January 6, 24, 27—The air forces of the Imperial Navy repeatedly attacked Hankow, Nanchang, Ichang-hsien and the Canton-Hankow railway, and destroyed over 45 Chinese planes.
February 3—The Imperial Naval Landing Party landed at Chefoo.
February 9—The Naval air forces made the first attack on Changsha.
February 18, 21, 25—The Naval air forces attacked Chungching, Hankow, Hengyang, Ichang, Nanchang and railways in South China, and destroyed 90 Chinese planes.
March 6—The Japanese Naval Landing Party landed at Weihaiwei.
March 25—The Imperial Army air forces attacked Kweiteh (Kueite) and destroyed 14 Chinese planes.
April 3—Occupation of Taierhchwang.
April 13, 29—The Naval air forces bombed Canton and Hankow, and destroyed 66 Chinese planes.
May 11—Occupation of Amoy by the Imperial Navy.
May 18—General attack on Suchow by the Imperial Army began.
May 19—Occupation of Suchow.
May 24—Occupation of Lanfeng.
May 28—Occupation of Kweiteh.
The air forces of the Imperial Navy began attacks on Canton which were repeated for weeks following.
May 31—The Naval air forces bombed Hankow and destroyed 20 Chinese planes.
June 6—Occupation of Kaifeng.
June 13—Occupation of Anching.
June 17—Occupation of Chienshan.
The Naval air forces bombed Hainan Island.
June 25—The Naval air forces attacked Nanchang and destroyed 19 Chinese planes.
July 4—Occupation of Hukow.
The Naval air forces attacked Nanchang and destroyed 51 Chinese planes.

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July 16 and 19—Hankow bombed by the Naval planes.
July 26—Occupation of Kiukiang on the Yangtze.
August 3—Hankow attacked by the Naval Air Force and 32 Chinese planes were shot down, while 2 Japanese planes were lost.
August 24—Occupation of Juichang in Kiangsi Province.
August 29, 30—Japanese troops crossed the Pi River.
September 6—Kushih in Honan Province was occupied by a Japanese force.
September 16—Shangcheng at the northern base of the Tapieh mountain range occupied by Japanese forces.
September 17—Occupation of Wusueh on the Yangtze by the Naval landing party.
September 28—Naval air squadrons raided Yunnan, capital of Yunnan Province, and destroyed 20 Chinese planes.
October 2—Occupation of Paishih on the Fu River.
October 12—Surprise landing of Japanese forces at Bias Bay in South China.
October 13—A Naval air unit bombed and destroyed 37 Chinese tanks at Waichow.
October 16—Occupation of Shihhweyao on the Yangtze.
October 21—Occupation of Canton.
October 24—General Chiang Kai-shek left Hankow set on fire by the Chinese Army.
October 25—A part of Japanese forces drove into the northeastern part of Hankow.
October 27—Fall of Hankow, Hanyang and Wuchang cities.
November 11—Occupation of Yochow.
November 13—Destruction of Changsha set on fire by Chinese.
November 20—Yenan, the Red city in Shensi Province, raided by Japanese Army Air Forces.
December 3—Occupation of Kowloon.

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February 10—Japanese forces succeeded in landing on Hainan Island early in the morning.
February 12—Japanese Army Air Forces attacked Lanchow in Kansu Province and shot down 38 Chinese planes.
February 20—Lanchow attacked for the second time and 36 Chinese planes were shot down, while one Japanese plane was lost.
March 4—Occupation of Haichow.
March 27—Occupation of Nanchang.
March 29—Occupation of Wuning.
April 8—Naval Air Forces attacked Yunnan and destroyd 41 Chinese planes. On the following day the same air squadrons effected a heavy air raid on Nanning.
May 3—Repeated raids on Chungking by the Naval Air Forces effected beginning with May 3.
May 25—Kulangsü in Fukien blockaded by the Japanese Navy.
June 14—Tientsin Foreign Concession blockaded by the Japanese Army.
June 21—Japanese army and naval forces landed on Swatow.
June 27—Occupation of Chaochow to the north of Swatow.

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APPENDIX

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THE CONSTITUTION

CHAPTER I

THE EMPEROR

ARTICLE I The Empire of Japan shall be reigned over and governed by a line of Emperors unbroken for ages eternal.

ARTICLE II The Imperial Throne shall be succeeded to by Imperial male descendants, according to the provisions of the Imperial House Law.

ARTICLE III The Emperor is sacred and inviolable.

ARTICLE IV The Emperor is the head of the Empire, combining in Himself the rights of sovereignty, and exercises them according to the provisions of the present Constitution.

ARTICLE V The Emperor exercises the legislative power with the consent of the Imperial Diet.

ARTICLE VI The Emperor gives sanction to laws, and orders them to be promulgated and executed.

ARTICLE VII The Emperor convokes the Imperial Diet, opens, closes and prorogues it, and dissolves the House of Representatives.

ARTICLE VIII The Emperor, in consequence of an urgent necessity to maintain public safety or to avert public calamities, issues, when the Imperial Diet is not sitting, Imperial Ordinances in the place of law.

Such Imperial Ordinances are to be laid before the Imperial Diet at its next session, and when the Diet does not approve the said Ordinances, the Government shall declare them to be invalid for the future.

ARTICLE IX The Emperor issues, or causes to be issued, the Ordinances necessary for the carrying out of the laws, or for the maintenance of the public peace and order, and for the promotion of the welfare of the subjects. But no Ordinance shall in any way alter any of the existing laws.

ARTICLE X The Emperor determines the organization of the different branches of the administration, and salaries of all civil and military officers, and appoints and dismisses the same. Exceptions especially provided for in the present Constitution or in other laws shall be in accordance with the respective provisions bearing thereon.

ARTICLE XI The Emperor has the supreme command of the Army and Navy.

ARTICLE XII The Emperor determines the organization and peace standing of the Army and Navy.

ARTICLE XIII The Emperor declares war, makes peace, and concludes treaties.

ARTICLE XIV The Emperor declares a state of siege.

The conditions and effects of a state of siege shall be determined by law.

ARTICLE XV The Emperor confers titles of nobitity, rank, orders and other marks of honour.

ARTICLE XVI The Emperor orders amnesty, pardon, commutation of punishments and rehabilitation.

ARTICLE XVII A Regency shall be instituted in conformity with the provisions of the Imperial House Law.

The Regent shall exercise the powers appertaining to the Emperor in His name.

CHAPTER II

RIGHTS AND DUTIES OF SUBJECTS

ARTICLE XVIII The conditions necessary for being a Japanese subject shall be determined by law.

ARTICLE XIX Japanese subjects may, according to qualifications determined in laws or ordinances, be appointed to civil or military or any other public offices equally.

ARTICLE XX Japanese subjects are amenable to service in the Army or Navy according to the provisions of law.

ARTICLE XXI Japanese subjects are amenable to the duty of paying taxes according to the provisions of law.

ARTICLE XXII Japanese subjects shall have the liberty of abode and of changing the same within the limits of law.

ARTICLE XXIII No Japanese subject shall be arrested, detained, tried or punished, unless according to law.

ARTICLE XXIV No Japanese subject shall be deprived of his right of being tried by the judges determined by law.

ARTICLE XXV Except in the cases provided for in the law, the house of no Japanese subject shall be entered or searched without his consent.

ARTICLE XXVI Except in the cases mentioned in the law, the secrecy of the

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letters of every Japanese subject shall remain inviolate.

ARTICLE XXVII The right of property of every Japanese subject shall remain inviolate.

Measures necessary to be taken for the public benefit shall be provided for by law.

ARTICLE XXVIII Japanese subjects shall, within limits not prejudicial to peace and order, and not antagonistic to their duties as subjects, enjoy freedom of religious belief.

ARTICLE XXIX Japanese subjects shall, within the limits of law, enjoy the liberty of speech, writing, publication, public meetings and associations.

ARTICLE XXX Japanese subjects may present petitions, by observing the proper forms of respect, and by complying with the rules specially provided for the same.

ARTICLE XXXI The provisions contained in the present chapter shall not affect the exercise of the powers appertaining to the Emperor, in times of war or in cases of a national emergency.

ARTICLE XXXII Each and every one of the provisions contained in the preceding Articles of the present chapter, that are not in conflict with the laws or the rules and discipline of the Army and Navy, shall apply to the officers and men of the Army and of the Navy.

CHAPTER III

THE IMPERIAL DIET

ARTICLE XXXIII The Imperial Diet shall consist of two Houses, a House of Peers and a House of Representatives.

ARTICLE XXXIV The House of Peers shall, in accordance with the Ordinance concerning the House of Peers, be composed of the members of the Imperial Family, of the orders of nobility, and of those persons who have been nominated thereto by the Emperor.

ARTICLE XXXV The House of Representatives shall be composed of Members elected by the people according to the provisions of the Law of Election.

ARTICLE XXXVI No one can at one and the same time be a Member of both Houses.

ARTICLE XXXVII Every law requires the consent of the Imperial Diet.

ARTICLE XXXVIII Both Houses shall vote upon projects of law submitted to them by the Government, and may respectively initiate projects of law.

ARTICLE XXXIX A Bill which has been rejected by either the one or the other of the two Houses shall not be again brought in during the same session.

ARTICLE XL Both Houses can make representations to the Government as to laws or upon any other subject. When, however, such representations are not accepted, they cannot be made a second time during the same session.

ARTICLE XLI The Imperial Diet shall be convoked every year.

ARTICLE XLII A session of the Imperial Diet shall last during three months. In case of necessity, the duration of a session may be prolonged by Imperial Order.

ARTICLE XLIII When urgent necessity arises, an extraordinary session may be convoked in addition to the ordinary one.

The duration of an extraordinary session shall be determined by Imperial Order.

ARTICLE XLIV The opening, closing, prolongation of session and prorogation of the Imperial Diet, shall be effected simultaneously for both Houses.

In case the House of Representatives has been ordered to dissolve, the House of Peers shall at the same time be prorogued.

ARTICLE XLV When the House of Representatives has been ordered to dissolve, Members shall be caused by Imperial Order to be newly elected, and the new House shall be convoked within five months from the day of dissolution.

ARTICLE XLVI No debate can be opened and no vote can be taken in either House of the Imperial Diet, unless not less than one-third of the whole number of the Members thereof is present.

ARTICLE XLVII Votes shall be taken in both Houses by absolute majority. In the case of a tie vote, the President shall have the casting vote.

ARTICLE XLVIII The deliberations of both Houses shall be held in public. The deliberations may, however, upon demand of the Government or by resolution of the House, be held in secret sitting.

ARTICLE XLIX Both Houses of the Imperial Diet may respectively present addresses to the Emperor.

ARTICLE L Both Houses may receive petitions presented by subjects.

ARTICLE LI Both Houses may enact, besides what is provided for in the present Constitution and in the Law of the Houses, rules necessary for the management of their internal affairs.

ARTICLE LII No Member of either House shall be held responsible outside

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the respective Houses for any opinion uttered or for any vote given in the House. When, however, a Member himself has given publicity to his opinions by public speech, by documents in print or in writing, or by any other similar means, he shall, in the matter, be amenable to the general law.

ARTICLE LIII The Members of both Houses shall, during the session, be free from arrest, unless with the consent of the House, except in cases of flagrant delicts, or of offences connected with a state of internal commotion or with a foreign trouble.

ARTICLE LIV The Ministers of State and the Delegates of the Government may, at any time, take seats and speak in either House.

CHAPTER IV

THE MINISTERS OF STATE AND THE PRIVY COUNCIL

ARTICLE LV The respective Ministers of State shall give their advice to the Emperor, and be responsible for it.

All Laws, Imperial Ordinances and Imperial Rescripts of whatever kind, that relate to the affairs of the State, require the countersignature of a Minister of State.

ARTICLE LVI The Privy Councillors shall, in accordance with the provisions for the organization of the Privy Council, deliberate upon important matters of State, when they have been consulted by the Emperor.

CHAPTER V

THE JUDICATURE

ARTICLE LVII The Judicature shall be exercised by the Courts of Law according to law, in the name of the Emperor.

The organization of the Courts of Law shall be determined by law.

ARTICLE LVIII The judges shall be appointed from among those who possess proper qualifications according to law.

No judge shall be deprived of his position, unless by way of criminal sentence or disciplinary punishment.

Rules for disciplinary punishment shall be determined by law.

ARTICLE LIX Trials and judgments of a Court shall be conducted publicly When, however, there exists any fear, that such publicity may be prejudicial to peace and order, or to the maintenance of public morality, the public trial may be suspended by provision of law or by the decision of the Court of Law.

ARTICLE LX All matters, that fall within the competency of a special Court, shall be specially provided for by law.

ARTICLE LXI No suit at law, which relates to rights alleged to have been infringed by the illegal measures of the administrative authorities, and which shall come within the competency of the Court of Administrative Litigation specially established by law, shall be taken cognizance of a Court of Law.

CHAPTER VI

FINANCE

ARTICLE LXII The imposition of a new tax or the modification of the rates of an existing one shall be determined by law.

However, all such administrative fees or other revenue having the nature of compensation shall not fall within the category of the above clause.

The raising of national loans and the contracting of other liabilities to the charge of the National Treasury, except those that are provided in the Budget, shall require the consent of the Imperial Diet.

ARTICLE LXIII The taxes levied at present shall, in so far as they are not remodelled by a new law, be collected according to the old system.

ARTICLE LXIV The expenditure and revenue of the State require the consent of the Imperial Diet by means of an annual Budget.

Any and all expenditures overpassing the appropriations set forth in the Titles and Paragraphs of the Budget, or that are not provided for in the Budget, shall subsequently require the approbation of the Imperial Diet.

ARTICLE LXV The Budget shall be first laid before the House of Representatives.

ARTICLE LXVI The expenditures of the Imperial House shall be defrayed every year out of the National Treasury, according to the present fixed amount for the same, and shall not require the consent thereto of the Imperial Diet, except in case an increase thereof is found necessary.

ARTICLE LXVII Those already fixed

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expenditures based by the Constitution upon the powers appertaining to the Emperor, and such expenditures as may have arisen by the effect of law, or that appertain to the legal obligations of the Government, shall be neither rejected nor reduced by the Imperial Diet, without the concurrence of the Government.

ARTICLE LXVIII In order to meet special requirements, the Government may ask the consent of the Imperial Diet to a certain amount as a Continuing Expenditure Fund, for a previously fixed number of years.

ARTICLE LXIX In order to supply deficiencies, which are unavoidable, in the Budget, and to meet requirements unprovided for in the same, a Reserve Fund shall be provided in the Budget.

ARTICLE LXX When the Imperial Diet cannot be convoked, owing to the external or internal condition of the country, in case of urgent need for the maintenance of public safety, the Government may take all necessary financial measures, by means of an Imperial Ordinance.

In the case mentioned in the preceding clause, the matter shall be submitted to the Imperial Diet at its next session, and its approbation shall be obtained thereto.

ARTICLE LXXI When the Imperial Diet has not voted on the Budget, or when the Budget has not been brought into actual existence, the Government shall carry out the Budget of the preceding year.

ARTICLE LXXII The final account of the expenditures and revenue of the State shall be verified and confirmed by the Board of Audit, and it shall be submitted by the Government to the Imperial Diet, together with the report of verification of the said Board.

The organization and competency of the Board of Audit shall be determined by law separately.

CHAPTER VII

SUPPLEMENTARY RULES

ARTICLE LXXIII When it has become necessary in future to amend the provisions of the present Constitution, a project to that effect shall be submitted to the Imperial Diet by Imperial Order.

In the above case, neither House can open the debate, unless not less than two-thirds of the whole number of Members are present, and no amendment can be passed, unless a majority of not less than two-thirds of the Members present is obtained.

ARTICLE LXXIV No modification of the Imperial House Law shall be required to be submitted to the deliberation of the Imperial Diet.

No provision of the present Constitution can be modified by the Imperial House Law.

ARTICLE LXXV No modification can be introduced into the Constitution, or into the Imperial House Law, during the time of a Regency.

ARTICLE LXXVI Existing legal enactments, such as laws, regulations, Ordinances, or by whatever names they may be called, shall, so far as they do not conflict with the present Constitution, continue in force.

All existing contracts or orders, that entail obligations upon the Government, and that are connected with expenditure, shall come within the scope of Art. LXVII.

THE IMPERIAL HOUSE LAW

CHAPTER I

SUCCESSION TO THE IMPERIAL THRONE

ARTICLE I The Imperial Throne of Japan shall be secceeded to by male descendants in the male line of Imperial Ancestors.

ARTICLE II The Imperial Throne shall be succeeded to by the Imperial eldest son.

ARTICLE III When there is no Imperial eldest son, the Imperial Throne shall be succeeded to by the Imperial eldest grandson. When there is neither Imperial eldest son nor any male descendant of his, it shall be succeeded to by the Imperial son next in age, and so on in every successive case.

ARTICLE IV For succession to the Imperial Throne by an Imperial descendant, the one of full blood shall have precedence over descendants of half blood. The succession to the Imperial Throne by the latter shall be limited to those cases

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only, when there is no Imperial descendant of full blood.

ARTICLE V When there is no Imperial descendant, the Imperial Throne shall be succeeded to by an Imperial brother and by his descendants.

ARTICLE VI When there is no such Imperial brother or desendant of his, the Imperial Throne shall be succeeded to by an Imperial uncle and by his descendants.

ARTICLE VII When there is neither such Imperial uncle nor descendant of his, the Imperial Throne shall be succeeded to by the next nearest member among the rest of the Imperial Family.

ARTICLE VIII Among the Imperial brothers and the remoter Imperial relations, precedence shall be given, in the same degree, to the descendants of full blood over those of half blood, and to the elder over the younger.

ARTICLE IX When the Imperial heir is suffering from an incurable disease of mind or body, or when any other weighty cause exists, the order of successiou may be changed in accordance with the foregoing provisions, with the advice of the Imperial Family Council and with that of the Privy Council.

CHAPTER II

ASCENSION AND CORONATION

ARTICLE X Upon the demise of the Emperor, the Imperial heir shall ascend the Throne, and shall aquire the Divine Treasures of the Imperial Ancestors.

ARTICLE XI The ceremonies of Coronation shall be performed and a Grand Coronation Banquet (Daijosai) shall be held at Kyoto.

ARTICLE XII Upon an ascension to the Throne, a new era shall be inaugurated, and the name of it shall remain unchanged during the whole reign, in agreement with the established rule of the 1st year of Meiji.

CHAPTER III

MAJORITY. INSTITUTION OF EMPRESS AND OF HEIR-APPARENT

ARTICLE XIII The Emperor, the Kotaishi and the Kotaison shall attain their majority at eighteen full years of age.

ARTICLE XIV Members of the Imperial Family, other than those mentioned in the preceding Article, shall attain their majority at twenty full years of age.

ARTICLE XV The son of the Emperor, who is Heir-apparent, shall be called "Kotaishi." In case there is no Kotaishi, the Imperial grandson, who is Heir-apparent, shall be called "Kotaison."

ARTICLE XVI The institution of Empress and that of Kotaishi or of Kotaison shall be proclaimed by an Imperial Rescript.

CHAPTER IV

STYLES OF ADDRESS

ARTICLE XVII The style of address for the Emperor, the Grand Empress Dowager, the Empress Dowager and of the Empress, shall be His, or Her or Your Majesty.

ARTICLE XVIII The Kotaishi and his consort, the Kotaison and his consort, the Imperial Princes and their consorts, the Imperial Princesses, the Princes and their consorts, and the Princesses shall be styled His, Her, Their, or Your Highness or Highnesses.

CHAPTER V

REGENCY

ARTICLE XIX When the Emperor is a minor, a Regency shall be instituted.

When He is prevented by some permanent cause from personally governing, a Regency shall be instituted, with the advice of the Imperial Family Council and with that of the Privy Council.

ARTICLE XX The Regency shall be assumed by the Kotaishi or the Kotaison, being of full age of majority.

ARTICLE XXI When there is neither Kotaishi nor Kotaison, or when the Kotaishi or the Kotaison has not yet arrived at his majority, the Regency shall be assumed in the following order :

1. An Imperial Prince or a Prince.
2. The Empress.
3. The Empress Dowager.
4. The Grand Empress Dowager.
5. An Imperial Princess or a Princess.

ARTICLE XXII In case the Regency is to be assumed from among the male members of the Imperial Family, it shall be done in agreement with the order of succession to the Imperial Throne. The same shall apply to the case of female

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members of the Imperial Family.

ARTICLE XXIII A female member of the Imperial Family to assume the Regency shall be exclusively one who has no consort.

ARTICLE XXIV When, on account of the minority of the nearest related member of the Imperial Family, or for some other cause, another member has to assume the Regency, the latter shall not, upon the arrival at majority of the above mentioned nearest related member, or upon the disappearance of the aforesaid cause, resign his or her post in favour of any person other than of the Kotaishi or of the Kotaison.

ARTICLE XXV When a Regent or one who should become such, is suffering from an incurable disease of mind or body, or when any other weighty cause exists therefor, the order of the Regency may be changed, with the advice of the Imperial Family Council and with that of the Privy Council.

CHAPTER VI

THE IMPERIAL GOVERNOR

ARTICLE XXVI When the Emperor is a minor, an Imperial Governor shall be appointed to take charge of His bringing up and of His education.

ARTICLE XXVII In case no Imperial Governor has been nominated in the will of the preceding Emperor, the Regent shall appoint one, with the advice of the Imperial Family Council and with that of the Privy Council.

ARTICLE XXVIII Neither the Regent nor any of his descendants can be appointed Imperial Governor.

ARTICLE XXIX The Imperial Governor can not be removed from his post by the Regent, unless upon the advice of the Imperial Family Council and upon that of the Privy Council.

CHAPTER VII

THE IMPERIAL FAMILY

ARTICLE XXX The term "Imperial Family" shall include the Grand Empress Dowager, the Empress Dowager, the Empress, the Kotaishi and his consort, the Kotaison and his consort, the Imperial Princes and their consorts, the Imperial Princesses, the Princes and their consorts, and the Princesses.

ARTICLE XXXI From Imperial sons to Imperial great-great-grandsons, Imperial male descendants shall be called Imperial Princes; and from Imperial daughters to Imperial great-great-grand-daughters, Imperial female descendants shall be called Imperial Princesses. From the fifth generation downwards, they shall be called, male descendants, Princes, female ones, Princesses.

ARTICLE XXXII When the Imperial Throne is succeeded to by a member of a branch line, the title of Imperial Prince or Imperial Princess shall be specially granted to the Imperial brothers and sisters, being already Princes or Princesses.

ARTICLE XXXIII The births, namings, marriages and deaths in the Imperial Family shall be announced by the Minister of the Imperial Household.

ARTICLE XXXIV Genealogical and other records relating to the matters mentioned in the preceding Article shall be kept in the Imperial archives.

ARTICLE XXXV The members of the Imperial Family shall be under the control of the Emperor.

ARTICLE XXXVI When a Regency is instituted, the Regent shall exercise the power of control referred to in the preceding Article.

ARTICLE XXXVII When a member, male or female, of the Imperial Family is a minor and has been bereft of his or her father, the officials of the Imperial Court shall be ordered to take charge of his or her bringing up and education. Under certain circumstances, the Emperor may either approve the guardian chosen by his or her parent, or may nominate one.

ARTICLE XXXVIII The guardian of a member of the Imperial Family must be himself a member thereof and of age.

ARTICLE XXXIX Marriages of members of the Imperial Family shall be restricted to the circle of the Family, or to certain noble families specially approved by Imperial Order.

ARTICLE XL Marriages of the members of the Imperial Family shall be subject to the sanction of the Emperor.

ARTICLE XLI The Imperial writs sanctioning the marriages of members of the Imperial Family shall bear the countersignature of the Minister of the Imperial Household.

ARTICLE XLII No member of the Imperial Family can adopt any one as his son.

ARTICLE XLIII When a member of the Imperial Family wishes to travel beyond the boundaries of the Empire, he

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shall first obtain the sanction of the Emperor,

ARTICLE XLIV A female member of the Imperial Family, who has married a subject, shall be excluded from membership of the Imperial Family. However, she may be allowed, by the special grace of the Emperor, to retain her title of Imperial Princess or of Princess, as the case may be.

CHAPTER VIII

IMPERIAL HEREDITARY ESTATES

ARTICLE XLV No landed or other property that has been fixed as the Imperial Hereditary Estates shall be divided up and alienated.

ARTICLE XLVI The landed and other property to be included in the Imperial Hereditary Estates shall be settled by Imperial writ with the advice of the Privy Council, and shall be announced by the Minister of the Imperial Household.

CHAPTER IX

EXPENDITURES OF THE IMPERIAL HOUSE

ARTICLE XLVII The expenditures of the Imperial House of all kinds shall be defrayed out of the National Treasury at a certain fixed amount.

ARTICLE XLVIII The estimates and audit of accounts of the expenditures of the Imperial House and all other rules of the kind shall be regulated by the Finance Regulations of the Imperial House.

CHAPTER X

LITIGATIONS. DISCIPLINARY RULES FOR THE MEMBERS OF THE IMPERIAL FAMILY

ARTICLE XLIX Litigation between members of the Imperial Family shall be decided by judicial functionaries specially designated by the Emperor to the Department of the Imperial Household, and execution issued, after Imperial sanction thereto has been obtained.

ARTICLE L Civil actions brought by private individuals against members of the Imperial Family, shall be decided in the Court of Appeal in Tokyo. Members of the Imperial Family shall, however, be represented by attorneys, and no personal attendance in the Court shall be done in agreement with the Court.

ARTICLE LI No member of the Imperial Family can be arrested, or summoned before a Court of Law, unless the sanction of the Emperor has been first obtained thereto.

ARTICLE LII When a member of the Imperial Family has committed an act derogatory to his (or her) dignity, or when he has exhibited disloyalty to the Imperial House, he shall, by way of disciplinary punishment and by order of the Emperor, be deprived of the whole or a part of the privileges belonging to him as a member of the Imperial Family, or shall be suspended therefrom.

ARTICLE LIII When a member of the Imperial Family acts in a way tending to the squandering of his (or her) property, he shall be pronounced incapable by the Emperor, prohibited from administering his property, and a manager shall be appointed therefor.

ARTICLE LIV The two foregoing Articles shall be enforced upon the advice of the Imperial Family Council.

CHAPTER XI

THE IMPERIAL FAMILY COUNCIL

ARTICLE LV The Imperial Family Council shall be composed of the male members of the Imperial Family, who have reached the age of majority. The Lord Keeper of the Privy Seal, the President of the Privy Council, the Minister of the Imperial Household, the Minister of State for Justice and the President of the Court of Cassation shall be ordered to take part in the deliberations of the Council.

ARTICLE LVI The Emperor personally presides over the meeting of the Imperial Family Council, or directs one of the members of the Imperial Family to do so.

CHAPTER XII

SUPPLEMENTARY RULES

ARTICLE LVII Those of the present members of the Imperial Family of the fifth generation and downwards, who have already been invested with the title of Imperial Prince, shall retain the same as heretofore.

ARTICLE LVIII The order of succes-

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sion to the Imperial Throne shall in every case relate to the descendants of absolute lineage. There shall be no admission to this line of succession for any one, as a consequence of his being an adopted Imperial son, Koyushi or heir to a princely house.

ARTICLE LIX The grades of rank among the Imperial Princes, Imperial Princesses, Princes and Princesses shall be abolished.

ARTICLE LX The family rank of Imperial Princes and all usages conflicting with the present Law shall be abolished.

ARTICLE LXI The property, annual expenses and all other rules concerning the members of the Imperial Family shall be specially determined.

ARTICLE LXII When in the future it shall become necessary either to amend or make additions to the present Law, the matter shall be decided by the Emperor, with the advice of the Imperial Family Council, and with that of the Privy Council.

A SUPPLEMENT TO THE IMPERIAL HOUSE LAW

(February 11, 1907)

ARTICLE I A Prince may be granted a family name and be caused to join the order of nobility by Imperial Order or through a petition.

ARTICLE II A Prince may become, by obtaining the sanction of the Emperor, the successor to the headship of a noble family, or be adopted into a noble family, with the object of succeeding to its headship.

ARTICLE III The wife and direct descendants of a Prince, who has, in accordance with the two preceding Articles, become a subject, and the wives of such descendants, enter such subject's family. This rule does not apply, however, to females married to other members of the Imperial Family and the direct descendants of such females.

ARTICLE IV A member of the Imperial Family, who has been deprived of its privileges may, by Imperial order, be caused to descend to the status of subject.

ARTICLE V The cases provided for in Articles I, II, and IV (of the supplementary law) shall be subject to the advice of the Imperial Family Council and that of the Privy Council.

ARTICLE VI A member of the Imperial Family who has become a subject can not be restored into the Imperial Family.

ARTICLE VII Regulations relating the personal status and other rights and duties of members of the Imperial Family, shall be especially determined besides those prescribed in the present Law.

The regulations referred to in the preceding clause apply when a member of the Imperial Family and a private individual are parties to a matter, concerning which different rules are provided to apply to such parties respectively.

ARTICLE VIII Provisions in Laws and Ordinances, which are set down as applicable to members of the Imperial Family, shall be applicable only when there are no special provisions in the present Law or in Regulations that may be issued in conformity with the present Law.

A SUPPLEMENT TO THE IMPERIAL HOUSE LAW

(November 28, 1918)

A female member of the Imperial Family may marry a Prince of the principal House or of the branch Houses of the Ri Family.

LIST OF EMPERORS

No. of Reign	Emperor	Year Name(with its duration in parenthesis)	Duration of Reign
1	JIMMU	(B. C.)	660-581
2	SUIZEI		581-548
3	ANNEI		548-510
4	ITOKU		510-475
5	KŌSHŌ		475-392
6	KŌAN		392-290
7	KŌREI		290-214
8	KŌGEN		214-157
9	KAIKA		157-97
10	SUJIN		97-29
11	SUININ		29-71
12	KEIKŌ	(A. D.)	71-131
13	SEIMU		131-192
14	CHŪAI		192-201
15	ŌJIN		270-313
	(Jingo, Regent)		201-270

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No. of Reign	Emperor	Year Name(with its duration in parenthesis)	Duration of Reign
16	NINTOKU		313-400
17	RICHU		400-406
18	HANSHŌ		406-412
19	INGYŌ		412-453
20	ANKŌ		453-456
21	YŪRYAKU		456-480
22	SEINEI		480-485
23	KENSŌ		485-488
24	NINKEN		488-499
25	BURETSU		499-507
26	KEITAI		507-531
27	ANKAN		531-535
28	SENKA		535-539
29	KIMMEI		539-572
30	BITATSU		572-585
31	YŌMEI		585-587
32	SUSHUN		587-592
33	SUIKO (Empress)		592-629
34	JOMEI		629-642
35	KŌGYOKU (Empress)		642-645
36	KŌTOKU	Taika (645-650), Hakuchi (650-654)	645-654
37	SAIMEI (Empress)		655-661
38	TENJI		661-671
39	KŌBUN		671-672
40	TEMMU	Hakuhō (672-686) Suchō (686-)	672-686
41	JITŌ (Empress)	Suchō (686-697)	686-697
42	MOMMU	Taihō (701-704), Keiun (704-707)	697-707
43	GEMMYŌ (Empress)	Keiun (707-708), Wadō (708-715)	707-715
44	GENSHŌ (Empress)	Reiki (715-717), Yōrō (717-724)	715-724
45	SHŌMU	Jinki (724-729), Tempyo (729-749), Tempyokanhō (749)	724-749
46	KŌKEN (Empress)	Tempyōshōhō (749-757) Tempyōhōji (757-758)	749-758
47	JUNNIN	Tempyōhōji (758-764)	758-764
48	SHŌTOKU (Empress)	Tempyōhōji (764-765), Tempyōjingo (765-767), Jingokeiun (767-770)	764-770
49	KŌNIN	Jingokeiun (770), Hōki (770-781), Ten-ō (781)	770-781
50	KAMMU	Ten-ō (781-782), Enryaku (782-806)	781-806
51	HEIZEI		806-809
52	SAGA	Daidō (809-810), Kōnin (810-823)	809-823
53	JUNNA	Kōnin (823-824), Tenchō (824-833)	823-833
54	NIMMYŌ	Tenchō (833-834), Jowa (834-848), Kashō (848-850)	833-850
55	MONTOKU	Kashō (850-851), Ninju(851-854), Saikō (854-857), Tennan (857-858)	850-858
56	SEIWA	Tennan (858-859), Jōgwan (859-876)	858-876
57	YŌZEI	Jōgwan(876-877), Gwangyō (877-884)	876-884
58	KŌKŌ	Gwangyō (884-885), Ninna (885-887)	884-887
59	UDA	Ninna (887-889), Kwanpyō (889-897)	887-897
60	DAIGO	Kwampyō (897-898), Shōtai (898-901), Engi (901-923), Enchō (923-930)	897-930
61	SUZAKU	Enchō (930-931), Jōhei (931-938), Tengyō (938-946)	930-946
62	MURAKAMI	Tengyō(946-947), Tenryaku (947-957), Tentoku(957-961), Ōwa (961-964), Kōhō (964-967)	946-967
63	REIZEI	Kōhō (967-968), Anna (968-969)	967-969
64	ENYŪ	Anna (969-970), Tenroku (970-973) Tenen (973-976), Jōgen (976-978), Tengen (973-983), Eikan (983-984)	969-984
65	KAZAN	Eikan (984-985), Kanna(985-986)	984-986
66	ICHIJŌ	Kanna (986-987), Eien (987-989), Eiso (989-990), Shōryaku (990-995) Chōtoku (995-999), Chōho (999-1004) Kankō (1004-1011)	986-1011
67	SANJŌ	Kankō (1011-1012), Chōwa (1012-1016)	1011-1016
68	GOICHIJŌ		1016-1036

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No. of Reign	Emperor	Year Name(with its duration in parenthesis)	Duration of Reign
		Chōwa (1016-1017), Kannin (1017-1021), Chian (1021-1024), Manju (1024-1028), Chōgen (1028-1036)	
69	GOSUZAKU	Chōgen (1036-1037), Chōryaku (1037-1040), Chōkyū (1040-1044), Kantoku (1044-1045)	1036-1045
70	GOREIZEI	Kantoku (1045-1046), Eijō (1046-1053), Tenki (1053-1058), Kōhei (1058-1065) Chiryaku (1065-1068)	1045-1068
71	GOSANJŌ	Chiryaku (1068-1069), Enkyū (1069-1072)	1068-1072
72	SHIRAKAWA	Enkyū (1072-1074), Jōho (1074-1077), Jōryaku (1077-1081), Eiho (1081-1084), Ōtoku (1084-1086)	1072-1086
73	HORIKAWA	Ōtoku (1086-1087), Kanji (1087-1094), Kaho (1094-1096), Eichō (1096-1097), Jōtoku (1097-1099), Kōwa (1099-1104), Chōji (1104-1106), Kajō (1106-1107).	1086-1107
74	TOBA	Kajō (1107-1108), Tennin (1108-1110) Tin-ei (1110-1113), Eikyū (1113-1118), Gen-ei (1118-1120), Hoan (1120-1123)	1107-1123
75	SUTOKU	Hoan (1123-1124), Tenji (1124-1126), Daiji (1126-1131), Tenjō (1131-1132), Chōjō, (1132-1135), Hoen (1135-1141), Eiji (1141)	1123-1141
76	KONOYE	Eiji (1141-1142), Kōji (1142-1144), Tenyō (1144-1145), Kyūan (1145-1151), Nimpei (1151-1154), Kyūju (1154-1155)	1141-1155
77	GOSHIRAKAWA	Kyūju (1155-1156), Hogen (1156-1158)	1155-1158
78	NIJŌ	Hogen (1158-1159), Heiji (1159-1160), Eiryaku (1160-1161), Ōho (1161-1163), Chōkan (1163-1165), Eiman (1165)	1158-1165
79	ROKUJŌ	Eiman (1165-1166), Ninnan (1166-1168)	1165-1168
80	TAKAKURA	Ninnan (1168-1169), Kaō (1169-1171), Jōan (1171-1175), Angen (1175-1177), Jishō (1177-1180)	1168-1180
81	ANTOKU	Jishō (1180-1181), Yōwa (1181-1182), Juei (1182-1184), Genryaku (1184-1185)	1180-1185
82	GOTOBA	Bunji (1185-1190), Kenkyū (1190-1198)	1185-1198
83	TSUCHIMIKADO	Kenkyū (1198-1199), Shōji (1199-1201), Kennin (1201-1204), Genkyū (1204-1206), Kenei (1206-1207), Jōgen (1207-1210)	1198-1210
84	JUNTOKU	Jōgen (1210-1211), Kenryaku (1211-1213), Kenho (1213-1219), Jōkyu (1219-1221)	1210-1221
85	CHŪKYŌ	Jōkyū (1221)	1221
86	GOHORIKAWA	Jōkyū (1221-1222), Jō-ō (1222-1224), Gennin (1224-1225), Karoku (1225-1227), Antei (1227-1229). Kanki (1229-1232), Jōei (1232)	1221-1232
87	SHIJŌ	Jōei (1232-1233), Tempuku (1233-1234), Bunryaku(1234-1235), Katei(1235-1238), Ryakunin (1238-1239), Ennō (1239-1240), Ninji (1240-1242)	1232-1242
88	GOSAGA	Ninji (1242-1243), Kangen (1243-1246)	1242-1246
89	GOFUKAKUSA	Kangen (1246-1247), Hōji (1247-1249), Kenchō (1249-1256), Kogen (1256-1257), Shōka (1257-1259) Shōgen (1259)	1246-1259
90	KAMEYAMA	Shōgen (1259-1260), Bunnō (1260-1261), Kōcho (1261-1264), Bunei (1264-1274)	1259-1274
91	GOUDA	Bunei (1274-1275), Kenji (1275-1278), Kōan (1278-1287)	1274-1287
92	FUSHIMI	Kōan (1287-1288), Shō-ō (1288-1293), Einin (1293-1298)	1287-1298
93	GOFUSHIMI	Ein in (1298-1299), Shōan	1298-1301

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No. of Reign	Emperor	Year Name(with its duration in parenthesis)	Duration of Reign
		(1299-1301)	
94	GONIJŌ	Shōan (1301-1302), Kengen (1302-1303), Kagen (1303-1306), Tokuji (1306-1308)	1301-1308
95	HANAZONO	Tokuji (1308), Enkyo (1308-1311, Ūchō (1311-1312), Shō-wa (1312-1317), Bunpo (1317-1318)	1308-1318
96	GODAIGO	Bumpo (1318-1319), Gennō (1319-1321), Genkyō (1321-1324), Shōchū (1324-1326), Karyaku (1326-1329), Gen-toku (1329-1331), Genkō (1331-1334), Kemmu (1334-1336), Engen (1336-1339)	1318-1339
97	GOMURAKAMI	Engen (1339-1340), Kōkoku (1340-1346), Shōhei (1346-1368)	1339-1368
98	CHŌKEI	Shōhei (1368-1370), Ken-toku (1370-1372), Bunchū (1372-1375), Tenju (1375-1381), Kōwa (1381-1383)	1368-1383
99	GOKAMEYAMA	Kōwa (1383-1384), Genchū (1384-1392)	1383-1392
100	GOKOMATSU	Genchū (1392), Meitoku (1393-1394,) Ōéi (1394-1412)	1392-1412
101	SHŌKŌ	Ōéi (1412-1428), Shōchō (1428)	1412-1428
102	GOHANAZONO	Shōchō (1428-1429), Éikyō (1429-1441), Kakitsu (1441-1444), Bunnan (1444-1449), Hōtoku (1449-1452), Kyō-toku (1452-1455), Kōshō (1455-1457), Chōroku (1457-1460), Kanshō (1460-1464)	1428-1464
103	GOTSUCHIMIKADO	Kanshō (1464-1466), Bünshō (1466-1467), Ōnin(1467-1469), Bummei (1469-1487), Chōk-yō (1487-1489), Entoku (1489-1492), Méiō (1492-1500)	1464-1500
104	GOKASHIWABARA	Méiō (1500-1501), Bünki (1501-1504), Eishō (1504-1521), Daiéi (1521-1526)	1500-1526
105	GONARA	Daiéi (1526-1528), Kyoroku (1528-1532), Temmon (1532-1555), Kōji (1555-1557)	1526-1557
106	ŌGIMACHI	Kōji (1557-1558), Eiroku (1558-1570), Genki (1570-1573), Tenshō (1573-1586)	1557-1586
107	GOYŌZEI	Tenshō (1586-1592), Bünro-ku(1592-1596), Keichō(1596-1611)	1586-1611
108	GOMIZUNO-O	Keichō (1611-1615), Genna (1615-1624), Kanéi (1624-1629)	1611-1629
109	MYOSHO (Empress)	Kanéi (1629-1643)	1629-1643
110	GOKŌMYŌ	Kanéi (1643-1644), Shōho (1644-1648), Keian (1648-1652), Jō-ō (1652-1654)	1643-1654
111	GOSAI	Jō-ō (1654-1655), Meiryaku (1655-1658), Manji (1658-1661), Kanbun (1661-1663)	1654-1663
112	REIGEN	Kanbun (1663-1673), Empō (1673-1681), Tenna (1681-1684), Jōkyō (1684-1687)	1663-1687
113	HIGASHIYAMA	Jōkyō (1687-1688), Genroku (1688-1704), Hōéi (1704-1709)	1687-1709
114	NAKAMIKADO	Hōéi (1709-1711), Shōtoku (1711-1716), Kyōho (1716-1735)	1709-1735
115	SAKURAMACHI	Kyōho(1735-1736), Gembun (1736-1741), Kampō (1741-1744), Enkyō (1744-1747)	1735-1747
116	MOMOZONO	Enkyō (1747-1748), Kan-én (1748-1751), Hōryaku (1751-1762)	1747-1762
117	GOSAKURAMACHI (Empress)	Hōryaku (1762-1764), Mei-wa (1764-1770)	1762-1770
118	GOMOMOZONO	Meiwa (1770-1772), An-éi (1772-1779)	1770-1779
119	KŌKAKU	An-éi (1779-1781), Temmei (1781-1789), Kansei (1789-1801), Kyōwa (1801-1804), Bünka (1804-1817)	1779-1817
120	NINKŌ	Bunka (1817-1818), Bünsei (1818-1830), Tempō (1830-1844), Kōka (1844-1846)	1817-1846
121	KŌMEI	Kōka (1846-1848), Kaéi (1848-1854), Ansei (1854-1860), Manén (1860-1861), Bünkyū (1861-1864), Genji	1846-1866

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No. of Reign	Emperor	Year Name (with its duration in parenthesis	Duration of Reign
		(1864-1865), Keiō (1865-1866)	
122	MEIJI		1867-1912
		Keiō (1867-1868), Meiji (1868-1912)	
123	TAISHŌ		1912-1926
		Taishō (1912-1926)	
124	PRESENT TENNŌ		1926-
		Showa (1926-)	

TREATY OF COMMERCE AND NAVIGATION BETWEEN JAPAN AND THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA

Signed at Washington, February, 1911

ARTICLE I The subjects or citizens of each of the High Contracting Parties shall have liberty to enter, travel and reside in the territories of the other to carry on trade, wholesale and retail, to own or lease and occupy houses, manufactories, warehouses and shops, to employ agents of their choice, to lease land for residential and commercial purposes, and generally to do anything incident to or necessary for trade upon the same terms as native subjects or citizens, submitting themselves to the laws and regulations there established.

They shall not be compelled, under any pretext whatever, to pay any charges or taxes other or higher than those that are or may be paid by native subjects or citizens.

The subjects or citizens of each of the High Contracting Parties shall receive, in the territories of the other, the most constant protection and security for their persons and property, and shall enjoy in this respect the same rights and privileges as are or may be granted to native subjects or citizens, on their submitting themselves to the conditions imposed upon the native subjects or citizens.

They shall, however, be exempt in the territories of the other from compulsory military service either on land or sea, in the regular forces, or in the national guard, or in the militia; from all contributions imposed in lieu of personal service, and from all forced loans or military exactions or contributions.

ARTICLE II The dwellings, warehouses, manufactories and shops of the subject or citizens of each of the High Contracting Parties in the territories of the other, and all premises appertaining thereto used for purposes of residence or commerce, shall be respected. It shall not be allowable to proceed to make a domiciliary visit to, or a search of, any such buildings and premises, or to examine or inspect books, papers or accounts, except under the conditions and with the forms prescribed by the laws, ordinances and regulations for nationals.

ARTICLE III Each of the High Contracting Parties may appoint Consuls-General, Consuls, Vice-Consuls, Deputy Consuls and Consular Agents in all ports, cities and places of the other, except in those where it may not be convenient to recognize such officers. This exception, however, shall not be made in regard to one of the Contracting Parties without being made likewise in regard to all other Powers.

Such Consuls General, Consuls, Vice Consuls, Deputy Consuls and Consular Agents having received exequaturs or other sufficient authorizations from the Government of the country to which they are appointed, shall, on condition of reciprocity, have the right to exercise the functions and to enjoy the exemptions and immunities which are or may hereafter be granted to the consular officers of the same rank of the most favoured nation. The Government issuing exequaturs or other authorizations may in its discretion cancel the same on communicating the reasons for which it thought proper to do so.

ARTICLE IV There shall be between the territories of the two High Contracting Parties reciprocal freedom of commerce and navigation. The subjects or citizens of each of the Contracting Parties, equally with the subjects or citizens of the most favored nation, shall have liberty freely to come with their ships and cargoes to all places, ports and rivers in the territories of the other which are or may be opened to foreign commerce, subject always to the laws of the country to which they thus come.

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ARTICLE V The import duties on articles, the produce or manufacture of the territories of one of the High Contracting Parties, upon importation into the territories of the other, shall henceforth be regulated either by special arrangements between the two countries or by the internal legislation of each.

Neither Contracting Party shall impose any other or higher duties or charges on the exportation of any article to the territories of the other than are or may be payable on the exportation of the like article to any other foreign country.

Nor shall any prohibition be imposed by either country on the importation or exportation of any articles from or to the territories of the other which shall not equally extend to the like article imported from or exported or any other country. The last provision is not, however, applicable to prohibitions or restrictions maintained or imposed as sanitary measures or for purposes of protecting animals and useful plants.

ARTICLE VI The subjects or citizens of each of the High Contracting Parties shall enjoy in the territories of the other exemption from all transit duties and a perfect equality of treatment with native subjects or citizens in all that relates to warehousing, bounties, facilities and drawbacks.

ARTICLE VII Limited-liability and other companies and associations, commercial, industrial, and financial, already or hereafter to be organized in accordance with the laws of either High Contracting Party and domiciled in the territories of such Party, are authorized, in the territories of the other, to exercise their rights and appear in the courts either as plaintiffs or defendants, subject to the laws of such other Party.

The foregoing stipulation has no bearing upon the question whether a company or association organized in one of the two countries will or will not be permitted to transact its business or industry in the other, this permission remaining always subject to the laws and regulation enacted or established in the respective countries or in any part thereof.

ARTICLE VIII All articles which are or may be legally imported into the ports of either High Contracting Party from foreign countries in national vessels may likewise be imported into those in vessels of the other Contracting Party, without being liable to any other or higher duties or charges of whatever denomination than if such articles were imported in national vessels. Such reciprocal equality of treatment shall take effect without distinction, whether such articles come directly from the place of origin or from any other foreign place.

In the same manner, there shall be perfect equality of treatment in regard to exportation, so that the same export duties shall be paid, and the same bounties and drawbacks allowed, in the territories of each of the Contracting Parties on the exportation of any article which is or may be legally exported therefrom, whether such exportation shall take place in Japanese vessels or in vessels of the United States, and whatever may be the place of destination, whether a port of the other Party or of any third Power.

ARTICLE IX In all that the stationing, loading and unloading of vessels in the ports of the territories of the High Contracting Parties, no privileges shall be granted by either Party to national vessels which are not equally, in like cases, granted to the vessels of the other country; the intention of the Contracting Parties being that in these respects the respective vessels shall be treated on the footing of perfect equality.

ARTICLE X Merchant vessels navigating under the flag of Japan or that of the United States and carrying the papers required by their national laws to prove their nationality shall in the United States and in Japan be deemed to be vessels of Japan or of the United States, respectively.

ARTICLE XI No duties of tonnage, harbour, pilotage, lighthouse, quarantine, or other similar or corresponding duties of whatever denomination, levied in the name or for the profit of Government, public functionaries, private individuals, corporations or establishments of any kind shall be imposed in the ports of the territories of either country upon the vessls of the other which shall not equally, under the same conditions, be imposed on national vessels in general, or on vessels of the most favoured nation. Such equality of treatment shall apply reciprocally to the respective vessels from whatever place they may arrive and whatever may be their place of destination.

ARTICLE XII Vessels charged with performance of regular scheduled postal service of one of the High Contracting Parties, whether belonging to the State or subsidized by it for the purpose, shall enjoy, in the ports of the territories of the other, the same facilities, privileges and immunities as are granted to like vessels of the most favoured nation.

ARTICLE XIII The coasting trade of the High Contracting Parties is excepted

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from the provisions of the present Treaty and shall be regulated according to the laws of Japan and the United States, respectively. It is however understood that the subjects or citizens of either Contracting Party shall enjoy in this respect most-favoured-nation treatment in the territories of the other.

A vessel of one of the Contracting Parties, laden in a foreign country with cargo destined for two or more ports of entry in the territories of the other, may discharge a portion of her cargo at one of the said ports, and, continuing her voyage to the other port or ports of destination, there discharge the remainder of her cargo, subject always to the laws, tariffs and customs regulations of the country of destination; and, in like manner and under the same reservation, the vessels of one of the Contracting Parties shall be permitted to load at several ports of the other for the same outward voyages.

ARTICLE XIV Except as otherwise expressly provided in this Treaty, the High Contracting Parties agree that, in all that concerns commerce and navigation, any privilege, favour or immunity which either Contracting Party has actually granted, or may hereafter grant, to the subjects or citizens of any other States shall be extended to the subjects or citizens of the other Contracting Party gratuitously, if the concession in favour of that other State shall have been gratuitous, and on the same or equivalent conditions, if the concession shall have been conditional.

ARTICLE XV The subjects or citizens of each of the High Contracting Parties shall enjoy in the territories of the other the same protection as native subjects or citizens in regard to patents, trade-marks and designs, upon fulfillment of the formalities prescribed by law.

ARTICLE XVI The present Treaty shall, from the date on which it enters into operation, supersede the Treaty of Commerce and Navigation dated the 22nd day of November, 1894; and from the same date the last-named Treaty shall cease to be binding.

ARTICLE XVII The present Treaty shall enter into operation on the 17th of July, 1911, and shall remain in force twelve years or until the expiration of six months from the date on which either of the Contracting Parties shall have given notice to the other of its intention to terminate the Treaty.

In case neither of the Contracting Parties shall have given notice to the other six months before the expiration of the said period of twelve years of its intention to terminate the Treaty, it shall continue operative until the expiration of six months from the date on which either Party shall have given such notice,

TREATY OF COMMERCE AND NAVIGATION BETWEEN JAPAN AND GREAT BRITAIN

Signed at London, April 3, 1911

ARTICLE I The Subjects of each of the High Contracting Parties shal have full liberty to enter, travel, and reside in the territories of the other, and, conforming themselves to the laws of the country—

1. Shall, in all that relates to travel and residence, be placed in all respects on the same footing as native subjects.

2. They shall have the right, equally with native subjects, to carry on their commerce and manufacture, and to trade in all kinds of merchandise of lawful commerce, either in person or by agents, singly or in partnerships with foreign or native subjects.

3. They shall in all that relates to the pursuit of their industries, callings, professions, and educational studies be placed in all respects on the same footing as the subjects or citizens of the most favoured nation.

4. They shall be permitted to own or hire and occupy houses, manufactories, warehouses, shops, and premises which may be necessary for them, and to lease land for residential, commercial, industrial, and other lawful purposes, in the same manner as native subjects.

5. They shall, on condition of reciprocity, be at full liberty to acquire and possess every description of property, movable or immovable, which the laws of the country permit or shall permit the subjects or citizens of any other foreign country to acquire and possess, subject always to the conditions and limitations prescribed in such laws. They may dispose of the same by sale, exchange, gift, marriage, testaments, or in any other manner, under the same conditions which are or shall be established with regard to native subjects. They shall also be permitted, on com-

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pliance with the laws of the country, freely to export the proceeds of the sale of their property and their goods in general without being subjected as foreigners to other or higher duties than those to which subjects of the country would be liable under similar circumstances.

6. They shall enjoy constant and complete protection and security for their persons and property, shall have free and easy access to the Courts of Justice and other tribunals in pursuit and defence of their claims and rights; and shall have full liberty, equally with native subjects, to choose and employ lawyers and advocates to represent them before such Courts and tribunals; and generally shall have the same rights and privileges as native subjects in all that concerns the administration of justice.

7. They shall not be compelled to pay taxes, fees, charges, or contributions of any kind whatever, other or higher than those which are or may be paid by native subjects or the citizens of the most favoured nation.

8. And they shall enjoy a perfect equality of treatment with native subject in all that relates to facilities for warehousing under bond, bounties, and drawbacks.

ARTICLE II The subjects of each of the High Contracting Parties in the territories of the other shall be exempted from all compulsory military services, whether in the army, navy, national guard, or militia; and from all forced loans and military requisitions or contributions unless imposed on them equally with native subjects as owners, lessees, or occupiers of immovable property.

In the above respects the subjects of each of the High Contracting Parties shall not be accorded in the territories of the other less favourable treatment than that which is or may be accorded to subjects or citizens of the most favoured nation.

ARTICLE III The dwellings, ware-houses, manufactories, and shops of the subjects of each of the High Contracting Parties in the territories of the other, and all premises appertaining thereto used for lawful purposes, shall be respected. It shall not be allowable to proceed to make a domiciliary visit to, or a search of, any such buildings and premises, or to examine or inspect books, papers, or accounts, except under the conditions and with the forms presented by the laws for native subjects.

ARTICLE IV Each of the High Contracting Parties may appoint Consuls-General, Consuls, Vice-Consuls, and Consular Agents in all the ports, cities, and places of the other, except in those where it may not be convenient to recognize such officers. This exception, however, shall not be made in regard one of the High Contracting Parties without being made likewise in regard to all other Powers.

Such Consuls-General, Consuls, Vice-Consuls, and Consular Agents, having received exequaturs or other sufficient authorizations from the Government of the country to which they are appointed, shall have the right to exercise their functions, and to enjoy the privileges, exemptions, and immunities which are or may be granted to the Consular officers of the most favoured nation. The Government issuing exequaturs or other authorizations has the right in its discretion to cancel the same on explaining the reasons for which it thought proper to do so.

ARTICLE V In case of the death of a subject of one of the High Contracting Parties in the territories of the other, without leaving at the place of his decease any person entitled by the laws of his country to take charge of and administer the estate, the competent Consular officer of the State to which the deceased belonged shall, upon fulfilment of the necessary formalities, be empowered to take custody of and administer the estate in the manner and under the limitations prescribed by the law of the country in which the property of the deceased is situated.

The foregoing provision shall also apply in case of a subject of one of the High Contracting Parties dying outside the territories of the other, but possessing property therein, without leaving any person there entitled to take charge of and administer the estate.

It is understood that in all that concerns the administration of the estates of deceased persons, any right, privilege, favour, or immunity which either of the High Contracting Parties has actually granted, or may hereafter grant, to the Consular officers of any other foreign State shall be extended immediately and unconditionally to the Consular officers of the other High Contracting Party.

ARTICLE VI There shall be between the territories of the two High Contracting Parties reciprocal freedom of commerce and navigation. The subjects of each of the High Contracting Parties shall have liberty freely to come with their ships and cargoes to all places, ports, and rivers in the territories of the other, which are or may be opened to foreign commerce, and conforming themselves to the laws of the country to which they thus come, shall

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enjoy the same rights, privileges, liberties, favours, immunities, and exemptions in matters of commerce and navigation as are or may be enjoyed by native subjects.

ARTICLE VII Articles, the produce or manufacture of the territories of one High Contracting Party, upon importation into the territories of the other, from whatever place arriving, shall enjoy the lowest rates of customs duty applicable to similar articles of any other foreign origin.

No prohibition or restriction shall be maintained or imposed on the importation of any article, the produce or manufacture of the territories of either of the High Contracting Parties, into the territories of the other, from whatever place arriving, which shall not equally extend to the importation of the like articles, being the produce or manufacture of any other foreign country. This provision is not applicable to the sanitary or other prohibitions occasioned by the necessity of securing the safety of persons, or of cattle, or of plants useful to agriculture.

ARTICLE VIII The articles, the produce or manufacture of the United Kingdom, enumerated in Part 1 of the Schedule annexed to this Treaty, shall not, on importation into Japan, be subjected to higher customs duties than those syecified in the Schedule.

The articles, the produce or manufacture of Japan, enumerated in Part 2 of the Schedule annexed to this Treaty, shall be free of duty on importation into the United Kingdom.

Provided that if at any time after the expiration of one year from the date this Treaty takes effect either of the High Contracting Parties desires to make a modification in the Schedule it may notify its desire to the other High Contracting Party, and thereupon negotiations for the purpose shall be entered into forthwith. If the negotiations are not brought to a satisfactory conclusion within six months from the date of notification, the High Contracting Party which gave the notification may, within one month, give six months' notice to abrogate the present Article, and on the expiration of such notice the present Article shall cease to have effect, without prejudice to the other stipulations of this Treaty.

ARTICLE IX Articles, the produce or manufacture of the territories of one of the High Contracting Parties, exported to the territories of the other, shall not be subjected on export to other or higher charges than those paid on the like articles exported to any other foreign country. Nor shall any prohibition or restriction be imposed on the exportation of any article from the territories of either of the two High Contracting Parties to the territories of the other which shall not equally extend to the exportation of the like article to any other foreign country.

ARTICLE X Articles, the produce or manufacture of the territories of one of the High Contracting Parties, passing in transit through the territories of the other, in conformity with the laws of the country, shall be reciprocally free from all transit duties, whether they pass direct, or whether during transit they are unloaded, warehoused, and reloaded.

ARTICLE XI No internal duties levied for the benefit of the State, local authorities, or corporations which affect, or may affect, the production, manufacture, or consumption of any article in the territories of the High Contracting Parties shall for any reason be a higher or more burdensome charge on articles, the produce or manufacture of the territories of the other, than on similar articles of native origin.

The produce or manufacture of the territories of either of the High Contracting Parities imported into the territories of the other, and intended for warehousing or transit, shall not be subjected to any internal duty.

ARTICLE XII Merchants and manufacturers, subjects of one of the High Contracting Parties, as well as merchants and manufacturers domiciled and exercising their commerce and industries in the territories of such party, may, in the territories of the other, either personally or by means of commercial travellers, make purchases or collect orders, with or without samples, and such merchants, manufacturers, and their commercial travellers, while so making purchases and collecting orders, shall, in the matter of taxation and facilities, enjoy the most-favoured-nation treatment.

Articles imported as samples for the purpose above mentioned shall, in each country, be temporarily admitted free of duty on compliance with the Customs regulations and formalities established to assure their re-exportation or the payment of the prescribed customs duties if not re-exported within the period allowed by law. But the foregoing privilege shall not extend to articles which, owing to their quantity or value, cannot be considered as samples, or which owing to their nature, could not be identified upon re-exportation. The determination of the question of the qualification of samples for duty-free admission rests in all cases exclusively with the competent authorities

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ARTICLE V The import duties on articles, the produce or manufacture of the territories of one of the High Contracting Parties, upon importation into the territories of the other, shall henceforth be regulated either by special arrangements between the two countries or by the internal legislation of each.

Neither Contracting Party shall impose any other or higher duties or charges on the exportation of any article to the territories of the other than are or may be payable on the exportation of the like article to any other foreign country.

Nor shall any prohibition be imposed by either country on the importation or exportation of any articles from or to the territories of the other which shall not equally extend to the like article imported from or exported or any other country. The last provision is not, however, applicable to prohibitions or restrictions maintained or imposed as sanitary measures or for purposes of protecting animals and useful plants.

ARTICLE VI The subjects or citizens of each of the High Contracting Parties shall enjoy in the territories of the other exemption from all transit duties and a perfect equality of treatment with native subjects or citizens in all that relates to warehousing, bounties, facilities and drawbacks.

ARTICLE VII Limited-liability and other companies and associations, commercial, industrial, and financial, already or hereafter to be organized in accordance with the laws of either High Contracting Party and domiciled in the territories of such Party, are authorized, in the territories of the other, to exercise their rights and appear in the courts either as plaintiffs or defendants, subject to the laws of such other Party.

The foregoing stipulation has no bearing upon the question whether a company or association organized in one of the two countries will or will not be permitted to transact its business or industry in the other, this permission remaining always subject to the laws and regulation enacted or established in the respective countries or in any part thereof.

ARTICLE VIII All articles which are or may be legally imported into the ports of either High Contracting Party from foreign countries in national vessels may likewise be imported into those in vessels of the other Contracting Party, without being liable to any other or higher duties or charges of whatever denomination than if such articles were imported in national vessels. Such reciprocal equality of treatment shall take effect without distinction, whether such articles come directly from the place of origin or from any other foreign place.

In the same manner, there shall be perfect equality of treatment in regard to exportation, so that the same export duties shall be paid, and the same bounties and drawbacks allowed, in the territories of each of the Contracting Parties on the exportation of any article which is or may be legally exported therefrom, whether such exportation shall take place in Japanese vessels or in vessels of the United States, and whatever may be the place of destination, whether a port of the other Party or of any third Power.

ARTICLE IX In all that the stationing, loading and unloading of vessels in the ports of the territories of the High Contracting Parties, no privileges shall be granted by either Party to national vessels which are not equally, in like cases, granted to the vessels of the other country; the intention of the Contracting Parties being that in these respects the respective vessels shall be treated on the footing of perfect equality.

ARTICLE X Merchant vessels navigating under the flag of Japan or that of the United States and carrying the papers required by their national laws to prove their nationality shall in the United States and in Japan be deemed to be vessels of Japan or of the United States, respectively.

ARTICLE XI No duties of tonnage, harbour, pilotage, lighthouse, quarantine, or other similar or corresponding duties of whatever denomination, levied in the name or for the profit of Government, public functionaries, private individuals, corporations or establishments of any kind shall be imposed in the ports of the territories of either country upon the vessls of the other which shall not equally, under the same conditions, be imposed on national vessels in general, or on vessels of the most favoured nation. Such equality of treatment shall apply reciprocally to the respective vessels from whatever place they may arrive and whatever may be their place of destination.

ARTICLE XII Vessels charged with performance of regular scheduled postal service of one of the High Contracting Parties, whether belonging to the State or subsidized by it for the purpose, shall enjoy, in the ports of the territories of the other, the same facilities, privileges and immunities as are granted to like vessels of the most favoured nation.

ARTICLE XIII The coasting trade of the High Contracting Parties is excepted

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desert from any ship belonging to either of the High Contracting Parties in the territorial waters of the other, the local authorities shall, within the limits of law, be bound to give every assistance in their power for the recovery of such deserter, on application to that effect being made to them by the competent Consular officer of the country to which the ship of the deserter may belong, accompanied by an assurance that all expenses connected therewith will be repaid.

It is understood that this stipulation shall not apply to the subjects of the country where the desertion takes place.

ARTICLE XXIII Any vessel of either of the High Contracting Parties which may be compelled, by stress of weather or by accident, to take shelter in a port of the other shall be at liberty to refit therein, to procure all necessary stores, and to put to sea again, without paying any dues other than such as would be payable in the like case by a national vessel. In case, however, the master of a merchant-vessel should be under the necessity of disposing of a part of his merchandise in order to defray the expenses, he shall be bound to conform to the Regulations and Tariffs of the place to which he may have come.

If any vessel of one of the High Contracting Parties should run aground or be wrecked upon the coasts of the other, such vessel, and all parts thereof, and all furniture and appurtenances belonging thereunto, and all goods and merchandise saved therefrom, including any which may have been cast into the sea, or the proceeds thereof, if sold, as well as all papers found on board such stranded or wrecked vessel, shall be given up to the owners or their agents when claimed by them. If there are no such owners or agents on the spot, then the same shall be delivered to the Japanese or British Consular officer in whose district the wreck or stranding may have taken place upon being claimed by him within the period fixed by the laws of the country, and such Consular officer, owners or agents shall pay only the expenses incurred in the preservation of the property together with the salvage or other expenses which would have been payable in the like case of a wreck or stranding of a national vessel.

The High Contracting Parties agree, moreover, that merchandise saved shall not be subjected to the payment of any customs duty unless cleared for internal consumption.

In the case either of a vessel being driven in by stress of weather, run aground, or wrecked, the respective Consular officers shall, if the owner or master or other agent of the owner is not present, or is present and requires it, be authorized to interpose in order to afford the necessary assistance to their fellow-country-men.

ARTICLE XXIV The High Contracting Parties agree that, in all that concerns commerce, navigation, and industry, any favour, privilege, or immunity which either High Contracting Party has actually granted, or may hereafter grant, to the ships, subjects, or citizens of any other foreign State shall be extended immediately and unconditionally to the ships or subjects of the other High Contracting Party, it being their intention that the commerce, navigation, and industry of each country shall be placed in all respects on the footing of the most favoured nation.

ARTICLE XXV The stipulations of this Treaty do not apply to tariff concessions granted by either of the High Contracting Parties to contiguous States solely to facilitate frontier traffic within a limited zone on each side of the frontier, or to the treatment accorded to the produce of the national fisheries of the High Contracting Parties, or to special tariff favours granted by Japan in regard to fish and other aquatic products taken in the foreign waters in the vicinity of Japan.

ARTICLE XXVI The stipulations of the present Treaty shall not be applicable to any of His Britannic Majesty's Dominions, Colonies, Possessions, or Protectorates, beyond the Seas, unless notice of adhesion shall have been given on behalf of any such Dominion, Colony, Possession, or Protectrate by His Britannic Majesty's Representative at Tokio before the expiration of two years from the date of the exchange of the ratification of the present Treaty.

ARTICLE XXVII The present Treaty shall be ratified, and the ratifications exchanged at Tokio as soon as possible. It shall enter into operation on the 17th July, 1911, and remain in force until the 16th July, 1923. In case neither of the High Contracting Parties shall have given notice to the other twelve months before the expiration of the said period, of its intention to terminate the Treaty, it shall continue operative until the expiration of one year from the date on which either of the High Contracting Parties shall have denounced it.

As regards the British Dominions, Colonies, Possessions, and Protectorates to which the present Treaty may have been made applicable in virtue of Article 26, however, either of the High Contracting Parties shall have the right to terminate it separately at any time on given twelve

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pliance with the laws of the country, freely to export the proceeds of the sale of their property and their goods in general without being subjected as foreigners to other or higher duties than those to which subjects of the country would be liable under similar circumstances.

6. They shall enjoy constant and complete protection and security for their persons and property, shall have free and easy access to the Courts of Justice and other tribunals in pursuit and defence of their claims and rights; and shall have full liberty, equally with native subjects, to choose and employ lawyers and advocates to represent them before such Courts and tribunals; and generally shall have the same rights and privileges as native subjects in all that concerns the administration of justice.

7. They shall not be compelled to pay taxes, fees, charges, or contributions of any kind whatever, other or higher than those which are or may be paid by native subjects or the citizens of the most favoured nation.

8. And they shall enjoy a perfect equality of treatment with native subject in all that relates to facilities for warehousing under bond, bounties, and drawbacks.

ARTICLE II The subjects of each of the High Contracting Parties in the territories of the other shall be exempted from all compulsory military services, whether in the army, navy, national guard, or militia; and from all forced loans and military requisitions or contributions unless imposed on them equally with native subjects as owners, lessees, or occupiers of immovable property.

In the above respects the subjects of each of the High Contracting Parties shall not be accorded in the territories of the other less favourable treatment than that which is or may be accorded to subjects or citizens of the most favoured nation.

ARTICLE III The dwellings, ware-houses, manufactories, and shops of the subjects of each of the High Contracting Parties in the territories of the other, and all premises appertaining thereto used for lawful purposes, shall be respected. It shall not be allowable to proceed to make a domiciliary visit to, or a search of, any such buildings and premises, or to examine or inspect books, papers, or accounts, except under the conditions and with the forms presented by the laws for native subjects.

ARTICLE IV Each of the High Contracting Parties may appoint Consuls-General, Consuls, Vice-Consuls, and Consular Agents in all the ports, cities, and places of the other, except in those where it may not be convenient to recognize such officers. This exception, however, shall not be made in regard one of the High Contracting Parties without being made likewise in regard to all other Powers.

Such Consuls-General, Consuls, Vice-Consuls, and Consular Agents, having received exequaturs or other sufficient authorizations from the Government of the country to which they are appointed, shall have the right to exercise their functions, and to enjoy the privileges, exemptions, and immunities which are or may be granted to the Consular officers of the most favoured nation. The Government issuing exequaturs or other authorizations has the right in its discretion to cancel the same on explaining the reasons for which it thought proper to do so.

ARTICLE V In case of the death of a subject of one of the High Contracting Parties in the territories of the other, without leaving at the place of his decease any person entitled by the laws of his country to take charge of and administer the estate, the competent Consular officer of the State to which the deceased belonged shall, upon fulfilment of the necessary formalities, be empowered to take custody of and administer the estate in the manner and under the limitations prescribed by the law of the country in which the property of the deceased is situated.

The foregoing provision shall also apply in case of a subject of one of the High Contracting Parties dying outside the territories of the other, but possessing property therein, without leaving any person there entitled to take charge of and administer the estate.

It is understood that in all that concerns the administration of the estates of deceased persons, any right, privilege, favour, or immunity which either of the High Contracting Parties has actually granted, or may hereafter grant, to the Consular officers of any other foreign State shall be extended immediately and unconditionally to the Consular officers of the other High Contracting Party.

ARTICLE VI There shall be between the territories of the two High Contracting Parties reciprocal freedom of commerce and navigation. The subjects of each of the High Contracting Parties shall have liberty freely to come with their ships and cargoes to all places, ports, and rivers in the territories of the other, which are or may be opened to foreign commerce, and conforming themselves to the laws of the country to which they thus come, shall

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enjoy the same rights, privileges, liberties, favours, immunities, and exemptions in matters of commerce and navigation as are or may be enjoyed by native subjects.

ARTICLE VII Articles, the produce or manufacture of the territories of one High Contracting Party, upon importation into the territories of the other, from whatever place arriving, shall enjoy the lowest rates of customs duty applicable to similar articles of any other foreign origin.

No prohibition or restriction shall be maintained or imposed on the importation of any article, the produce or manufacture of the territories of either of the High Contracting Parties, into the territories of the other, from whatever place arriving, which shall not equally extend to the importation of the like articles, being the produce or manufacture of any other foreign country. This provision is not applicable to the sanitary or other prohibitions occasioned by the necessity of securing the safety of persons, or of cattle, or of plants useful to agriculture.

ARTICLE VIII The articles, the produce or manufacture of the United Kingdom, enumerated in Part 1 of the Schedule annexed to this Treaty, shall not, on importation into Japan, be subjected to higher customs duties than those syecified in the Schedule.

The articles, the produce or manufacture of Japan, enumerated in Part 2 of the Schedule annexed to this Treaty, shall be free of duty on importation into the United Kingdom.

Provided that if at any time after the expiration of one year from the date this Treaty takes effect either of the High Contracting Parties desires to make a modification in the Schedule it may notify its desire to the other High Contracting Party, and thereupon negotiations for the purpose shall be entered into forthwith. If the negotiations are not brought to a satisfactory conclusion within six months from the date of notification, the High Contracting Party which gave the notification may, within one month, give six months' notice to abrogate the present Article, and on the expiration of such notice the present Article shall cease to have effect, without prejudice to the other stipulations of this Treaty.

ARTICLE IX Articles, the produce or manufacture of the territories of one of the High Contracting Parties, exported to the territories of the other, shall not be subjected on export to other or higher charges than those paid on the like articles exported to any other foreign country. Nor shall any prohibition or restriction be imposed on the exportation of any article from the territories of either of the two High Contracting Parties to the territories of the other which shall not equally extend to the exportation of the like article to any other foreign country.

ARTICLE X Articles, the produce or manufacture of the territories of one of the High Contracting Parties, passing in transit through the territories of the other, in conformity with the laws of the country, shall be reciprocally free from all transit duties, whether they pass direct, or whether during transit they are unloaded, warehoused, and reloaded.

ARTICLE XI No internal duties levied for the benefit of the State, local authorities, or corporations which affect, or may affect, the production, manufacture, or consumption of any article in the territories of the High Contracting Parties shall for any reason be a higher or more burdensome charge on articles, the produce or manufacture of the territories of the other, than on similar articles of native origin.

The produce or manufacture of the territories of either of the High Contracting Parities imported into the territories of the other, and intended for warehousing or transit, shall not be subjected to any internal duty.

ARTICLE XII Merchants and manufacturers, subjects of one of the High Contracting Parties, as well as merchants and manufacturers domiciled and exercising their commerce and industries in the territories of such party, may, in the territories of the other, either personally or by means of commercial travellers, make purchases or collect orders, with or without samples, and such merchants, manufacturers, and their commercial travellers, while so making purchases and collecting orders, shall, in the matter of taxation and facilities, enjoy the most-favoured-nation treatment.

Articles imported as samples for the purpose above mentioned shall, in each country, be temporarily admitted free of duty on compliance with the Customs regulations and formalities established to assure their re-exportation or the payment of the prescribed customs duties if not re-exported within the period allowed by law. But the foregoing privilege shall not extend to articles which, owing to their quantity or value, cannot be considered as samples, or which owing to their nature, could not be identified upon re-exportation. The determination of the question of the qualification of samples for duty-free admission rests in all cases exclusively with the competent authorities

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niers se trouvant entre les mains de l'un des Gouvernements seront remis au Commissaire de l'autre Gouvernement, ou à son représentant dûment autorisé, qui les recevra en tel nombre et dans tels ports convenable de l'État remettant que ce dernier aurait notifié d'avance au Commissaire de l'État recevant.

Les Gouvernements du Japon et de Russie présenteront l'un à l'autre, le plus tôt possible après que la remise des prisonniers aura été achevée, un compte documenté des dépenses directes faites respectivement par eux pour le soin et l'entretien des prisonniers depuis la date de la captureou de la reddition jusqu'à celle de la mort ou de la remise. La Russie s'engage à rem bourser au Japon, aussitôt que possible après L'échange de ces comptes comme il est stipulé ci-dessus, la différence entre le montant réel ainsi dépensé par le Japon et le montant réel également déboursé, par la Russie.

THE CONVENTION EMBODYING BASIC RULES OF THE RELATIONS BETWEEN JAPAN AND THE UNION OF SOVIET SOCIALIST REPUBLICS

Signed at Peking, January 20, 1925

ARTICLE I The High Contracting Parties agree that with the coming into force of the present Convention, diplomatic and consular relations shall be established between them.

ARTICLE II The Union of Soviet Socialist Republics agrees that the Treaty of September 5th, 1905, shall remain in full force.

It is agreed that the Treaties, Conventions and Agreements, other than the said Treaty of Portsmouth, which were concluded between Japan and Russia prior to November 7, 1917, shall be re-examined at a Conference to be subsequently held between the Governments of the High Contracting Parties and are liable to revision or annulment as altered circumstances may require.

ARTICLE III The Governments of the High Contracting Parties agree that upon the coming into force of the present Convention, they shall proceed to the revision of the Fishery Convention of 1907, taking into considration such changes as may have taken place in the general conditions since the conclusion of the said Fishery Convention.

Pending the conclusion of a convention so revised, the Government of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics shall maintain the practices established in 1924 relating to the lease of fishery lots to Japanese subjects.

ARTICLE IV The Governments of the High Contracting Parties agree that upon the coming into force of the present Convention, they shall proceed to the conclusion of a treaty of commerce and navigation in conformity with the principles hereunder mentioned, and that pending the conclusion of such a treaty, the general intercourse between the two countries shall be regulated by those principles.

(1) The subjects or citizens of each of the High Contracting Parties shall in accordance with the laws of the country: a / have liberty to enter, travel and reside in the territories of the other, and b / enjoy constant and complete protection for the safety of their lives and property.

(2) Each of the High Contracting Parties shall in accordance with the laws of the country accord in its territories to the subjects or citizens of the other, to the widest possible extent and on condition of reciprocity, the right of private ownership and the liberty to engage in commerce, navigation, industries, and other peaceful pursuits.

(3) Without prejudice to the right of each Contracting Party to regulate by its own laws the system of international trade in that country, it is understood that neither Contracting Party shall apply in discrimination against the other Party any measures of prohibition, restriction or impost which may serve to hamper the growth of the intercourse, economic or otherwise, between the two countries, it being the intention of both Parties to place the commerce, navigation and industry of each country, as far as possible, on the footing of the most favoured nation.

The Governments of the High Contracting Parties further agree that they shall enter into negotiations, from time to time as circumstances may require, for the conclusion of special arrangements relative to commerce and navigation to adjust ond to promote economic relations between the two countries.

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desert from any ship belonging to either of the High Contracting Parties in the territorial waters of the other, the local authorities shall, within the limits of law, be bound to give every assistance in their power for the recovery of such deserter, on application to that effect being made to them by the competent Consular officer of the country to which the ship of the deserter may belong, accompanied by an assurance that all expenses connected therewith will be repaid.

It is understood that this stipulation shall not apply to the subjects of the country where the desertion takes place.

ARTICLE XXIII Any vessel of either of the High Contracting Parties which may be compelled, by stress of weather or by accident, to take shelter in a port of the other shall be at liberty to refit therein, to procure all necessary stores, and to put to sea again, without paying any dues other than such as would be payable in the like case by a national vessel. In case, however, the master of a merchant-vessel should be under the necessity of disposing of a part of his merchandise in order to defray the expenses, he shall be bound to conform to the Regulations and Tariffs of the place to which he may have come.

If any vessel of one of the High Contracting Parties should run aground or be wrecked upon the coasts of the other, such vessel, and all parts thereof, and all furniture and appurtenances belonging thereunto, and all goods and merchandise saved therefrom, including any which may have been cast into the sea, or the proceeds thereof, if sold, as well as all papers found on board such stranded or wrecked vessel, shall be given up to the owners or their agents when claimed by them. If there are no such owners or agents on the spot, then the same shall be delivered to the Japanese or British Consular officer in whose district the wreck or stranding may have taken place upon being claimed by him within the period fixed by the laws of the country, and such Consular officer, owners or agents shall pay only the expenses incurred in the preservation of the property together with the salvage or other expenses which would have been payable in the like case of a wreck or stranding of a national vessel.

The High Contracting Parties agree, moreover, that merchandise saved shall not be subjected to the payment of any customs duty unless cleared for internal consumption.

In the case either of a vessel being driven in by stress of weather, run aground, or wrecked, the respective Consular officers shall, if the owner or master or other agent of the owner is not present, or is present and requires it, be authorized to interpose in order to afford the necessary assistance to their fellow-country-men.

ARTICLE XXIV The High Contracting Parties agree that, in all that concerns commerce, navigation, and industry, any favour, privilege, or immunity which either High Contracting Party has actually granted, or may hereafter grant, to the ships, subjects, or citizens of any other foreign State shall be extended immediately and unconditionally to the ships or subjects of the other High Contracting Party, it being their intention that the commerce, navigation, and industry of each country shall be placed in all respects on the footing of the most favoured nation.

ARTICLE XXV The stipulations of this Treaty do not apply to tariff concessions granted by either of the High Contracting Parties to contiguous States solely to facilitate frontier traffic within a limited zone on each side of the frontier, or to the treatment accorded to the produce of the national fisheries of the High Contracting Parties, or to special tariff favours granted by Japan in regard to fish and other aquatic products taken in the foreign waters in the vicinity of Japan.

ARTICLE XXVI The stipulations of the present Treaty shall not be applicable to any of His Britannic Majesty's Dominions, Colonies, Possessions, or Protectorates, beyond the Seas, unless notice of adhesion shall have been given on behalf of any such Dominion, Colony, Possession, or Protectrate by His Britannic Majesty's Representative at Tokio before the expiration of two years from the date of the exchange of the ratification of the present Treaty.

ARTICLE XXVII The present Treaty shall be ratified, and the ratifications exchanged at Tokio as soon as possible. It shall enter into operation on the 17th July, 1911, and remain in force until the 16th July, 1923. In case neither of the High Contracting Parties shall have given notice to the other twelve months before the expiration of the said period, of its intention to terminate the Treaty, it shall continue operative until the expiration of one year from the date on which either of the High Contracting Parties shall have denounced it.

As regards the British Dominions, Colonies, Possessions, and Protectorates to which the present Treaty may have been made applicable in virtue of Article 26, however, either of the High Contracting Parties shall have the right to terminate it separately at any time on given twelve

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months' notice to that effect. It is understood that the stipulations of the present and of the preceding Article referring to British Dominions, Colonies, Possessions, and Protectorates apply also to the island of Cyprus.

TRAITÉ DE PAIX ENTRE LE JAPON ET LA RUSSIE

Signé á Portsmouth, en français et anglais, le 5 septembre, 1905 (38éme année de Meiji)

ARTICLE I

Il y aura à l'avenir paix et amitié entre Leurs Majestés l'Empereur du Japon et l'Empereur de toutes les Russies, ainsi qu'entre Leurs Etats et sujets respectifs.

ARTICLE II

Le Gouvernement Impérial de Russie, reconnaissant que le Japon possède en Corée des intérêts prédominants politiques, militaires et économiques, s'engage à ne point intervenir ni mettre d'obstacles aux mesures de direction, de protection et de controle que le Gouvernement Impérial du Japon pourrait considérer nécessaire de prendre en Corée.

Il est entendu que les subjects russes en Corée seront traités exa ctement de la même manière que les ressortissants des autres pays étrangers, à savoir qu'ils seront placés sur le même pied que les ressortissants de la nation la plus favorisée.

Il est de même convenu que pour éviter toute cause de malentendu, les deux Hautes Parties Contractantes s'abstiendront, sur la frontière russocoréenne, de prendre toute mesure militaire qui pourrait menacer la sécurité du territoire russe ou coréen.

ARTICLE III

Le Japon et la Russie s'engagent mutuellement:

1. A évacuer complètement et simultanément la Manchourie à l'exception du territoire sur lequel s'étend le bail de la presqu'île de Liaotung, conformément aux disposition de Liaotung, conformément aux dispositions de l'Article additionnel 1 annexé à ce Traité; et

2. A restituer entièrement et complètement à l'administration exclusive de la Chine toutes les parties de la Manchourie qui sont occupées maintenant par les troupes japonaises ou russes ou qui sont sous leur controle, à l'exception du territoire susmentionné.

Le Gouvernement Impérial de Russie déclare qu'il n'a point en Manchourie d'avantages territoriaux ou concessions préférentielles ou exclusives de nature à porter atteinte à la souveraineté de la Chine ou incompatibles avec le principe d'opportunité égale.

ARTICLE IV

Le Japon et la Russie s'engagent réciproquement à ne mettre aucun obstacle aux mesures générales qui s'appliquent également à toutes les nations et que la Chine pourrait prendre pour le développement du commerce et de l'industrie en Manchourie.

ARTICLE V

Le Gouvernement Impérial de Russie cède au Gouvernement Impérial du Japon avec le consentement du Gouvernement de Chine, le bail de Port Arthur, de Talien et des territoires et eaux territoriales adjacents, ainsi que tous les droits, privilèges et concessions se rattachant à ce bail ou en faisant partie, et il cède de même, au Gouvernement Impérial du Japon, oust les travaux et propriétés publics dans le territoire sur lequel s'étend le bail susmentionné.

Les deux Hautes Parties Contractantes s'engagent mutuellement à obtenir du Gouvernement de Chine le consentement mentionné dans la stipulation ci-dessus.

Le Gouvernement Impérial du Japon donne, de sa part, l'assurance que les droits de propriété des sujets russes dans le territoire susmentionné seront parfaitement respectés.

ARTICLE VI

Le Gouvernement Impérial de Russie s'engage à céder au Gouvernement Impérial du Japon, sans compensation, avec

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le consentement du Gouvernement de Chine, le chemin de fer entre Tchan-Tchoun (Kouan-Tchen-Tsy) et Port Arthur et tous ses embranchements avec tous les droits, privilèges et propriétés y appartenant dans cette région, ainsi que toutes les mines de charbon dans ladite région, appartenant à ce chemin de fer ou en exploitation pour son profit.

Les deux Hautes Parties Contractantes s'engagent mutuellement à obtenir du Gouvernement de Chine le consentement mentionné dans la stipulation ci-dessus.

ARTICLE VII

Le Japon et la Russie s'engagent à exploiter leurs chemins de fer respectifs en Manchourie exclusivement dans un but commercial et industrial, mais nullement dans un but stratégique.

Il est entendu que cette restriction ne s'applique pas aux chemins de fer dans le territoire sur lequel s'étend le bail de la presqu'île de Liaotung.

ARTICLE VIII

Les Gouvernments Impériaux du Japon et de Russie, en vue de favoriser et de faciliter les relations et le traffic, concluront, aussitot que possible, une convention séparée pour le règlement de leurs services de raccordement de chemins de fer en Manchourie.

ARTICLE VIX

Le Gouvernement Impérial de Russie céde au Gouvernement Impérial du Japon en perpétuité et en pleine souveraineté la partie sud de l'île de Sahnaline et toutes les îles qui y sont adjacentes, ainsi que tous les travaux et propriétés publics qui s'y trouvent. Le cinquantième parallèle de latitude nord est adopté comme la limite du territoire cédé. La ligne frontière exacte de ce territoire sera détérminée conformément aux dispositions de l'Article additionnel 2 annexé à ce Traité.

Le Japon et la Russie conviennent mutuellement de ne construire dans leurs possessions respectives sur l'île de Sakhaline et sur les îles qui y sont adjacentes aucune fortification ni travaux militaires semblables. De même, ils s engagent respectivement à ne prendre aucune mesure militaire qui pourrait entraver la libre navigation des Détroits de La Pérpose et de Tartarie.

ARTICLE X

Il est réservé aux sujets russes habitants du territoire cédé au Japon de vendre leurs propriétés immobilières et de se retirer dans leur pays; mais, s'ils, préfèrent rester dans le territoire cédé, ils seront maintenus et protégés dans le plein exercice de leurs industries et droits de propriété à la condition de se soumettre aux lois et à la jurisdiction japonaises. Le Japon aura la pleine liberté de retirer le droit de résidence dans ce territoire à tous les habitants se trouvant dans l'incapacité politique ou administrative, ou de les déporter de ce territoire. Il s'engage toutefois à ce que les droits de propriété de ces habitants soient pleinement respectés.

ARTICLE XI

La Russie s'engage à s'entendre avec le Japon pour concéder aux sujets japonais des droits de pêche le long des cotes des possessions russes dans les Mers du Japon, d'Okhotsk et de Behring.

Il est convenu que l'engagement susmentionné ne portera pas atteinte aux droits déjà appartenant aux sujets russes ou étrangers dans ces régions.

ARTICLE XII

Le Traité de Commerce et de Navigation entre le Japon et la Russie ayant été annulé par la guerre, les Gouvernements Impériaux du Japon et de Russie s'engagent à adopter comme base de leurs relation commercials, jusqu'à la conclusion d'un nouveau traité de commerce et de navigation sur la base du Traité qui était en vigueur antérieurement à la guerre actuelle, le système du traitement réciproque sur le pied de la nation la plus favorisée, y compris les tarifs d'importation, et d'exportation, les formalités de douane, les droits de transit et de tonnage et l'addmission et le traitement des agents, des sujets et des vaissaux d'un pays dans le territoire de l'autre.

ARTICLE XIII

Aussitôt que possible après la mise en vigueur du présent Traité, tous les prisonniers de guerre seront réciproquement restitués. Les Gouvernements Impériaux du Japon et de Russie nommeront, chacun de son coté, un Commissaire spécial qui se chargera des prisonniers. Tous les prison-

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niers se trouvant entre les mains de l'un des Gouvernements seront remis au Commissaire de l'autre Gouvernement, ou à son représentant dûment autorisé, qui les recevra en tel nombre et dans tels ports convenable de l'État remettant que ce dernier aurait notifié d'avance au Commissaire de l'État recevant.

Les Gouvernements du Japon et de Russie présenteront l'un à l'autre, le plus tôt possible après que la remise des prisonniers aura été achevée, un compte documenté des dépenses directes faites respectivement par eux pour le soin et l'entretien des prisonniers depuis la date de la captureou de la reddition jusqu'à celle de la mort ou de la remise. La Russie s'engage à rem bourser au Japon, aussitôt que possible après L'échange de ces comptes comme il est stipulé cidessus, la différence entre le montant réel ainsi dépensé par le Japon et le montant réel également déboursé, par la Russie.

THE CONVENTION EMBODYING BASIC RULES OF THE RELATIONS BETWEEN JAPAN AND THE UNION OF SOVIET SOCIALIST REPUBLICS

Signed at Peking, January 20, 1925

ARTICLE I The High Contracting Parties agree that with the coming into force of the present Convention, diplomatic and consular relations shall be established between them.

ARTICLE II The Union of Soviet Socialist Republics agrees that the Treaty of September 5th, 1905, shall remain in full force.

It is agreed that the Treaties, Conventions and Agreements, other than the said Treaty of Portsmouth, which were concluded between Japan and Russia prior to November 7, 1917, shall be re-examined at a Conference to be subsequently held between the Governments of the High Contracting Parties and are liable to revision or annulment as altered circumstances may require.

ARTICLE III The Governments of the High Contracting Parties agree that upon the coming into force of the present Convention, they shall proceed to the revision of the Fishery Convention of 1907, taking into considration such changes as may have taken place in the general conditions since the conclusion of the said Fishery Convention.

Pending the conclusion of a convention so revised, the Government of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics shall maintain the practices established in 1924 relating to the lease of fishery lots to Japanese subjects.

ARTICLE IV The Governments of the High Contracting Parties agree that upon the coming into force of the present Convention, they shall proceed to the conclusion of a treaty of commerce and navigation in conformity with the principles hereunder mentioned, and that pending the conclusion of such a treaty, the general intercourse between the two countries shall be regulated by those principles.

(1) The subjects or citizens of each of the High Contracting Parties shall in accordance with the laws of the country: a / have liberty to enter, travel and reside in the territories of the other, and b / enjoy constant and complete protection for the safety of their lives and property.

(2) Each of the High Contracting Parties shall in accordance with the laws of the country accord in its territories to the subjects or citizens of the other, to the widest possible extent and on condition of reciprocity, the right of private ownership and the liberty to engage in commerce, navigation, industries, and other peaceful pursuits.

(3) Without prejudice to the right of each Contracting Party to regulate by its own laws the system of international trade in that country, it is understood that neither Contracting Party shall apply in discrimination against the other Party any measures of prohibition, restriction or impost which may serve to hamper the growth of the intercourse, economic or otherwise, between the two countries, it being the intention of both Parties to place the commerce, navigation and industry of each country, as far as possible, on the footing of the most favoured nation.

The Governments of the High Contracting Parties further agree that they shall enter into negotiations, from time to time as circumstances may require, for the conclusion of special arrangements relative to commerce and navigation to adjust ond to promote economic relations between the two countries.

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ARTICLE V The High Contracting Parties solemnly affirm their desire and intention to live in peace and amity with each other, scrupulously to respect the undoubted right of a State to order its own life within its own jurisdiction in its own way, to refrain and restrain all persons in any governmental service for them, and all organizations in receipt of any financial assistance from them, from any act overt or covert liable in any way whatever to endanger the order and security in any part of the territories of Japan or the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics.

It is further agreed that neither Contracting Party shall permit the presence in the territories under its jurisdiction—(a) of organizations or groups pretending to be the Government for any part of the territories of the other Party, or (b) of alien subjects or citizens who may be found to be actually carrying on political activities for such organizations or groups.

ARTICLE VI In the interest of promoting economic relations between the two countries, and taking into consideration the needs of Japan with regard to natural resources, the Government of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics is willing to grant to Japanese subjects, companies and associations concessions for the exploitation of minerals, forest and other natural resources in all the territories of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics.

ARTICLE VII The present Convention shall be ratified.

Such ratification by each of the High Contracting Parties shall, with as little delay as possible, be communicated through its diplomatic representative at Peking, to the Government of the other Party, and from the date of the letter of such communications this Convention shall come into full force.

CONVENTION DE COMMERCE ET DE NAVIGATION ENTRE LE JAPON ET LA FRANCE

Signé à Paris, le 19 août, 1911

ARTICLE PREMIER

Les ressortissants de chacune des Hautes Parties Contractantes auront pleine liberté, avec leurs familles, d'entrer et de séjourner dans toute l'étendue des territoires de l'autre. Sous la condition de se conformer aux lois du pays, ils jouiront des droits ci-après spécifiés:

1 Ils seront, en ce qui concerne le voyage et la résidence, traités sous tous rapports comme les nationaux;

2 Ils auront, comme les nationaux, le droit de se livrer au commerce ou à l'industrie manufacturière et de faire le trafic de tous articles de commerce licite, soit en personne, soit par des représentants, soit seuls, soit en association avec des étrangers ou des nationaux;

3 Ils seront, en ce qui concerne l'exercice de leur industrie, métier ou profession, la poursuite de leurs études ou investigations scientifiques, traités à tous égards, comme les ressortissants de la nation la plus favorisée;

4 Ils pourront posséder ou louer et occuper les maisons, les manufactures, les magasins, les boutiques et les locaux qui peuvent leur être nécessaires et prendre à bail des terrains l'effet d'y résider ou de les utiliser dans un but licite commercial, industriel, manufacturier ou autre;

5 Ils pourront, sous la condition de la réciprocité, librement acquérir et posséder toute espèce de propriété mobilière ou immobilière, que la loi du pays permet ou permettra d'acquérir ou de posséder aux ressortissants de tout autre pays étranger. Ils pourront en disposer par voie de vente, échange, donation, mariage, testament, ou de toute autre manière sous les mêmes conditions qui sont ou seront établies à l'égard des nationaux eux-mêmes. Ils pourront aussi exporter librement le produit des ventes de leurs propriétés et tout ce qui leur appartient en général, sans pouvoir être soumis en tant qu'étrangers, à des droits autres ou plus élevés que ceux auxquels seraient soumis les nationaux dans les mêmes circonstances;

6 Ils jouiront d'une protection et sécurité constantes et complètes, pour leurs personnes et leurs propriétés; ils auront un accès libre et facile auprès des cours et tribunaux de justice pour la poursuite et la défense de leurs droits, et ils seront, en outre, comme les nationaux eux-mêmes, libres de choisir et d'employer des avocats, avoués et autres hommes de loi pour les représenter devant les cours et

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tribunaux, et d'une manière générale ils auront les mêmes droits et privilèges que les nationaux pour tout ce qui concerne l'administration de la justice;

7 Ils seront exempts de tout service militaire obligatoire, soit dans l'armée de terre ou de mer, soit dans la garde nationale ou la milice, ainsi que de toutes les contributions imposées en lieu et place du service personnel. Ils seront exempts également de tous emprunts forcés et de toutes réquisitions ou contributions militaires, sauf ceux qui leur seront imposés, comme aux nationaux eux-mêmes, en leur qualité de possesseurs, locataires ou occupants de biens immeubles. Pour ce qui précède, les ressortissants de chacune des Hautes Parties Contractantes ne seront pas traités sur les territoires de l'autre moins bien que ne le sont ou ne le seront les ressortissants de la nation la plus favorisée;

8 Ils ne seront contraints à subir des charges ou à payer des impôts, taxes ou contributions, de quelque nature que ce soit, autres ou plus élevés que ceux qui sont ou pourront être imposés aux nationaux ou ressortissants de la nation la plus favorisée.

ARTICLE II

Les habitations, magasins, manufactures et boutiques des ressortissants de chacune des Hautes Parties Contractantes dans les territoires de l'autre, ainsi que tous les locaux qui en dépendent, employés pour des buts licites, seront respectés. Il ne sera point permis d'y procéder à des visites domiciliaires ou perquisitions, non plus que d'examiner ou d'inspecter les livres, papiers ou comptes, sauf dans les conditions et formes prescrites par les lois à l'égard des nationaux eux-mêmes.

ARTICLE III

Les ressortissants des Parties Contractantes jouiront de la liberté réciproque de commerce, et de navigation; ils auront, de la même facon que les ressortissants de la nation la plus favorisée, plein liberté de se rendre avec leurs navires et leurs cargaisons dans les lieux, ports et rivières des territoires de l'autre, qui sont ou pourront être ouverts au commerce extérieur; ils bénéficieront, en se conformant toujours aux lois du pays où ils arrivent, des mêmes droits, faveurs, libertés, immunités et exemptions en matière de commerce et de navigation, dont bénéficient ou bénéficieraient les nationaux eux-mêmes.

ARTICLE IV

Les sociétés anonymes ou autres et les associations commerciales, industrielles et financières qui sont ou seront constituées conformément aux lois de l'une des Parties Contractantes et qui ont leur domicile dans les territoires de cette Partie, sont autorisées, dans les territoires de l'autre, en se conformant aux lois de celle-ci, à exercer leurs droits et à ester en justice devant les tribunaux, soit pour intenter une action, soit pour y défendre.

ARTICLE V

Les droits de douane percus à l'entrée au Japon et en France sur les produits de l'autre pays ne pourront être autres ou plus élevés que ceux imposés aux produits similaires originaires du pays le plus favorisé.

Les droits percus à la sortie du Japon et de France sur les produits destinés à l'autre pays ne pourront également être autres ou plus élevés que ceux imposés aus mêmes produits destinés au pays le plus favorisé.

ARTICLE VI

Les Parties Contractantes s'engagent à n'entraver nullement le commerce réciproque des deux pays par des prohibitions ou restrictions à l'importation, à l'exportation ou au transit.

Des exceptions à cette règle, en tant qu'elles seront applicables à tous les pays ou aux pays se trouvant dans les mêmes conditions, ne pourront avoir lieu que dans les cas suivants:

1 Pour les approvisionnements et munitions de guerre, dans des circonstances extraordinaires;

2 Pour des raisons de sûreté publique;

3 Par égard à la police sanitaire ou en vue de la protection des animaux ou des plantes utiles contre les maladies ou les insectes et parasites nuisibles;

4 En vue de l'application aux marchandises étrangères des prohibitions ou restrictions édictées par des lois intérieure des marchandises similaires ou de la vente ou du transport à l'intérieur des marchandises similaires de la production nationale;

5 Pour les marchandises qui sont ou seront l'objet d'un monopole d'Etat.

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ment ou indirectement indiqué comme pays ou comme lieu d'origine, sera saisi à l'importation à la requête des autorités douanières ou ministère public où d'une partie intéresée, si la législation de chaque Pays Contractant l'admet, ou bien, à défaut, sera soumis aux actions et moyens assurés en pareil cas par la loi aux nationaux.

ARTICLE XVII

Les Hautes Parties Contractantes conviennent que, pour tout ce qui concerne le commerce, l'industrie et la navigation, tout privilège, faveur ou immunité quelconque, que l'une d'elles a déjà accordés ou accorderait à l'avenir au commerce, à l'industrie et à la naqigation de tout autre État, seront étendus immédiatement et sans condition, au commerce, à l'industrie et à la navigation de l'autre Partie Contoractante, leur intention étant que le commerce, l'industrie et la navigation de chaque pays jouissent sous tous rapports du traitement de la nation la plus favorisée.

ARTICLE XVIII

Les stipulations de la présente Convention ne sont pas applicables:

1 Aux avantages particuliers actuellement accordés ou qui pourraient être ultérieurement accordés par l'une des Parties Contractantes à des États limitrophes pour faciliter le trafic frontière;

2 Aux faveurs spéciales résultant d'une union douanière;

3 Aux pêches assimilées à la pêche nationale;

4 Aux encouragements accordés ou qui pourraient être accordés à la marine marchande nationale.

ARTICLE XIX

Les dispositions de la présente Convention sont applicables à l'Algérie. Elles pourront être ultérieurement étendues en tout ou partie aux colonies, possessions françaises et pays de protectorat par une déclaration concertée entre les deux gouvernments.

Il est entendu en outre que la présente Convention est applicable à toutes les colonies et possessions du Japon.

ARTICLE XX

La présente Convention sera ratifiée et l'échange des ratifications aura lieu à Tokyo; les ratifications seront notifiées dans le plus bref délai possible aux Gouvernments du Japon et de la France par leurs Représentants respectifs; à partir de la date de la dernière de ces deux notifications, la présente Convention entrera en vigueur et demeurera exécutoire pendant une période de dix années.

Toutefois, l'article 5 en vertu duquel les droits de douane perçus en France sur les produits d'origine japonaise et au Japon sur les produits d'origine française ne seront autres ou plus élevés que ceux perçus sur les produits similaires originaires du pays le plus favorisé, pourra être dénoncé à toute époque par chacune des deux Parties Contractantes, et dans ce cas, il cessera d'être exécutoire un an après cette dénonciation.

Au cas où douze mois avant la date d'expiration de la présente Convention aucune des deux Parties Contractantes n'aurait notifié son intention d'en faire cesser les effets, cet acte demeurera obligatoire jusqu'à l'expiration d'une année à partir du jour où l'une ou l'autre Partie Contractante l'aura dénoncé.

TRAITÉ DE COMMERCE ET DE NAVIGATION ENTER LE JAPON ET L'ALLEMAGNE

Signé à Berlin, le 24 Juin, 1911

ARTICLE I

Les ressortissants de chacune des Hautes Parties Contractantes auront pleine liberté d'entrer et de séjourner en tout lieu des territoires de l'autre.

A condition de se conformer aux lois du Pays, ils jouiront des droits spécifiés ci-dessous:

1. Ils seront, pour tout ce qui concerne la résidence, les études et investigations, l'exercice de leurs métiers et professions et l'exécution de leurs entreprises industrielles et manufacturières, placés, à tous égards, sur le même pied que les res-

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sortissants de la nation la plus favorisée;

2. Ils auront, comme les nationaux eux-mêmes, le droit de voyager dans toute l'étendue des territoires de l'autre et le droit de faire le trafic de tous articles de commerce licite;

3. Ils pourront posséder ou louer et occuper des maisons, fabriques, magasins, boutiques et les locaux qui en dépendent. De même ils pourront louer des terrains à l'effet d'y résider ou de les utiliser dans un but licite commercial, industriel, manufacturier ou autre;

4. En ce qui concerne la possession de biens mobiliers de quelque espèce que ce soit, la transmission, par succession testamentaire ou autre, des biens mobiliers de toute sorte qu'ils peuvent légalement acquérir entre vivants et en ce qui concerne le droit de disposer, de quelque manière que ce soit, des biens de toute sorte qu'ils auront acquis légalement, ils jouiront des mêmes privilèges, libertés et droits et ne seront soumis, sous ce rapport, à aucuns impots ou charges plus élevés que les nationaux ou les ressortissants de la nation la plus favorisée;

5. Ils pourront, sous la réserve de la réciprocité, acquérir et posséder toute sorte dimmeubles qui, d'après les lois du Pays, peuvent ou pourront être acquis ou possédés par les ressortissants d'une autre nation étrangère quelconque, en se conformant toujours aux conditions et restrictions prescrites par lesdites lois;

6. Ils seront exempts de tout service militaire obligatoire, soit dans l'armée ou la marine, la garde nationale ou la milice, de même que de toutes taxes imposées en lieu et place du service personnel et de tous emprunts forcés. Ils ne pourront être assujettis à des réquisitions ou contributions militaires, quelles qu'elles soient, autrement que dans les mêmes conditions et sur le même pied que les nationaux ou les ressortissants de la nation la plus favorisée;

7. Ils ne seront contraints, sous aucun prétexte, à subir des charges ou à payer des taxes autres ou plus élevées que celles qui sont ou seront imposées aux nationaux ou aux ressortissants de la nation la plus favorisée.

ARTICLE II

Les habitations, magasins, fabriques et boutiques des ressortissants de chacune des Hautes Parties Contractantes dans les territoires de l'autre ainsi que tous les lacaux qui en dépendent, seront respectée. Il ne sera point permis d'y procéder à des visites domiciliaires ou perquisitions ou d'examiner ou d'inspecter les livres, papiers ou comptes, sauf dans les conditions et formes prescrites par les lois à l'égard des nationaux.

ARTICLE III

Il y aura entre les territoires des deux Hautes Parties Contractantes liberté réciproque de commerce et de navigation.

Les ressortissants de chacune des Hautes Parties Contractantes auront pleine liberté de se rendre avec leurs navires et leurs cargaisons dans les lieux, ports et rivières des territoires de l'autre qui sont ou pourront être ouverts au commerce extérieur; ils sont, toutefois, tenus de se conformer toujours aux lois du Pays où ils arrivent.

ARTICLE IV

Les droits de douane perçus sur les articles, produits naturels ou fabriqués des territoires de l'une des Hautes Parties Contractantes, à leur importation dans les territoires de l'autre, seront réglés, soit par des arrangements spéciaux entre les deux Pays, soit par la législation intérieure de chacun d'eux.

Aucune des Parties Contractantes n'imposera à l'exportation d'un article quelconque à destination des territoires de l'autre des droits ou charges quelconques autres ou plus élevés que ceux qui sont ou pourront être imposés à l'exportation des articles similaires à destination de tout autre pays étranger.

ARTICLE V

Les Hautes Parties Contractantes s'engagent à n'entraver leurs relations commerciales réciproques par aucune prohibition d'importation, d'exportation ni de transit.

Des exception pourront toutefois être faites dans les cas suivants, en tant qu'elles sont appliquées à tous les autres pays ou du moins à tous les pays qui se trouvent dans les mêmes conditions:

1. Relativement aux approvisionnements de guerre, dans des circonstances exceptionnelles;

2. Pour des considérations affectant la sécurité publique;

3. Pour cause de salubrité publique et en vne d'assurer la protection des animaux et des plantes utiles contre les maladies et les parasites;

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4. Dans le but d'appliquer à des marchandises étrangères des interdictions ou des restrictions établies par la législation intérieure à l'égard de la production, du placement ou du trafic de marchandises indigènes de même nature.

ARTICLE VI

Les ressortissants de chacune des Hautes Parties Contractantes jouiront, dans les territoires de l'autre, d'une parfaite égalité de traitement avec les nationaux, quant à l'exemption de droits de transit et pour tout ce qui concerne le magasinage, les primes, les drawbacks ainsique les facilités touchant l'importation ou l'exportation des marchandises.

ARTICLE VII

Les négociants et les industriels que, par l'exhibition d'une carte de légitimation industrielle, délivrée par les autorités de l'une des Parties Contractantes, prouvent qu'ils sont autorisés à exercer leur commerce ou industrie dans les territoires de cette Partie, pourront, dans les territoires de l'autre, soit en personne, soit par des commis voyageurs, faire des achats ou recueillir des commandes, avec ou sans échantillons. Ces négociants, industriels et leurs commis voyageurs, en faisant ainsi des achats et en recueillant des commandes, jouiront, en matière d'impositions et de facilités du traitement de la nation la plus favorisée.

Les Parties Contractantes se donneront réciproquement connaissance des autorités chargées de délivrer les cartes de légitimation.

Les articles importés comme échantillons dans les buts mentionnés dans l'alinéa 1 seront, dans chacun des deux Pays, admis temporairement en franchise de droit, en conformité des règlements et formalités de douane, établis pour assurer leur réexportation ou le payement des droits de douane prescrits en cas de non-réexportation dans le délai prévu par la loi. Toutefois, ledit privilège ne s'étendra pas aux articles qui, à cause de leur quantité ou valeur, ne peuvent pas être considérés comme échantillons, ou qui, à cause de leur nature, ne sauraient être identifiés lors de leur réexportation. Le droit de décider si un échantillon est susceptible d'admission en franchise, appartient exclusivement dans tous les cas, aux autorités compétentes du lieu ou l'importation a été effectuée.

ARTICLE VIII

Les marques de reconnaissance, estampilles ou cachets apposés au moment de l'exportation par les autorités douanières de l'une des Parties Contractantes aux échantillons mentionnés dans l'article précédent ainsi que la liste de ces échantillons qui est officiellement attestée par elles et en contient la description détaillée, seront réciproquement acceptés par les autorités douanières de l'autre pour établir leur caractère d'échantillons et leur assurer l'exemption de toute inspection, sauf en tant que cette dernière est nécessaire pour constater que les échantillons présentés sont identiques avec ceux énumérés dans la liste. Les autorités douanières de chacune des Parties Contractantes pourront toutefois apposer une marque supplémentaire aux échantillons dans les cas spéciaux où elles jugent nécessaire de prendre cette précaution.

ARTICLE IX

Les sociétés par actions (anonymes) et autres sociétés et associations commerciales, industrielles ou financières, y compris les compagnies d'assurance, domiciliées dans les territoires de l'une des Parties Contractantes et ayant l'existence légale d'après les lois qui y sont en vigueur, seront reconnues comme ayant l'existence légale dans les territoires de l'autre et autorisées à y ester en justice devant les tribunaux, soit pour intenter une action, soit pour y défendre d'après les lois de cette autre Partie.

Leur admission à l'exercice de leur industrie ou de leur commerce ainsi qu'à l'acquisition de biens dans les territoires de l'autre Partie se règle d'après les prescriptions qui y sont en vigueur. En tout cas, lesdites sociétés, associations et compagnies jouiront, dans ces territoires, des mêmes droits que ceux qui sont ou pourront être accordés à des sociétés, associations et compagnies similaires de la nation la plus favorisée.

ARTICLE X

Tous les articles qui sont of pourront être légalement importés, dans les ports de l'une des Hautes Parties Contractantes, par des navires nationaux, pourront, de même, être importés dans ces ports par des navires de l'autre Partie Contractante, sans être soumis à aucuns droits ou charges, de quelque dénomination que ce soit,

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des Parties Contractantes, à l'exportation d'un article quelconque qui peut ou pourra en être légalment exporté, que cette exportation se fasse par des navires japonais ou par des navires français et quel que soit le lieu de destination, soit un port de l'autre Partie, soit un port d'une tierce Puissance.

ARTICLE XI

En tout ce qui concerne le placement des navires, leur chargement, leur décharge ment dans les eaux territoriales des Parties Contractantes, il ne sera accordé, par l'une des Parties, aux navires nationaux, aucun privilège, ni aucune facilité qui ne le soit également, en pareil cas, aux navires de l'autre Pays, la volonté des Parties Contractantes étant que, sous ces rapports, leurs bâtiments respectifs jouissent d'une parfaite égalité.

ARTICLE XII

Les navires marchands naviguant sous pavillon japonais et français et ayant à bord les documents requis par leurs lois nationales pour établir leur nationalité, seront respectivement considérés, en France et au Japon, comme navires japonais et français.

ARTICLE XIII

Aucun droit de tonnage, de transit, de canal, de port, de pilotage, de phare, de quarantaine ou autres droits ou charges similaires ou analogues, de quelque dénomination que ce soit, levés-au nom ou au profit du gouvernement, de fonctionnaires publics, de particuliers, de corporations ou d'établissements quelconques, ne seront imposés dans les eaux territoriales de l'un des deux Pays sur les navires de l'autre sans qu'ils soient également imposés, dans les mêmes conditions, sur les navires nationaux en général, ou sur les navires de la nation la plus favorisée. Cette égalité de traitement sera appliquée réciproquement à leurs navires respectifs, de quelque endroit qu'ils arrivent et quel que soit le lieu de destination.

ARTICLE XIV

Les navires chargés d'un service postal régulier de l'une des Parties Contractantes qu'ils appartieunent à l'État ou à une compagnie subventionnée par lui à cet effet, jouiront dans les eaux territoriales de l'autre, des mêmes facilités, privilèges et immunités que ceux qui sont accordés aux navires similaires de la nation la plus favorisée.

ARTICLE XV

Il est fait exception aux dispositions de la présente Convention pour le cabotage dont le régime reste soumis à la législation du Japon et de la France respectivement; il est entendu toutefois, que les Japonais en France et les Français au Japon, jouiront pour tout ce qui concerne le cabotage, des droits et privilèges qui sont ou seront accordés par cette même législation aux ressortissants de la nation la plus favorisée.

Tout navire de l'une des Parties Contractantes, chargé à l'étranger d'une cargaison destinée à deux ou plusieurs ports d'entrée des territoires de l'autre, pourra décharger une partie de sa cargaison dans l'un desdits ports, et en continuant son voyage pour l'autre ou les autres ports de destination, y décharger le reste de sa cargaison, toujours en se conformant aux lois, aux tarifs et aux règlements de douane du pays de destination. De la même manière, et sous la même restriction, tout navire de l'une des Parties Contractantes pourra charger dans les divers ports de l'autre, au cours du même voyage pour l'étranger.

ARTICLE XVI

Les deux Hautes Parties Contractantes déclarent qu'elles sont adhérentes à la Convention d'Union de Paris du 20 mars 1883 pour la protection de la propriété industrielle; dans le cas où l'une d'entre elles cesserait d'adhérer à la Convention précitée, elles conviennent des stipulations suivantes:

Les ressortissants de chacune des Parties Contractantes jouiront, dans les territoires de l'autre Partie, des mêmes droits que les nationaux eux-mêmes, pour tout ce qui concerne la protection des brevets d'invention, des marques de fabrique ou de commerce, des dessins et modèles industriels et de fabrication de toute espèce, et noms commerciaux, et des indications de provenance, et pour tout ce qui concerne la répression de la concurrence déloyale, sous réserve de l'accomplissement des formalités et des conditions imposées par la loi.

Tout produit portant une fausse indication de provenance dans laquelle un des Pays Contractants, ou un lieu situé sur les territoires de l'un d'eux, serait directe-

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ment ou indirectement indiqué comme pays ou comme lieu d'origine, sera saisi à l'importation à la requête des autorités douanières ou ministère public où d'une partie intéresée, si la législation de chaque Pays Contractant l'admet, ou bien, à défaut, sera soumis aux actions et moyens assurés en pareil cas par la loi aux nationaux.

ARTICLE XVII

Les Hautes Parties Contractantes conviennent que, pour tout ce qui concerne le commerce, l'industrie et la navigation, tout privilège, faveur ou immunité quelconque, que l'une d'elles a déjà accordés ou accorderait à l'avenir au commerce, à l'industrie et à la naqigation de tout autre État, seront étendus immédiatement et sans condition, au commerce, à l'industrie et à la navigation de l'autre Partie Contoractante, leur intention étant que le commerce, l'industrie et la navigation de chaque pays jouissent sous tous rapports du traitement de la nation la plus favorisée.

ARTICLE XVIII

Les stipulations de la présente Convention ne sont pas applicables:

1 Aux avantages particuliers actuellement accordés ou qui pourraient être ultérieurement accordés par l'une des Parties Contractantes à des États limitrophes pour faciliter le trafic frontière;

2 Aux faveurs spéciales résultant d'une union douanière;

3 Aux pêches assimilées à la pêche nationale;

4 Aux encouragements accordés ou qui pourraient être accordés à la marine marchande nationale.

ARTICLE XIX

Les dispositions de la présente Convention sont applicables à l'Algérie. Elles pourront être ultérieurement étendues en tout ou partie aux colonies, possessions françaises et pays de protectorat par une déclaration concertée entre les deux gouvernments.

Il est entendu en outre que la présente Convention est applicable à toutes les colonies et possessions du Japon.

ARTICLE XX

La présente Convention sera ratifiée et l'échange des ratifications aura lieu à Tokyo; les ratifications seront notifiées dans le plus bref délai possible aux Gouvernments du Japon et de la France par leurs Représentants respectifs; à partir de la date de la dernière de ces deux notifications, la présente Convention entrera en vigueur et demeurera exécutoire pendant une période de dix années.

Toutefois, l'article 5 en vertu duquel les droits de douane perçus en France sur les produits d'origine japonaise et au Japon sur les produits d'origine française ne seront autres ou plus élevés que ceux perçus sur les produits similaires originaires du pays le plus favorisé, pourra être dénoncé à toute époque par chacune des deux Parties Contractantes, et dans ce cas, il cessera d'être exécutoire un an après cette dénonciation.

Au cas où douze mois avant la date d'expiration de la présente Convention aucune des deux Parties Contractantes n'aurait notifié son intention d'en faire cesser les effets, cet acte demeurera obligatoire jusqu'à l'expiration d'une année à partir du jour où l'une ou l'autre Partie Contractante l'aura dénoncé.

TRAITÉ DE COMMERCE ET DE NAVIGATION ENTER LE JAPON ET L'ALLEMAGNE

Signé à Berlin, le 24 Juin, 1911

ARTICLE I

Les ressortissants de chacune des Hautes Parties Contractantes auront pleine liberté d'entrer et de séjourner en tout lieu des territoires de l'autre.

A condition de se conformer aux lois du Pays, ils jouiront des droits spécifiés ci-dessous:

1. Ils seront, pour tout ce qui concerne la résidence, les études et investigations, l'exercice de leurs métiers et professions et l'exécution de leurs entreprises industrielles et manufacturières, placés, à tous égards, sur le même pied que les res-

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sortissants de la nation la plus favorisée;

2. Ils auront, comme les nationaux eux-mêmes, le droit de voyager dans toute l'étendue des territoires de l'autre et le droit de faire le trafic de tous articles de commerce licite;

3. Ils pourront posséder ou louer et occuper des maisons, fabriques, magasins, boutiques et les locaux qui en dépendent. De même ils pourront louer des terrains à l'effet d'y résider ou de les utiliser dans un but licite commercial, industriel, manufacturier ou autre;

4. En ce qui concerne la possession de biens mobiliers de quelque espèce que ce soit, la transmission, par succession testamentaire ou autre, des biens mobiliers de toute sorte qu'ils peuvent légalement acquérir entre vivants et en ce qui concerne le droit de disposer, de quelque manière que ce soit, des biens de toute sorte qu'ils auront acquis légalement, ils jouiront des mêmes privilèges, libertés et droits et ne seront soumis, sous ce rapport, à aucuns impots ou charges plus élevés que les nationaux ou les ressortissants de la nation la plus favorisée;

5. Ils pourront, sous la réserve de la réciprocité, acquérir et posséder toute sorte dimmeubles qui, d'après les lois du Pays, peuvent ou pourront être acquis ou possédés par les ressortissants d'une autre nation étrangère quelconque, en se conformant toujours aux conditions et restrictions prescrites par lesdites lois;

6. Ils seront exempts de tout service militaire obligatoire, soit dans l'armée ou la marine, la garde nationale ou la milice, de même que de toutes taxes imposées en lieu et place du service personnel et de tous emprunts forcés. Ils ne pourront être assujettis à des réquisitions ou contributions militaires, quelles qu'elles soient, autrement que dans les mêmes conditions et sur le même pied que les nationaux ou les ressortissants de la nation la plus favorisée;

7. Ils ne seront contraints, sous aucun prétexte, à subir des charges ou à payer des taxes autres ou plus élevées que celles qui sont ou seront imposées aux nationaux ou aux ressortissants de la nation la plus favorisée.

ARTICLE II

Les habitations, magasins, fabriques et boutiques des ressortissants de chacune des Hautes Parties Contractantes dans les territoires de l'autre ainsi que tous les locaux qui en dépendent, seront respectée. Il ne sera point permis d'y procéder à des visites domiciliaires ou perquisitions ou d'examiner ou d'inspecter les livres, papiers ou comptes, sauf dans les conditions et formes prescrites par les lois à l'égard des nationaux.

ARTICLE III

Il y aura entre les territoires des deux Hautes Parties Contractantes liberté réciproque de commerce et de navigation.

Les ressortissants de chacune des Hautes Parties Contractantes auront pleine liberté de se rendre avec leurs navires et leurs cargaisons dans les lieux, ports et rivières des territoires de l'autre qui sont ou pourront être ouverts au commerce extérieur; ils sont, toutefois, tenus de se conformer toujours aux lois du Pays où ils arrivent.

ARTICLE IV

Les droits de douane perçus sur les articles, produits naturels ou fabriqués des territoires de l'une des Hautes Parties Contractantes, à leur importation dans les territoires de l'autre, seront réglés, soit par des arrangements spéciaux entre les deux Pays, soit par la législation intérieure de chacun d'eux.

Aucune des Parties Contractantes n'imposera à l'exportation d'un article quelconque à destination des territoires de l'autre des droits ou charges quelconques autres ou plus élevés que ceux qui sont ou pourront être imposés à l'exportation des articles similaires à destination de tout autre pays étranger.

ARTICLE V

Les Hautes Parties Contractantes s'engagent à n'entraver leurs relations commerciales réciproques par aucune prohibition d'importation, d'exportation ni de transit.

Des exception pourront toutefois être faites dans les cas suivants, en tant qu'elles sont appliquées à tous les autres pays ou du moins à tous les pays qui se trouvent dans les mêmes conditions:

1. Relativement aux approvisionnements de guerre, dans des circonstances exceptionnelles;

2. Pour des considérations affectant la sécurité publique;

3. Pour cause de salubrité publique et en vne d'assurer la protection des animaux et des plantes utiles contre les maladies et les parasites;

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4. Dans le but d'appliquer à des marchandises étrangères des interdictions ou des restrictions établies par la législation intérieure à l'égard de la production, du placement ou du trafic de marchandises indigènes de même nature.

ARTICLE VI

Les ressortissants de chacune des Hautes Parties Contractantes jouiront, dans les territoires de l'autre, d'une parfaite égalité de traitement avec les nationaux, quant à l'exemption de droits de transit et pour tout ce qui concerne le magasinage, les primes, les drawbacks ainsique les facilités touchant l'importation ou l'exportation des marchandises.

ARTICLE VII

Les négociants et les industriels que, par l'exhibition d'une carte de légitimation industrielle, délivrée par les autorités de l'une des Parties Contractantes, prouvent qu'ils sont autorisés à exercer leur commerce ou industrie dans les territoires de cette Partie, pourront, dans les territoires de l'autre, soit en personne, soit par des commis voyageurs, faire des achats ou recueillir des commandes, avec ou sans échantillons. Ces négociants, industriels et leurs commis voyageurs, en faisant ainsi des achats et en recueillant des commandes, jouiront, en matière d'impositions et de facilités du traitement de la nation la plus favorisée.

Les Parties Contractantes se donneront réciproquement connaissance des autorités chargées de délivrer les cartes de légitimation.

Les articles importés comme échantillons dans les buts mentionnés dans l'alinéa 1 seront, dans chacun des deux Pays, admis temporairement en franchise de droit, en conformité des règlements et formalités de douane, établis pour assurer leur réexportation ou le payement des droits de douane prescrits en cas de non-réexportation dans le délai prévu par la loi. Toutefois, ledit privilège ne s'étendra pas aux articles qui, à cause de leur quantité ou valeur, ne peuvent pas être considérés comme échantillons, ou qui, à cause de leur nature, ne sauraient être identifiés lors de leur réexportation. Le droit de décider si un échantillon est susceptible d'admission en franchise, appartient exclusivement dans tous les cas, aux autorités compétentes du lieu ou l'importation a été effectuée.

ARTICLE VIII

Les marques de reconnaissance, estampilles ou cachets apposés au moment de l'exportation par les autorités douanières de l'une des Parties Contractantes aux échantillons mentionnés dans l'article précédent ainsi que la liste de ces échantillons qui est officiellement attestée par elles et en contient la description détaillée, seront réciproquement acceptés par les autorités douanières de l'autre pour établir leur caractère d'échantillons et leur assurer l'exemption de toute inspection, sauf en tant que cette dernière est nécessaire pour constater que les échantillons présentés sont identiques avec ceux énumérés dans la liste. Les autorités douanières de chacune des Parties Contractantes pourront toutefois apposer une marque supplémentaire aux échantillons dans les cas spéciaux où elles jugent nécessaire de prendre cette précaution.

ARTICLE IX

Les sociétés par actions (anonymes) et autres sociétés et associations commerciales, industrielles ou financières, y compris les compagnies d'assurance, domiciliées dans les territoires de l'une des Parties Contractantes et ayant l'existence légale d'après les lois qui y sont en vigueur, seront reconnues comme ayant l'existence légale dans les territoires de l'autre et autorisées à y ester en justice devant les tribunaux, soit pour intenter une action, soit pour y défendre d'après les lois de cette autre Partie.

Leur admission à l'exercice de leur industrie ou de leur commerce ainsi qu'à l'acquisition de biens dans les territoires de l'autre Partie se règle d'après les prescriptions qui y sont en vigueur. En tout cas, lesdites sociétés, associations et compagnies jouiront, dans ces territoires, des mêmes droits que ceux qui sont ou pourront être accordés à des sociétés, associations et compagnies similaires de la nation la plus favorisée.

ARTICLE X

Tous les articles qui sont of pourront être légalement importés, dans les ports de l'une des Hautes Parties Contractantes, par des navires nationaux, pourront, de même, être importés dans ces ports par des navires de l'autre Partie Contractante, sans être soumis à aucuns droits ou charges, de quelque dénomination que ce soit,

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ARTICLE III

Subject to the stipulations of the supplementary agreement to the present treaty, Japanese subjects shall be governed within the territories of Manchoukuo by the provision of the laws and ordinances of that country.

With regard to the application on the stipulations of the preceding paragraph, Japanese subjects shall not, under any circumstances, be accorded less favourable treatment than that which is or may be accorded to the nationals of Manchoukuo.

The stipulations of the preceding two paragraphs shall, in so far as they are applicable to juridical persons, apply to Japanese juridical persons.

ARTICLE IV

Companies and other juridical persons which have been established under the laws and ordinances of Japan and which have, at the time of the coming into force of the present treaty, head or principal offices within the territories of Manchoukuo shall, simultaneously with the coming into force of the present treaty, be recognized as companies or other juridical persons of a nature similar to or most closely analogous with those established under the laws and ordinances of Manchoukuo.

The Government of Manchoukuo shall recognize the establishment of companies and other juridical persons which have been established under the laws and ordinances of Japan and which have, at the time of the coming into force of the present treaty, branch or subordinate offices within the territories of Manchoukuo.

ARTICLE V

The stipulations of the present treaty shall not prejudice the rights, privileges, immunities and exemptions of particular Japanese subjects or juridical persons based on the special engagements entered into between Japan and Manchoukuo.

ARTICLE VI

The present treaty shall come into force on the first of December, the 12th Year of Showa, corresponding to the first of December, the Fourth Year of Kangte.

ARTICLE VII

The present treaty has been drawn up in Japanese and Chinese texts, and, should any difference in interpretation arise between the two texts, the Japanese text shall prevail.

SUPPLEMENTARY AGREEMENT (A)

In signing to-day the treaty between Japan and Manchoukuo concerning the abolition of extraterritoriality in Manchoukuo and the transfer of the administrative rights over the South Manchuria Railway Zone, the respective plenipotentiaries of the two countries have agreed as follows:

CHAPTER I

JURISDICTION

ARTICLE I

The system of consular courts existing for Japanese subjects in Manchoukuo shall, simultaneously with the coming into force of the treaty, cease to be in force, and thereafter Japanese subjects shall come within the jurisdiction of the law courts of Manchoukuo.

ARTICLE II

The Government of Manchoukuo engage to guarantee to the lives and property of Japanese such judicial protection as conforms to international law and the general principles of law.

ARTICLE III

Contentious cases, civil and penal, and non-contentious cases which remain pending at the consular courts of Japan at the time of the coming into force of the treaty, shall continue to be disposed of in pursuance of the procedure hitherto followed, and, for the purposes of that disposal, the jurisdiction of the consular courts of Japan shall continue to be in full force.

In all matters that relate to the cases to be disposed of under the preceding paragraph, the competent authorities of Manchoukuo shall afford aid on request by the competent authorities of Japan.

ARTICLE IV

With regard to criminal acts committed by Japanese subjects before the coming into force of the treaty, the law courts of Manchoukuo are competent to try and

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decide concerning the said acts, only when such acts either contravene the penal laws and regulations of Japan in force at the time they were committed and also constitute punishable offences under the penal laws and regulations of Manchoukuo, or contravene those penal laws and regulations of Manchoukuo the application of which to Japanese subjects has been approved by Japan.

The Government of Manchoukuo engage not to punish more severely than under the laws and ordinances of Japan the criminal acts of Japanese subjects referred to in the preceding paragraph.

ARTICLE V

With regard to any of the offences under Articles LXXIII to LXXIX, LXXXI to LXXXIX and CXCVII of the Criminal Code of Japan, or under the Japanese Law for the Preservation of the Public Peace, which were committed by Japanese subjects within the territories of Manchoukuo before the coming into force of the treaty, the Government of Manchoukuo shall deliver the offenders, together with the relevant evidence, to the Government of Japan.

ARTICLE VI

Those criminal cases in which searches are being made by Japanese consular officers at the time of the coming into force of the treaty and which can be punished under the laws and ordinances of Manchoukuo shall, together with the relevant documents and evidence, be taken over by the competent authorities of Manchoukuo.

With regard to the cases taken over under the preceding paragraph ,the Government of Manchoukuo shall recognize the procedure which was, before they were so taken over, fulfilled under the laws and ordinances of Japan in respect of accusation, prosecution, self-surrender and search, as having the same validity as if it were fulfilled under the laws and ordinances of Manchoukuo.

ARTICLE VII

The Government of Manchoukuo shall recognize the validity of the titles of debt drawn up under the laws and ordinances of Japan before the coming into force of the treaty. The same shall apply to the titles of debt drawn up in respect of cases to be disposed of under the first paragraph of Article III of the present agreement.

ARTICLE VIII

The Government of Manchoukuo shall recognize the registrations effected before the coming into force of the treaty by Japanese consular officers under the laws and ordinances of Japan as having the same validity as if they were effected by the competent authorities of Manchoukuo under the laws and ordinances of that country.

CHAPTER II

Administration over the South Manchuria Railway Zone

ARTICLE IX

The Government of Japan shall, simultaneously with the coming into force of the treaty, transfer to the Government of Manchoukuo administration relating to taxation, police, communications, et cetera, over the South Manchuria Railway Zone.

ARTICLE X

The Government of Manchoukuo engage, after the transfer of administration under the preceding article, to take appropriate steps, in administering the South Manchuria Railway Zone, to prevent interference with the advancement of general culture, the development of industries, et cetera.

ARTICLE XI

The taxes, the imposition of which is within the rights of the Government of Japan at the time of the transfer of the administration over the South Manchuria Railway Zone, shall be levied and collected by the Government of Manchoukuo in accordance with a decision to be made by consultation between the Japanese Ambassador Extraordinary and Plenipotentiary to Manchoukuo and the Prime Minister of that country.

In connection with the stipulations of the preceding paragraph, the Government of Manchoukuo shall deliver to the Government of Japan funds of an amount to be decided upon by consultation between the Japanese Ambassador Extraordinary and Plenipotentiary to Manchoukuo and the Prime Minister of that country.

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CHAPTER III

POLICE AND OTHER ADMINISTRATION

ARTICLE XII

Within the territories of Manchoukuo, the Government of Japan shall, simultaneously with the coming into force of the treaty, cease to exercise police and other administration in respect of Japanese subjects, and thereafter they shall come within the jurisdiction of Manchoukuo in regard to such administration.

The Government of Manchoukuo engage, in exercising police and other administration in respect of Japanese subjects, to afford all possible guarantees for the protection of their lives and property.

ARTICLE XIII

Cases concerning police and other matters, which are being dealt with at the time of the coming into force of the treaty by the competent authorities of Japan, shall, as a general principle, be taken over, together with the relevant documents, by the competent authorities of Manchoukuo.

CHAPTER IV

ADMINISTRATION CONCERNING SHRINES, EDUCATION AND MILITARY MATTERS

ARTICLE XIV

The Government of Manchoukuo agree that, within their territories after the coming into force of the treaty, Japan or her subjects shall establish shrines under her own laws and ordinances and her Government shall administer matters relating to such shrines.

ARTICLE XV

The Government of Manchoukuo, with regard to important matters connected with the educational administration to be exercised by them in respect of Japanese subjects, engage, for the time being, to act in accordance with a decision to be previously made by consultation between the Japanese Ambassador Extraordinary and Plenipotentiary to Manchoukuo and the Prime Minister of that country.

The Government of Manchoukuo agree that, within their territories for the time being after the coming into force of the treaty, Japan or her subjects shall, under her own laws and ordinances, open, conduct or control schools and other educational matters concerning her subjects, in accordance with a decision to be made by consultation between the Japanese Ambassador Extraordinary and Plenipotentiary to Manchoukuo and the Prime Minister of that country.

Within the territories of Manchoukuo, the Government of Japan may, under her own laws and ordinances, establish school associations, and the federations of such associations, with the status of public juridical persons, in order to cause them to open, conduct or control the schools and other educational institutions referred to in the preceding paragraph. The Government of Manchoukuo shall recognize the establishment of such associations and federations.

ARTICLE XVI

The Government of Manchoukuo agree that, within the territories of Manchoukuo after the coming into force of the treaty, administration concerning military enlistment, service, muster, and other military matters in respect of Japanese subjects shall be exercised by the Government of Japan.

ARTICLE XVII

Of the laws and ordinance of Japan to be applied under the present chapter, those which are applicable through judicial procedure shall be applied by the judicial authorities of Japan.

ARTICLE XVIII

The Government of Manchoukuo engage to afford aid in the application, under the present chapter, of the laws and ordinances of Japan, and, for the purposes of affording that aid, to take the necessary steps in accordance with a decision to be made by consultation between the competent authorities of Japan and of Manchoukuo.

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The percentage allotted to each of the above categories may be modified subject to the following conditions:

Increase in category either of bordered greys or bleached shall not exceed 20 per cent, of quantity allotted to that category, and an increase in any other category shall not exceed 10 per cent of quantity allotted to that category.

9. Transfer: The quantity transferable from category either of bordered greys or bleached shall not exceed 20 per cent of quantity allotted to that category and the quantity transferable from any other category shall not exceed 10 per cent of quantity allotted to that category: and

The total quota of cotton piece-goods for any piece-goods year shall not be increased by the above modification of quantity allotted to each category.

10. The quota for the period intervening the enforcement of the arrangement and the commencement of the first piece-goods year:

(a) The quota of cotton piece-goods for the period between the date on which the present Indian customs on cotton piecegoods year begins shall be the proportionate fraction of the quantity that would have been allotted to the whole piecegoods year from April 11, 1933 to March 31, 1934, on the basis of the quantity of Indian raw cotton imported into Japan in the cotton year of 1933 (From January 1 to December 31).

(b) The quota for his period and the first half-yearly instalment of the first piece-goods year quota should be consolidated into one for the period of approximately nine months, ending at the end of September, 1934.

The treaty shall come into force immediately after an exchange of ratifications, and shall remain in force until March 31, 1937.

TREATY BETWEEN JAPAN AND MANCHOUKUO CONCERNING THE ABOLITION OF EXTRATERRITORIALITY IN MANCHOUKUO

Signed at Hsinking on November 5, 1937

1. Treaty between Japan and Manchoukuo concerning the Abolition of Extraterritoriality in Manchoukuo and the Transfer of the Administrative Rights over the South Manchuria Railway Zone.

Whereas the Government of Japan, in accordance with the principle of the preamble to the treaty between Japan and Manchoukuo concerning the residence of Japanese subjects, taxation, et cetera, in Manchoukuo signed on the 10th day of the sixth month of the 11th Year of Showa, corresponding to the 10th day of the sixth month of the Third Year of Kangte, and having regard to the results of the operation of the said treaty and also to the improvements introduced into the laws and ordinances and the various systems of Manchoukuo, have decided to abolish completely the right of extraterritoriality at present enjoyed in Manchoukuo by Japan and to transfer entirely the administrative right over the South Manchuria Railway Zone; and

Whereas the Government of Manchoukuo, in response to this decision by the Government of Japan, are now in a position to afford, in the spirit in which their Empire was founded, all the necessary guarantees for further ensuring and enhancing the well-being and prosperity of Japanese subjects in Manchoukuo;

Now, therefore, with reference to abolition of the right of extraterritoriality at present enjoyed in Manchoukuo by Japan and to the transfer of the administrative rights over the South Manchuria Railway Zone, the Governments of Japan and of Manchoukuo have agreed as follows to regulate the relations between the two countries:

ARTICLE I

The Government of Japan shall, in accordance with the stipulations of the supplementary agreements to the present treaty, abolish the right of extraterritoriality at present enjoyed in Manchoukuo by Japan.

ARTICLE II

The Government of Japan shall, in accordance with the stipulations of the supplementary agreement to the present transfer to the Government of Manchoukuo the administrative rights over the South Manchuria Railway Zone.

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ARTICLE III

Subject to the stipulations of the supplementary agreement to the present treaty, Japanese subjects shall be governed within the territories of Manchoukuo by the provision of the laws and ordinances of that country.

With regard to the application on the stipulations of the preceding paragraph, Japanese subjects shall not, under any circumstances, be accorded less favourable treatment than that which is or may be accorded to the nationals of Manchoukuo.

The stipulations of the preceding two paragraphs shall, in so far as they are applicable to juridical persons, apply to Japanese juridical persons.

ARTICLE IV

Companies and other juridical persons which have been established under the laws and ordinances of Japan and which have, at the time of the coming into force of the present treaty, head or principal offices within the territories of Manchoukuo shall, simultaneously with the coming into force of the present treaty, be recognized as companies or other juridical persons of a nature similar to or most closely analogous with those established under the laws and ordinances of Manchoukuo.

The Government of Manchoukuo shall recognize the establishment of companies and other juridical persons which have been established under the laws and ordinances of Japan and which have, at the time of the coming into force of the present treaty, branch or subordinate offices within the territories of Manchoukuo.

ARTICLE V

The stipulations of the present treaty shall not prejudice the rights, privileges, immunities and exemptions of particular Japanese subjects or juridical persons based on the special engagements entered into between Japan and Manchoukuo.

ARTICLE VI

The present treaty shall come into force on the first of December, the 12th Year of Showa, corresponding to the first of December, the Fourth Year of Kangte.

ARTICLE VII

The present treaty has been drawn up in Japanese and Chinese texts, and, should any difference in interpretation arise between the two texts, the Japanese text shall prevail.

SUPPLEMENTARY AGREEMENT (A)

In signing to-day the treaty between Japan and Manchoukuo concerning the abolition of extraterritoriality in Manchoukuo and the transfer of the administrative rights over the South Manchuria Railway Zone, the respective plenipotentiaries of the two countries have agreed as follows:

CHAPTER I

JURISDICTION

ARTICLE I

The system of consular courts existing for Japanese subjects in Manchoukuo shall, simultaneously with the coming into force of the treaty, cease to be in force, and thereafter Japanese subjects shall come within the jurisdiction of the law courts of Manchoukuo.

ARTICLE II

The Government of Manchoukuo engage to guarantee to the lives and property of Japanese such judicial protection as conforms to international law and the general principles of law.

ARTICLE III

Contentious cases, civil and penal, and non-contentious cases which remain pending at the consular courts of Japan at the time of the coming into force of the treaty, shall continue to be disposed of in pursuance of the procedure hitherto followed, and, for the purposes of that disposal, the jurisdiction of the consular courts of Japan shall continue to be in full force.

In all matters that relate to the cases to be disposed of under the preceding paragraph, the competent authorities of Manchoukuo shall afford aid on request by the competent authorities of Japan.

ARTICLE IV

With regard to criminal acts committed by Japanese subjects before the coming into force of the treaty, the law courts of Manchoukuo are competent to try and

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decide concerning the said acts, only when such acts either contravene the penal laws and regulations of Japan in force at the time they were committed and also constitute punishable offences under the penal laws and regulations of Manchoukuo, or contravene those penal laws and regulations of Manchoukuo the application of which to Japanese subjects has been approved by Japan.

The Government of Manchoukuo engage not to punish more severely than under the laws and ordinances of Japan the criminal acts of Japanese subjects referred to in the preceding paragraph.

ARTICLE V

With regard to any of the offences under Articles LXXIII to LXXIX, LXXXI to LXXXIX and CXCVII of the Criminal Code of Japan, or under the Japanese Law for the Preservation of the Public Peace, which were committed by Japanese subjects within the territories of Manchoukuo before the coming into force of the treaty, the Government of Manchoukuo shall deliver the offenders, together with the relevant evidence, to the Government of Japan.

ARTICLE VI

Those criminal cases in which searches are being made by Japanese consular officers at the time of the coming into force of the treaty and which can be punished under the laws and ordinances of Manchoukuo shall, together with the relevant documents and evidence, be taken over by the competent authorities of Manchoukuo.

With regard to the cases taken over under the preceding paragraph ,the Government of Manchoukuo shall recognize the procedure which was, before they were so taken over, fulfilled under the laws and ordinances of Japan in respect of accusation, prosecution, self-surrender and search, as having the same validity as if it were fulfilled under the laws and ordinances of Manchoukuo.

ARTICLE VII

The Government of Manchoukuo shall recognize the validity of the titles of debt drawn up under the laws and ordinances of Japan before the coming into force of the treaty. The same shall apply to the titles of debt drawn up in respect of cases to be disposed of under the first paragraph of Article III of the present agreement.

ARTICLE VIII

The Government of Manchoukuo shall recognize the registrations effected before the coming into force of the treaty by Japanese consular officers under the laws and ordinances of Japan as having the same validity as if they were effected by the competent authorities of Manchoukuo under the laws and ordinances of that country.

CHAPTER II

Administration over the South Manchuria Railway Zone

ARTICLE IX

The Government of Japan shall, simultaneously with the coming into force of the treaty, transfer to the Government of Manchoukuo administration relating to taxation, police, communications, et cetera, over the South Manchuria Railway Zone.

ARTICLE X

The Government of Manchoukuo engage, after the transfer of administration under the preceding article, to take appropriate steps, in administering the South Manchuria Railway Zone, to prevent interference with the advancement of general culture, the development of industries, et cetera.

ARTICLE XI

The taxes, the imposition of which is within the rights of the Government of Japan at the time of the transfer of the administration over the South Manchuria Railway Zone, shall be levied and collected by the Government of Manchoukuo in accordance with a decision to be made by consultation between the Japanese Ambassador Extraordinary and Plenipotentiary to Manchoukuo and the Prime Minister of that country.

In connection with the stipulations of the preceding paragraph, the Government of Manchoukuo shall deliver to the Government of Japan funds of an amount to be decided upon by consultation between the Japanese Ambassador Extraordinary and Plenipotentiary to Manchoukuo and the Prime Minister of that country.

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CHAPTER III

POLICE AND OTHER ADMINISTRATION

ARTICLE XII

Within the territories of Manchoukuo, the Government of Japan shall, simultaneously with the coming into force of the treaty, cease to exercise police and other administration in respect of Japanese subjects, and thereafter they shall come within the jurisdiction of Manchoukuo in regard to such administration.

The Government of Manchoukuo engage, in exercising police and other administration in respect of Japanese subjects, to afford all possible guarantees for the protection of their lives and property.

ARTICLE XIII

Cases concerning police and other matters, which are being dealt with at the time of the coming into force of the treaty by the competent authorities of Japan, shall, as a general principle, be taken over, together with the relevant documents, by the competent authorities of Manchoukuo.

CHAPTER IV

ADMINISTRATION CONCERNING SHRINES, EDUCATION AND MILITARY MATTERS

ARTICLE XIV

The Government of Manchoukuo agree that, within their territories after the coming into force of the treaty, Japan or her subjects shall establish shrines under her own laws and ordinances and her Government shall administer matters relating to such shrines.

ARTICLE XV

The Government of Manchoukuo, with regard to important matters connected with the educational administration to be exercised by them in respect of Japanese subjects, engage, for the time being, to act in accordance with a decision to be previously made by consultation between the Japanese Ambassador Extraordinary and Plenipotentiary to Manchoukuo and the Prime Minister of that country.

The Government of Manchoukuo agree that, within their territories for the time being after the coming into force of the treaty, Japan or her subjects shall, under her own laws and ordinances, open, conduct or control schools and other educational matters concerning her subjects, in accordance with a decision to be made by consultation between the Japanese Ambassador Extraordinary and Plenipotentiary to Manchoukuo and the Prime Minister of that country.

Within the territories of Manchoukuo, the Government of Japan may, under her own laws and ordinances, establish school associations, and the federations of such associations, with the status of public juridical persons, in order to cause them to open, conduct or control the schools and other educational institutions referred to in the preceding paragraph. The Government of Manchoukuo shall recognize the establishment of such associations and federations.

ARTICLE XVI

The Government of Manchoukuo agree that, within the territories of Manchoukuo after the coming into force of the treaty, administration concerning military enlistment, service, muster, and other military matters in respect of Japanese subjects shall be exercised by the Government of Japan.

ARTICLE XVII

Of the laws and ordinance of Japan to be applied under the present chapter, those which are applicable through judicial procedure shall be applied by the judicial authorities of Japan.

ARTICLE XVIII

The Government of Manchoukuo engage to afford aid in the application, under the present chapter, of the laws and ordinances of Japan, and, for the purposes of affording that aid, to take the necessary steps in accordance with a decision to be made by consultation between the competent authorities of Japan and of Manchoukuo.

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TREATY OF FRIENDSHIP, COMMERCE AND NAVIGATION BETWEEN JAPAN AND SIAM

Signed at Bangkok, December 8, 1937

His Majesty the Emperor of Japan and His Majesty the King of Siam, being desirous of strengthening the relations of amity and good understanding which happily exist between the two States, and being convinced that this can best be accomplished by revising the treaties hitherto existing between the two countries, have resolved to complete such revision, based upon the principles of reciprocity, equity and mutual benefit, and for that purpose have named as their Plenipotentiaries, that is to say:

His Majesty the Emperor of Japan: Kuramatsu Murai, Jusii, Third Class of the Imperial Order of the Sacred Treasure, His Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary at the Court of His Majesty the King of Siam;

His Majesty the King of Siam: Luang Pradist Manudharm (Pridi Banomyong), Minister of Foreign Affairs;

Who, after having communicated to each other their respective full powers, found to be in good and due form, have agreed upon the following articles:

ARTICLE I

There shall be constant peace and perpetual friendship between Japan and Siam.

ARTICLE II

The subjects of each of the High Contracting Parties shall have full liberty to enter, travel, and reside in the territories of the other, and conforming themselves to the laws and regulations of the country—

1. Shall in all that relate to travel and residence, be placed in all respects on the same footing as native subjects.

2. They shall have the right, equally with native subjects, to carry on their commerce and manufacture, and to trade in all kinds of merchandise of lawful commerce, either in person or by agents, singly or in partnership with foreigners or native subjects.

3. They shall be permitted, on the same footing as native subjects, to engage in religious, educational and charitable work.

4. They shall be permitted to own or lease and occupy houses, manufactories, warehouses and shops which may be necessary for them, and to lease land for residential, commercial, industrial, religious, charitable and other lawful purposes and for use as cemeteries in the same manner as native subjects.

5. They shall not be compelled, under any pretext whatsoever, to pay any internal charges or taxes other or higher than those that are or may be paid by native subjects.

6. They shall receive, in the territories of the other, the most constant protection and security for their persons and property and shall enjoy in this respect the same rights and privileges as are or may be granted to native subjects.

7. In all that relates to industrial pursuits, and to callings and professions as well as to educational studies, they shall, throughout the whole extent of the territories of the other, be placed in all respects on the same footing as the subjects or citizens of the most favoured nation.

8. As regards the acquisition and possession of movable property, as well as the disposition of property rights of every description, they shall, in conformity with the laws and regulations in force in the country, enjoy the same treatment as accorded to native subjects.

9. And as regards the acquisition and possession of immovable property, they shall, in the whole extent of the territories of the other, enjoy, on condition of reciprocity, the most-favoured-nation treatment.

ARTICLE III

The subjects of each of the High Contracting Parties shall be exempt in the territories of the other from compulsory military service on land, on sea, or in the air, in the regular forces, or in the national guard, or in the militia; from all contributions in money or in kind, imposed in lieu of personal military service, and from all forced loans or military contributions. They shall not be subjected, in time of peace or in time of war, to military requsi-

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way as the cases under the said paragraph.
IV. Ad Article VIII of the supplementary agreement:

With regard to registrations made under the laws and ordinances of Japan, the Government of Manchoukuo shall regard rights pertaining to immovable property as the similar or analogous rights, and trade marks and managers as such respectively, under the laws and ordinances of Manchoukuo.
V. Ad Article IX of the supplementary agreement:

1. The Government of Manchoukuo shall, as a general principle, establish advisory bodies in places where local committees have hitherto existed, in order that the local authorities of that country can ascertain the opinions of residents within the South Manchuria Railway Zone in respect of such local administration as directly affects the welfare and interests of such residents.

2. The public imposts at present collected by the South Manchuria Railway Company within the Railway Zone shall be abolished simultaneously with the transfer of the administration over the said zone.
VI. Ad Article XV of the supplementary agreement:

1. The education mentioned in the first paragraph of the present article refers, as a general principle, to that concerning primary education.

2. The Government of Manchoukuo shall as far as possible improve and replenish the system of primary education for Japanese subjects: as occasion arises, the Government of Manchoukuo shall grant a reasonable amount of subsidy to bodies conducting such educational work, and the Government of Japan shall also afford them finanical assistance.

3. The Government of Manchoukuo shall, in accordance with a decision to be made by consultation between the Japanese Ambassador Extraordinary and Plenipotentiary to Manchoukuo and the Prime Minister of that country, pay each year a share of the expenses of the educational work for Japanese subjects conducted by Japanese within the territories of Manchoukuo.
VII. Ad Article XVII of the supplementary agreement:

The judicial authorities of Japan referred to in the present article are, for the time being, her consular officers.
VIII. Ad Article XIX of the supplementary agreement:

The Government of Manchoukuo shall, with regard to the institutions and staffs concerned, taken over by them under the present treaty, take appropriate steps with a view to facilitating the disposal of business relating to the organization of the said institutions, the assignment of the said staffs, et cetera.
IX. Ad Article XX of the supplementary agreement:

The Government of Manchoukuo may cause Japanese subjects to have renewed by that Government the certificates of approval, of permission, of licence, et cetera, issued by the competent authorities of Japan before the coming into force of the treaty, provided that the said Government shall levy no charge in connection therewith.

SUPPLEMENTARY AGREEMENT (B)

In signing to-day the Treaty between Japan and Manchoukuo concerning the abolition of extraterritoriality in Manchoukuo and the transfer of the administrative rights over the South Manchuria Railway Zone, the respective plenipotentiaries of the two countries have agreed as follows with reference to communication and related business in Manchoukuo:

ARTICLE I

Of the communication business within the South Manchuria Railway Zone, that which relates to third countries shall be conducted and controlled by the Japanese administrations until the time to be decided upon by consultation between the Japanese Ambassador Extraordinary and Plenipotentiary to Manchoukuo and the Prime Minister of that country.

ARTICLE II

The Government of Japan may entrust to the Government of Manchoukuo the conduct of business of a kind which exists under the internal system of Japan but which does not exist under the internal system of Manchoukuo, and of other kind of business which is cosidered to be of special necessity. The kind and the scope of the business to be so entrusted shall be provided for in a business agreement to be concluded between the competent authorities of Japan and of Manchoukuo.

The Government of Manchoukuo shall with all the attention required of a bona fide trustee, dispose of the business entrusted to them under the preceding paragraph, on behalf of the Government of Japan, in accordance with the provisions

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of its laws and ordinances.

The Government of Japan shall pay to the Government of Manchoukuo fees for the disposal of the business entrusted to the latter.

ARTICLE III

The currency to be used in connection with the business entrusted under the preceding article shall be Manchoukuo currency.

The rate of exchange between Japanese and Manchoukuo currencies shall be decided upon by consultation between the competent authorities of Japan and of Manchoukuo.

ARTICLE IV

Matters relating to the operation of the present agreement shall be provided for in a business agreement to be concluded between the competent authorities of Japan and of Manchoukuo.

ARTICLE V

The protocol of signature attached to the treaty between Japan and Manchoukuo concerning postal business signed at Hsinking on the 26th of December, the 10th Year of Showa, corresponding to the 26th of December, the Second Year of Kangte, shall cease to be in force.

ARTICLE VI

The present agreement shall come into force simultaneously with the treaty.

In witness whereof, the plenipotentiaries of Japan and of Manchoukuo have signed this agreement and affixed their seals thereto.

Agreed Terms of Understanding between the Plenipotentiaries of Japan and of Manchoukuo concerning Communication and Allied Business in Manchoukuo.

I. The Government of Manchoukuo shall recognize the use of Japanese currency until the time to be decidedupon by consultation between the competent authorities of Japan and of Manchoukuo.

II. The competent authorities of Manchoukuo shall keep in close contact with the competent authorities of Japan with reference to the improvement and operation of the system and equipment concerning the business entrusted.

III. With regard to the business entrusted, the Government of Manchoukuo shall levy no public imposts or fees which are not at present imposed in Japan.

ABKOMMEN GEGEN DIE KOMMUNISTISCHE INTERNATIONALE ZUWISCHEN JAPAN UND DEUTSCHLAND

(November 25, 1936)

Die regierung des Deutschen Reiches und die Kaiserlich-Japanese Regierung.

In der Erkenntnis, dass das Ziel der Kommunistischen Internationale, Komintern genannt, die Zersetzung und Vergewaltigung der bestehenden Staaten mit allen zu Gebote stehenden Mitteln ist,

In der Überzeugung, dass die Duldung einer Einmischung der Kommunistischen Internationale in die inneren Verhältnisse der Nationen nicht nur deren inneren Frieden und soziales Wohlleben gefährdet, sondern auch den Weltfrieden uberhaupt bedroht,

Sind in dem Wunsche, gemeinsam zur Abwehr gegen die kommunistische Zersetzung zusammenzuarbeiten, in folgendem übereingekommen:

ARTIKEL I Die Hohen Vertragschliessenden Staaten kommen überein, sich gegenseitig über die Tätigkeit der Kommunistischen Internationale zu unterrichten, über die notwendigen Abwehrmassnahmen zu beraten und diese in enger Zusammenarbeit durchzuführen.

ARTIKEL II Die Hohen Vertragschliessenden Staaten werden dritte Staaten, deren innerer Friede durch die Zersetzungsarbeit der Kommunistischen Internationale bedroht wird, gemeinsam einladen, Abwehrmassnahmen im Geiste dieses Abkommens zu ergreifen oder an diesem Abkommen teilzunehmen.

ARTIKEL III Für dieses Abkommen gelten sowohl der deutsche wie auch der japanische Text als Urschrift. Es tritt am Tage der Unterzeichnung in Kraft und gilt für die Dauer von fünf Jahren. Die Hohen Vertragschliessenden Staaten werden sich rechtzeitig vor Ablauf dieser Frist über die

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weitere Gestaltung ihrer Zusammenarbeit verständigen.

ZUSATZPROTOKOLL ZUM ABKOMMEN GEGEN DIE KOMMUNISTISCHE INTERNATIONALE.

Anlässlich der heutigen Unterzeichnung des Abkommens gegen die Kommunistische Internationale sind die Bevollmächtigten in folgendem übereingekommen:

(a) Die zuständigen Behörden der beiden Hohen Vertragschliessenden Staaten werden in bezug auf den Nachrichtenaustausch über die Tätigkeit der Kommunistischen Internationale sowie auf die Aufklärungs-und Abwehrmassnahmen gegen die Kommunistische Internationale in enger Weise zusammenarbeiten.

(b) Die zuständigen Behörden der beiden Hohen Vertragschliessenden Staaten werden im Rahmen der bestehenden Gesetze strenge Massnahmen gegen diejenigen ergreifen, die sich im Inland order Ausland direkt oder indirekt im Dienste der Kommunistischen Internationale betätigen oder deren Zersetzungsarbeit Vorschub leisten.

(c) Um die in (a) festgelegte Zusammenarbeit der zuständigen Behörden der beiden Hohen Vertragschliessenden Staaten zu erleichtern, wird eine ständige Kommission errichtet werden. In dieser Kommission werden die weiteren zur Bekämpfung der Zersetzungsarbeit der Kommunistischen Internationale notwendigen Abwehrmassnahmen erwogen und beraten.

THE ITALIAN TEXT OF THE TRIPARTITE PROTOCOL AGAINST THE COMMUNIST INTERNATIONAL

(Signed at Rome on November 6, 1937)

Protocollo

IL GOVERNO ITALIANO,

IL GOVERNO DEL REICH GERMANICO e

IL GOVERNO IMPERIALE DEL GIAPPONE,

Considerando che l'Internazionale Comunista continua a mettere costantemente in pericolo il mondo civile in Occidente e in Oriente turbandovi e distruggendovi la pace e l'ordine,

Convinti che soltanto una stretta collaborazione fra tutti gli Stati interessati al mantenimento della pace e dell'ordine può limitare e rimuovere tale pericolo,

Considerando cho l'Italia—che coll'avvento del Regime Fascista ha combattuto con inflessibile determinazione tale pericolo ed ha eliminato l'Internazionale Comunista dal suo territorio—ha deciso di schierarsi contro il nemico comune insieme con la Germania e col Giappone, che da parte loro sono animati dalla stessa volontà di difendersi contro l'Internazionale Comunista,

Hanno, in conformità dell'Articolo 2 dell'Accordo contro l'Internazionale Comunista concluso a Berlino il 25 Novembre 1936 fra la Germania ed il Giappone, convenuto quanto segue:

ARTICOLO I

L'Italia entra a far parte dell'Accordo contro l'Internazionale Comunista e del Protocollo supplementare conclusi il 25 Novembre 1936 fra la Germania ed il Giappone, il cui testo è allegato nell'annesso al presente Protocollo.

ARTICOLO II

Le tre Potenze firmatarie del presente Protocollo convengono che l'Italia sarà considerata come firmataria originaria dell'Accordo e del Protocollo supplementare menzionati all'Articolo precedente, la firma del presente Protocollo essendo equivalente alla firma del testo originale dell'Accordo e del Protocollo supplementare predetti.

ARTICOLO III

Il presente Protocollo costituirà parte integrante dell'Accordo e del Protocollo supplementare sopramenzionati.

ARTICOLO IV

Il presente Protocollo è redatto in italiano, giapponese e tedesco, ciascun testo essendo considerato come autentico. Esso entrerà in vigore il giorno della firma.

IN FEDE DI CHE, i sottoscritti, debitamente autorizzati dai loro rispettivi Governi, hanno firmato il presente Protocollo e vi hanno apposto i loro sigilli.

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TREATY OF FRIENDSHIP, COMMERCE AND NAVIGATION BETWEEN JAPAN AND SIAM

Signed at Bangkok, December 8, 1937

His Majesty the Emperor of Japan and His Majesty the King of Siam, being desirous of strengthening the relations of amity and good understanding which happily exist between the two States, and being convinced that this can best be accomplished by revising the treaties hitherto existing between the two countries, have resolved to complete such revision, based upon the principles of reciprocity, equity and mutual benefit, and for that purpose have named as their Plenipotentiaries, that is to say:

His Majesty the Emperor of Japan: Kuramatsu Murai, Jusii, Third Class of the Imperial Order of the Sacred Treasure, His Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary at the Court of His Majesty the King of Siam;

His Majesty the King of Siam: Luang Pradist Manudharm (Pridi Banomyong), Minister of Foreign Affairs;

Who, after having communicated to each other their respective full powers, found to be in good and due form, have agreed upon the following articles:

ARTICLE I

There shall be constant peace and perpetual friendship between Japan and Siam.

ARTICLE II

The subjects of each of the High Contracting Parties shall have full liberty to enter, travel, and reside in the territories of the other, and conforming themselves to the laws and regulations of the country—

1. Shall in all that relate to travel and residence, be placed in all respects on the same footing as native subjects.

2. They shall have the right, equally with native subjects, to carry on their commerce and manufacture, and to trade in all kinds of merchandise of lawful commerce, either in person or by agents, singly or in partnership with foreigners or native subjects.

3. They shall be permitted, on the same footing as native subjects, to engage in religious, educational and charitable work.

4. They shall be permitted to own or lease and occupy houses, manufactories, warehouses and shops which may be necessary for them, and to lease land for residential, commercial, industrial, religious, charitable and other lawful purposes and for use as cemeteries in the same manner as native subjects.

5. They shall not be compelled, under any pretext whatsoever, to pay any internal charges or taxes other or higher than those that are or may be paid by native subjects.

6. They shall receive, in the territories of the other, the most constant protection and security for their persons and property and shall enjoy in this respect the same rights and privileges as are or may be granted to native subjects.

7. In all that relates to industrial pursuits, and to callings and professions as well as to educational studies, they shall, throughout the whole extent of the territories of the other, be placed in all respects on the same footing as the subjects or citizens of the most favoured nation.

8. As regards the acquisition and possession of movable property, as well as the disposition of property rights of every description, they shall, in conformity with the laws and regulations in force in the country, enjoy the same treatment as accorded to native subjects.

9. And as regards the acquisition and possession of immovable property, they shall, in the whole extent of the territories of the other, enjoy, on condition of reciprocity, the most-favoured-nation treatment.

ARTICLE III

The subjects of each of the High Contracting Parties shall be exempt in the territories of the other from compulsory military service on land, on sea, or in the air, in the regular forces, or in the national guard, or in the militia; from all contributions in money or in kind, imposed in lieu of personal military service, and from all forced loans or military contributions. They shall not be subjected, in time of peace or in time of war, to military requisi-

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tions except as imposed upon native subjects, and they shall reciprocally be entitled to compensation payable to native subjects by the laws and regulations in force in the respective countries. With regard to the foregoing provisions, the subjects of each of the High Contracting Parties shall not be treated in the territories of the other less favourably than the subjects or citizens of the most favoured nation.

ARTICLE IV

The subjects of each of the High Contracting Parties shall enjoy in the territories of the other entire liberty of conscience, and, subject to the laws and regulations in force in the country, shall enjoy the right of private or public exercise of their worship.

ARTICLE V

The subjects of each of the High Contracting Parties shall have free access to the Courts of Justice of the other in pursuit and defence of their rights; they shall be at liberty, equally with native subjects, and with the subjects or citizens of the most favoured nation, to choose and employ lawyers, advocates and representatives to pursue and defend their rights before such Courts.

There shall be no conditions or requirements imposed upon the subjects of either of the High Contracting Parties in connection with such access to the Courts of Justice of the other, which do not apply to native subjects or to the subjects or citizens of the most favoured nation.

ARTICLE VI

The dwellings, warehouses, manufactories and shops and all other property of the subjects of each of the High Contracting Parties in the territories of the other, and all premises appertaining thereto used for lawful purposes, shall be respected. It shall not be allowable to proceed to make a domiciliary visit to, or a search of, any such buildings and premises, or to examine or inspect books, papers, or accounts, except under the conditions and with the forms prescribed by the laws and regulations for native subjects.

ARTICLE VII

There shall be reciprocally full and entire freedom of commerce and navigation between the territories of the two High Contracting Parties.

The subjects of each of the High Contracting Parties shall have liberty freely to come with their ships and cargoes to all places, ports and rivers in the territories of the other which are or may be opened to foreign commerce and navigation, and, conforming themselves to the laws and regulations of the country to which they thus come, shall enjoy the same rights, privileges, liberties, favours, immunities and exemptions in matters of commerce and navigation as are or may be enjoyed by the subjects or citizens of the most favoured nation.

ARTICLE VIII

Neither High Contracting Party shall establish or maintain prohibitions or restrictions on imports from or exports to the territories of the other Party which are not applied to the import and export of any like article originating in or destined for any other country.

The preceding provisions are not, however, applicable to such prohibitions or restrictions as follows, provided that they are applicable to all countries where similar conditions prevail:

(1) Prohibitions, restrictions or regulations for the enforcement of laws and regulations for the protection of public security or public health, including laws and regulations prohibiting or restricting the importation, exportation, or sale of alcohol or alcoholic beverages or of opium, the coca leaf, their derivatives, and other narcotic drugs;

(2) Prohibitions or restrictions on the trade or traffic in arms and munitions of war, and in exceptional circumstances other materials needed in war, it being agreed in this regard that either High Contracting Party may, in the event of its being engaged in war, enforce such import or export restrictions as may be required by the national interest;

(3) Prohibitions or restrictions necessary for the protection of animal or plant life against disease, harmful pests or extinction;

(4) Prohibitions or restrictions upon articles which, as regards production or trade, are or may hereafter be subject within the country to a monopoly exercised by or under the control of the State;

(5) Prohibitions or restrictions with regard to articles similr to those domes-

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tic articles whose internal production, sale, or transport is forbidden or similarly restricted by the national law.

ARTICLE IX

The High Contracting Parties agree not to obstruct mutual commerce between the two countries by any prohibition or restriction placed upon the transit of article, subject to the following exceptions which, however, shall be applicable to all countries alike or to those countries where similar conditions prevail:

(1) Prohibitions or restrictions for reasons of public security or public health;

(2) Prohibitions or restrictions on the trade or traffic in arms and munitions of war under extraordinary circumstances;

(3) Prohibitions or restrictions necessary for the protection of animal or plant life against disease, harmful pests or extinction.

ARTICLE X

It is agreed that the Customs tariffs applicable to articles, the produce or manufacture of either of the High Contracting Parties imported into the territories of the other shall be regulated by the laws and regulations of the country of importation.

No other or higher duties shall be imposed on the importation into the territories of either of the High Contracting Parties of any article, the produce or manufacture of the territories of the other, from whatever place arriving, than on the like article produced or manufactured in any other foreign country, from whatever place arriving.

No other or higher duties, taxes or charges of any kind shall be imposed in the territories of either of the High Contracting Parties in respect of any article exported to the territories of the other, than such as are or may be payable in respect of the like article exported to any other foreign country.

ARTICLE XI

No internal duties levied for the benefit of the State, local authorities, or corporations which affect, or may affect, the production, manufacture, or consumption of any article in the territories of either of the High Contracting Parties shall for any reason be a higher or more burdensome charge on articles, the produce or manufacture of the territories of the other, than on similar articles of native origin.

ARTICLE XII

The subjects of each of the High Contracting Parties shall enjoy in the territories of the other a perfect equality of treatment with native subjects in all that relates to transit duties, warehousing, facilities, the examination and appraisement of merchandise and drawbacks.

ARTICLE XIII

Merchants and manufacturers, subjects of one of the High Contracting Parties, may, in the territories of the other, either personally or by means of commercial travellers, make purchases or collect orders, with or without samples, and such merchants, manufacturers, and their commercial travellers, while so making purchases and collecting orders, shall, in the matter of taxation and facilities, enjoy the most-favoured-nation treatment.

Articles imported as samples for the purposes above mentioned shall, in each country, be temporarily admitted free of duty on compliance with the Customs regulations and formalities established in order to assure their re-exportation or the payment of the prescribed charges if not re-exported within the period allowed by law. But the foregoing privilege shall not extend to articles which, owing to their quantity or value, cannot be considered as samples, or which, owing to their nature, could not be identified upon re-exportation. The determination of the question of qualification of samples for duty-free admission rests in all cases exclusively with the competent authorities of the place where the importation is effected.

ARTICLE XIV

Marks, stamps, or seals placed upon the samples mentioned in the preceding Article by the Customs authorities of either High Contracting Party at the time of exportation, and any officially attested list of such samples containing a full description thereof issued by them, shall be reciprocally accepted by the Customs officials of the other as

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establishing their character as samples and exempting them from inspection, except so far as may be necessary to establish that the samples produced are those enumerated in the list. The Customs authorities of either High Contracting Party may, however, affix a supplementary mark to such samples in special cases where they may think this precaution necessary.

ARTICLE XV

Any authorities recognised in the territories of one of the High Contracting Parties as competent for the issue of such identity certificates as may be required for merchants, manufacturers and commercial travellers shall be accepted by the other as competent authorities in that regard.

Each of the High Contracting Parties will inform the other what are the competent authorities for the issue of these certificates as well as of the forms which are required.

ARTICLE XVI

The subjects of each of the High Contracting Parties shall have in the territories of the other the same rights as native subjects in regard to patents for inventions, trade-marks, trade-names, designs and copyright in literary and artistic works, upon fulfilment of the formalities prescribed by the laws and regulations in force in the country.

ARTICLE XVII

Limited-liability and other companies and associations, already or hereafter to be organized in accordance with the laws and regulations of either High Contracting Party, are authorized in the territories of the other, to exercise their rights and appear in the Courts either as plaintiffs or defendants, subject to the laws and regulations of such other Party.

There shall be no conditions or requirements imposed upon companies and associations organized in accordance with the laws and regulations of either High Contracting Party in connection with such access to the Courts of Justice of the other which do not apply to such native companies and associations or those of the most favoured nation.

As regards the acquisition and possession of movable property, as well as the disposition of property rights of every description, companies and associations above mentioned shall, in conformity with the laws and regulations in force in the country, enjoy the same treatment as accorded to native companies and associations. Furthermore as regards the acquisition and possession of immovable property, they shall, on condition of reciprocity, enjoy the most-favoured-nation treatment. It is also understood that, as regards the right to engage in various kinds of commerce and industry, the companies and associations in question shall, subject to the observance of the laws and regulations of public order, enjoy the same rights and privileges as are or may be granted to the like companies and associations of the most favoured nation.

ARTICLE XVIII

Each of the High Contracting Parties shall permit the importation or exportation of all merchandise which may be legally imported or exported, and also the carriage of passengers from or to their respective territories, upon the vessels of the other, and such vessels, their cargoes and passengers shall enjoy the same privileges as, and shall not be subjected to any other or higher duties, charges or restrictions than national vessels and their cargoes and passengers, or the vessels, cargoes and passengers of the most favoured nation.

ARTICLE XIX

In all that concerns the entering, clearing, stationing, loading and unloading of vessels in the ports, basins, docks, road-steads, harbours, or rivers of the two countries, no privilege shall be granted to vessels of a third country which shall not equally be granted to vessels of the other country; the intention of the High Contracting Parties being that in these respects the vessels of each shall receive the treatment accorded to vessels of the most favoured nation.

ARTICLE XX

No duties of tonnage, harbour, pilotage, lighthouse, quarantine or other similar or corresponding duties of whatever nature, or under whatever denomination levied in the name or for the profit of the Government, public functionaries, private individuals, corporations or establishments of any kind shall be imposed in the ports of the

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territories of either country upon the vessels of the other country, which shall not equally and under the same conditions be imposed in the like cases on the vessels of the most favoured nation. Such equality of treatment shall apply reciprocally to the vessels of the respective countries, from whatever port or place they may arrive, and whatever may be their place of destination.

ARTICLE XXI

Any ship of war or merchant vessel of either of the High Contracting Parties which may be compelled by stress of weather, or by reason of any other distress, to take shelter in a port of the other, shall be at liberty to refit therein, to procure all necessary supplies, and put to sea again, without paying any dues other than such as would be payable by national vessels. In case, however, the master of a merchant vessel should be under the necessity of disposing of a part of his cargo in order to defray the expenses, he shall be bound to conform to the regulations and tariffs of the place to which he may have come.

If any ship of war or merchant vessel of one of the High Contracting Parties should run aground or be wrecked upon the coasts of the other, the local authorities shall give prompt notice of the occurrence to the Consular Officer residing in the district or to the nearest Consular Officer of the other country.

Such stranded or wrecked ship or vessel and all parts thereof, and all furniture and appurtenances belonging thereto, and all goods and merchandise saved therefrom, including those which may have been cast into the sea, or the proceeds thereof, if sold, as well as all papers found on board such stranded or wrecked ship or vessel, shall be given up to the owners or their agents, when claimed by them.

If such owners or agents are not on the spot, the aforesaid property or proceeds from the sale thereof and the papers found on board the vessel shall be delivered to the proper Consular Officer of the High Contracting Party whose vessel is wrecked or stranded, provided that such Consular Officer shall make claim within the period fixed by the laws and regulations of the country in which the wreck or stranding occurred, and such Consular Officers, owners or agents shall pay only the expenses incurred in the preservation of the property, together with the salvage or other expenses which would have been payable in the case of the wreck or stranding of a national vessel.

The goods and merchandise saved from the wreck or stranding shall be exempt from all duties of the Customs unless cleared for consumption, in which case they shall pay ordinary duties.

In the case of a ship or vessel belonging to the subjects of one of the High Contracting Parties being driven in by stress of weather, run aground or wrecked in the territories of the other, the proper Consular Officer of the High Contracting Party to which the vessel belongs, shall, if the owners or their agents are not present, or are present but require it, be authorized to interpose in order to afford the necessary assistance to the subjects of his State.

ARTICLE XXII

The vessels of war of each of the High Contracting Parties may enter, remain and make repairs in those ports and places of the other to which the vessels of war of other nations are accorded access; they shall submit to the same regulations and enjoy the same honours, advantages, privileges and exemptions as are now, or may hereafter be conceded to the vessels of war of any other nation.

ARTICLE XXIII

Vessels charged with performance of regular scheduled postal service of one of the High Contracting Parties shall enjoy in the territorial waters of the other the same special facilities, privileges, and immunities as are granted to like vessels of the most favoured nation.

ARTICLE XXIV

The Consular Officers of each of the High Contracting Parties residing in the territories of the other shall receive from the local authorities such assistance as can by law be given to them for the recovery of deserters from the vessels of the former Party.

It is understood that this stipulation shall not apply to the subjects of the country where the desertion takes place.

ARTICLE XXV

Each of the High Contracting Parties may appoint Consuls-General, Consuls,

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Vice-Consuls and other Consular Officers or Agents to reside in the towns and ports of the territories of the other where similar officers of other countries are permitted to reside.

Such Consular Officers and Agents, however, shall not enter upon their functions until they shall have been approved and admitted by the Government to which they are sent.

They shall be entitled, on condition of reciprocity, to exercise all the powers and enjoy all the honours, privileges, exemptions and immunities of every kind which are, or may be, accorded to Consular Officers of the most favoured nation.

ARTICLE XXVI

In case of the death of a subject of one of the High Contracting Parties in the territories of the other without having in the country of his decease any known heirs or testamentary executors by him appointed, the competent local authorities shall at once inform the nearest Consular Officer of the nation to which the deceased belonged, in order that necessary information may be immediately forwarded to parties interested.

In case of the death of a subject of one of the High Contracting Parties in the territories of the other, without leaving at the place of his decease any person entitled by the laws and regulations of his country to take charge of and administer the estate, the competent Consular Officer of the State to which the deceased belonged shall upon fulfilment of the necessary formalities, be empowered to take custody of and administer the estate in the manner and under the limitations prescribed by the laws and regulations of the country in which the property of the deceased is situated.

The foregoing provision shall also apply in case of a subject of one of the High Contracting Parties dying outside the territories of the other, but possessing property therein, without leaving any person there entitled to take charge of and administer the estate.

ARTICLE XXVII

The coasting trade of both the High Contracting Parties is excepted from the provisions of the present Treaty, and shall be regulated according to the laws and regulations of Japan and Siam respectively. It is, however, understood that the subjects and vessels of either High Contracting Party shall enjoy in this respect most-favoured-nation treatment in the territories of the other.

Japanese and Siamese vessels may, nevertheless, proceed from one port to another, either for the purpose of landing the whole or part of their passengers or cargoes brought from abroad, or of taking on board the whole or part of their passengers or cargoes for a foreign destination.

It is also understood that, in the event of the coasting trade of either Party being exclusively reserved to national vessels, the vessels of the other Party, if engaged in trade to or from places not within the limits of the coasting trade so reserved, shall not be prohibited from the carriage between two ports of the territories of the former Party of passengers holding through tickets, or merchandise consigned on through bills of lading to or from places not within the above-mentioned limits, and while engaged in such carriage these vessels and their cargoes shall enjoy the full privileges of this Treaty.

ARTICLE XXVIII

The provisions of the present Treaty as regards the most-favoured-nation treatment do not apply to:

(1) Favours, advantages and privileges which are or may be granted by either of the High Contracting Parties to an adjoining State with the object of facilitating frontier traffic within a limited zone on each side of the frontier;

(2) Favours, advantages and privileges granted or to be granted hereafter to a third State in virtue of a Customs Union;

(3) Favours, advantages and privileges contractually granted or to be granted to a third State for the avoidance of double taxation;

(4) Favours, advantages and privileges granted or to be granted hereafter to an adjoining State with regard to the navigation on or use of boundary waterways not navigable from the sea;

(5) The treatment which is or may be accorded to the produce of the national fisheries of the High Contracting Parties or the special tariff favours granted by either of the High Contracting Parties in regard to fish and other aquatic products taken in the foreign waters in the vicinity of that Party.

ARTICLE XXIX

The stipulations of the present Treaty

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shall be applicable to all the territories and possessions belonging to or administered by the High Contracting Parties.

ARTICLE XXX

The present Treaty shall remain in force for five years from the date on which it comes into effect.

In case neither of the High Contracting Parties shall have notified twelve months before the expiration of the said period the intention of terminating it, it shall remain binding until the expiration of one year from the day on which either of the High Contracting Parties shall have denounced it.

ARTICLE XXXI

The present Treaty shall be ratified, and the ratifications thereof shall be exchanged at Bangkok as soon as possible, and the said Treaty shall come into force on the date of the exchange of ratifications.

IN WITNESS WHEREOF the respective Plenipotentiaries have signed the present Treaty and have hereunto affixed their seals.

Done in duplicate, in the English language, at Bangkok, this eighth day of the twelfth month in the twelfth year of Syōwa, corresponding to the eighth day of the ninth month in the two thousand four hundred and eightieth year of the Buddhist Era, and the eighth day of December in the nineteen hundred and thirty-seventh year of the Christian Era.

K. Murai (L. S.)
Luang Pradist Manudharm (L. S.)

FINAL PROTOCOL.

At the moment of proceeding this day to the signature of the Treaty of Friendship, Commerce and Navigation between Japan and Siam, the Plenipotentiaries of the two High Contracting Parties have agreed as follows:

1. The stipulations contained in this Treaty do not in any way affect, supersede or modify any of the laws and regulations with regard to naturalization, immigration and public order, which are in force or which may be enacted in either of the two countries, provided that they do not constitute measures of discrimination particularly directed against the subjects of the other.

2. The terms of the treatment of the most favoured nation in this Treaty are to be interpreted as immediate and unconditional unless otherwise expressly provided.

3. The national fisheries of each of the High Contracting Parties shall be regulated according to the laws and regulations of that Party. It is understood, however, that the subjects of either of the High Contracting Parties in the territories of the other shall enjoy in this respect the same rights and privileges as may be granted to the subjects or citizens of any other country.

4. In all that concerns the provisions of Article 2 of the Treaty, the subjects of either of the High Contracting Parties shall not be treated by the other less favourably than the subjects or citizens of any other country.

5. In the event of any form of quantitative limitation being established for the importation or exportation of articles, each of the High Contracting Parties agrees to grant for the importation from or exportation to the territories of the other Party an equitable apportionment of the quantity of restricted articles which may be authorized for importation or exportation.

6. Articles, the produce or manufacture of the territories of either of the High Contracting Parties, passing in transit through the territories of the other, shall be free from transit duties as provided for in the Convention and Statute on Freedom of Transit concluded at Barcelona, April 20, 1921.

7. The provisions of Article 11 of the Treaty shall not be deemed to prevent either of the High Contracting Parties from charging differing rates in the collection of sale licence fees between imported spirituous liquors and those manufactured by or under licence from the State.

8. It is understood that the provisions prescribing most-favoured-nation treatment in this Treaty do not apply to favours, advantages and privileges in regard to Customs tariffs which may be granted by Japan to articles produced or manufactured in Manchoukuo.

The present Protocol is to be deemed ratified by the ratification of the Treaty of Friendship, Commerce and Navigation signed this day and shall have the same duration as that Treaty.

IN WITNESS WHEREOF the undersigned Plenipotentiaries have hereunto signed their names and affixed their seals.

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Done at Bangkok, in duplicate, this eighth day of the twelfth month in the twelfth year of Syōwa, corresponding to the eighth day of the ninth month in the two thousand four hundred and eightieth year of the Buddhist Era, and the eighth day of December in the nineteen hundred and thirty-seventh year of the Christian Era.

K. Murai (L. S.)
Luang Pradist Manudharm (L. S.)

AGREEMENT ON CULTURAL CO-OPERATION BETWEEN JAPAN AND GERMANY, NOVEMBER 25, 1938

The Imperial Japanese Government and The German Government

Deeply conscious of the fact that the Japanese and German cultures have their true foundations in the intrinsic Japanese spirit on one side and in the German national life on the other, and that the cultural relations of both countries are to be based thereupon, and

Being desirous of strengthening more and more the bonds of friendship and mutual confidence so happily connecting both countries already, by deepening their manifold cultural relations and by promoting the mutual knowledge and understanding of both nations

Have agreed upon the following articles:

Article I The High Contracting States shall strive to put their cultural relations on a firm foundation and shall most closely collaborate with each other in these regards.

Article II In order to attain the aim set forth in the preceding article the High Contracting States shall systematically promote their cultural relations in the domains of science and fine arts, music and literature, film and radio, youth-movements and sports, etc.

Article III The competent authorities of the High Contracting States shall decide by mutual agreement the detailed measures necessary for the execution of the preceding article.

Article IV The present Agreement shall enter into force on the day of its signature. It shall expire twelve months after one of the High Contracting States shall have denounced it.

Statement of the Foreign Office Spokesman on the Same, November 25, 1938

It is a matter for sincere congratulation that the cultural agreement between Japan and Germany, for whose conclusion negotiations have been going on for some time between the representatives of the two countries in Tokyo, has been signed and gone into effect today; the agreement will not only conduce to drawing still closer the cultural relations between the two nations, but be instrumental in enabling them to deepen their knowledge and understanding of each other.

Japan has recently severed all her relations with the League of Nations. This, however, does not mean that Japan has severed her cultural relations with foreign countries or suspended her co-operation with them in the cultural field, but on the contrary she is as ready as ever to co-operate in cultural undertakings with those foreign countries in friendly relationship with her, whether they are member states of the League or not.

The cultural agreement, signed between Japan and Germany today, is a manifestation of the earnest desire of the Japanese Government for strengthening cultural ties with foreign countries through agreements to be concluded separately on a basis of reciprocity. It is the first of the kind to be put into operation, but we hope that it will be followed by similar pacts to be concluded with as many foreign Powers as possible. For instance, a cultural agreement was already signed between Japan and Hungary on November 15 and expected to go into effect in the near future, while preparations are under way for concluding a similar agreement with Italy. It is the policy of the Japanese Government to accelerate conclusion of cultural agreements with those foreign Powers which are desirous of so doing.

The key-note of those agreements which are anticipated to be concluded with foreign Powers lies in an exchange and intermixture of Japanese culture whose essence will be fostered and developed and the essence of characteristic cultures of various foreign countries. The present cultural agreement between Japan and Germany provides for a general policy in cultural co-operation between the two countries under the above-mentioned guiding principle.

Various fields of activities, stipulated

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by Article II of the present agreement, are only given as examples. Cultural pacts between foreign countries usually have detailed stipulations, but the present agreement between Japan and Germany is rather different in stipulating general provisions for cultural co-operation and leaving room for giving full play to them as occasion demands, while matters of detail shall be discussed and decided on between the competent authorities of the High Contracting Parties in case of necessity.

AGREEMENT ON CULTURAL CO-OPERATION BETWEEN JAPAN AND ITALY, MARCH 23, 1939

The Japanese Government and Italian Government,

Equally animated by a desire to deepen the mutual understanding of both countries and to strengthen more and more the bonds of friendship and mutual confidence so happily connecting them already, by mutually respecting their intrinsic cultures based on their time-honoured traditions and by promoting their manifold cultural relations,

Have agreed upon the following Articles:

Article I The High Contracting States shall strive to put their cultural relations on a firm foundation and shall most closely collaborate in these regards.

Article II In order to attain the aim set forth in the preceding Article, the High Contracting States shall ever promote their cultural relations through the instrumentality of science and art, music and literature, stage and screen, photography and radio, youth-movements and sports, etc.

Article III The competent authorities of the High Contracting States shall decide by mutual agreement the detailed measures necessary for the execution of the stipulations of the preceding Article.

Article IV The present Agreement shall enter into force on the day of its signature. It shall expire twelve months after one of the High Contracting States shall have denounced it.

Statement of the Foreign Office on The Same, March 23, 1939

With a view to consolidating and promoting the cultural relations existing between Japan and Italy in the spheres of arts, literature, science and jurisprudence, the Japanese Government proposed to the Italian Government in December last, the conclusion of an agreement for that purpose. The Italian Government gladly accepted, and as a result the agreement concerning their cultural co-operation has been concluded today. It is a matter for congratulation that this agreement has been put into effect at a time when the friendly relations between Japan and Italy are becoming closer than ever before by virtue of their participation in the anti-Comintern agreement.

The agreement definitely affirms in its preamble that the co-operation between Japan and Italy for the promotion of their cultural intercourse should be based upon the intrinsic features of the ancient and modern cultures of the two countries.

The agreement itself provides the general principles upon which the contracting parties should act, and the competent authorities of both countries are to determine by mutual agreement the following matters among various others which are mentioned in the agreement:

1. Establishment of committees to make suggestions and studies regarding a cultural co-operation to be proposed by one of the contracting parties.
2. Eventual foundation of new cultural institutions which will contribute toward a closer cultural contact between the two countries; maintenance and expansion of such existing institutions.
3. Adaptation of text-books used in schools of both countries within the scope to be later fixed and in conformity with the spirit of the agreement.
4. Facilities for Government students of both contracting parties.
5. Promotion of the exchange of professors and students.
6. Mutual recommendation of those who will be engaged in cultural activities in one of the two countries.
7. Promotion of friendly intercourse between Japanese and Italian youths' organizations.
8. Exchange of books and periodicals.
9. Mutual encouragement of the translation of both general and technical books and other literature which will contribute toward a closer cultural contact between the two countries.
10. Exchanges in the realm of arts.
11. Exchange of films.
12. Exchange of broadcasts.

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13. Exchanges in the field of sports and public welfare.

14. Exchanges in the field of tourist industry.

THE FISHERY NEGOTIATIONS BETWEEN JAPAN AND THE SOVIET UNION, APRIL 4, 1939

1. The Japanese-Soviet negotiations regarding the question of fishing in the northern waters came to a satisfactory conclusion on April 2 and a modus vivendi was signed at midnight of the same day by Ambassador Togo and Foreign Commissar Litvinoff. The following is an outline of the progress of negotiations conducted after the announcement at the end of February this year up to the time of the conclusion of the agreement.

Since March Ambassador Togo negotiated nine times with Foreign Commissar Litvinoff, namely, on the 8th, 11th, 14th, 22nd, 26th, 28th and 31st of March and 1st and 2nd of April; and in the meantime Counsellor Nishi negotiated from time to time with Assistant Chief of the Far Eastern Bureau Tsarabukin.

Some of these interviews lasted for several hours with heated arguments, and more than once there was the danger of rupture. The Japanese side, however, has consistently endeavoured along reasonable lines to persuade the Soviet to reach an amicable solution while maintaining a resolute attitude for the preservation of our treaty rights. As a result a satisfactory agreement has been reached.

At the interviews held after March 8th, Ambassador Togo refuted the Soviet argument which said it was unreasonable for Japan to demand substitute fishery lots for exempted fishery lots, and he strongly expressed the Japanese contention regarding the stabilized fishery lots. At the same time he endeavoured to persuade the Soviet to postpone the auction scheduled for March 15th, urging the Soviet side to reconsider and stated that the serious responsibility should be borne by the Soviet Government for the situation which might arise as a result of its insistent unilateral contentions.

On March 15th, the Soviet carried out the auction as previously planned and, although the fishery lots which the Japanese had hitherto operated were not affected as a whole, it successfully bid for four of the stabilized lots hitherto operated by the Japanese as well as six fishery lots which the Soviet Government had proposed to place on auction as substitutes for the fishery lots which it has previously proposed to exempt from the operation by Japanese nationals. Against this the Japanese Embassy at Moscow lodged a vigorous protest in an official Note dated the 19th, stating that Japan refused to accept the effect of the auction.

The negotiations were continued which substantially came to a close by the end of March. The negotiations were then shifted to the question of what form of document should be adopted to incorporate the points agreed upon. At midnight on April 2 and the negotiations on the fishery question came to a satisfactory conclusion, and the Japanese participated in the auction held at Vladivostok on April 4.

2. The results of the agreement may be summarized as follows:

(a) The Fishery Convention of 1928 remains in force until the end of this year.

(b) The contract for the special contract fishery lots is extended another year with the exception of four exempted lots, concerning which mention will be made later.

(c) As to stabilized fishery lots they are placed on auction with the exception of the exempted lots, of which mention will be made later, but

(A) The definite prospect is that Japanese fishing interests will acquire them.

(B) These acquired lots will be under lease for five years.

(C) The rent is not to be raised more than ten per cent.

(D) The four lots which were successfully bidden by the Soviet side on March 15th, are to be returned to the Japanese.

(d) The exempted fishery lots:

Thirty-seven fishery lots consisting of thirty-two of the stabilized lots, four of the special lots, and one of the lots under lease are exempted from auction as exceptions to Article 8 of the Protocol A of the Fishery Convention. But against these lots ten substitute lots are offered, nine of which are to be leased for five years by auction.

(e) The nine Japanese fishery lots, which have been placed on auction because their lease expired, will be successfully bidden by the Japanese for the term of five years.

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(f) The fifty-two fishery lots which have been still under lease will continue to be leased by the Japanese.

(g) The rate of rouble exchange remains the same as before.

To sum up, the Japanese side has acceded to the Soviet contention regarding the placing of the so-called stabilized lots on auction because the term of their lease has expired. But the Japanese will successfully bid for all the fishery lots except the exempted ones and secure the stabilization of the fishery lots for five years. As for the exempted fishery lots, although we are not to operate twenty-seven of them, we can operate about three hundred and sixty fishery lots. In other words, Japan has acquired as the result of the recent negotiations about three hundred and sixty fishery lots in all, of which two hundred and sixty-four are to be stabilized for five years.

CUSTOMS TARIFF LAW

ARTICLE I Customs duties shall be levied upon articles imported from foreign countries in accordance with the annexed Tariff.

ARTICLE II Duties upon articles charged with ad valorem duty shall be levied on the value on arrival at the time of importation.

ARTICLE III With regard to articles, the produce or manufacture of territories not enjoying the benefit of a conventional arrangement, a benefit not exceeding the limits stipulated in such arrangement may, if necessary, be extended to such articles by means of Imperial Ordinance, specifying the territory and articles concerned.

ARTICLE IV With regard to the produce or manufactures or exports of, or articles passing through a country where Japanese vessels, produce or maunfactures, or articles passing through Japanese territory are subject to a less favourable treatment than the vessels, produce or manufactures of, or articles passing through other countries, such articles may be designated by Imperial Ordinance so that special duties, not exceeding in amount their value, may be imposed upon them, in addition to the duties enumerated in the annexed Tariff.

ARTICLE V With regard to articles benefitting from export bounties in foreign countries, duties corresponding in amount to such bounties may be levied on them by Imperial Ordinance, in addition to the duties enumerated in the annexed Tariff.

ARTICLE V-2 When any important industry in this country is in danger of being injuriously affected by the importation of articles for the purpose of dumping or by the dumping of imported articles, such articles may be designated in accordance with the provisions of Imperial Ordinance after investigation by the Dumping Investigation Committee, and on such articles may be imposed during a specified period of time duties not exceeding in amount their proper value, in addition to the duties enumerated in the annexed Tariff.

In case the articles designated according to the provisions of the foregoing paragraph have already been imported and are owned by or in the possession of a dumper or his agent, the additional duty mentioned in the said paragraph may be collected from such dumper or agent.

The additional duty stipulated in the preceding paragraph shall be collected in the same way as a national tax.

ARTICLE VI The import duty on rice, hulled or unhulled, may in case of a famine be reduced by Imperial Ordinance for a specified period to a rate not lower than forty sen per hundred kin.

ARTICLE VII The following articles shall be exempt from import duties:—

1 Articles for the use of the Imperial Household.
2 Articles belonging to a foreign ruler and his family and suite, visiting Japan.
3 Arms, ammunition, and explosives imported by the Army or the Navy.
4 Mineral oils for fuel imported by the Government.
5 Warships.
6 Articles for the personal use of foreign Ambassadors and Ministers and other envoys of similar standing accredited to Japan, and articles for the official use of foreign Embassies and Legations in Japan, with the exception of those belonging to countries which enforce restrictions upon the free entry of articles for the personal use of the Japanese Ambassador, Minister or such other envoy, or of articles for the official use of the Japanese Embassy or Legation. In the case of such countries a reciprocal arrangement shall be applied.
7 Articles for the personal use of the staff of the Embassies or Legations in

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Japan of countries where similar courtesy is extended to the staff of the Japanese Embassy or Legation, and articles for the official use of the Consulates in Japan of countries where similar courtesy is extended to the Japanese Consulates.

8 Decorations, medals and badges presented to persons resident in this country.

9 Records and other documents.

10 Articles that are imported for use as specimens or objects of reference in the schools, museums, commercial museums and other institutions maintained by the Government or a municipality, or in private schools designated by Ordinance, and for the importation of which permission of the Minister of Finance has been obtained.

11 Supplies contributed for the purpose of charity or relief, or articles contributed to orphan asylums, asylums for the old, charity hospitals and such other charity institutions and which are used for the direct purpose of charity.

11-b Articles of use for ceremony or worship contributed to a shrine, temple, church or chapel.

12 Articles of Government monopoly or materials to be used for manufacturing alcohol imported by the Government.

13 Samples of merchandise only fit for use as such.

14 Personal effects of travellers, and their professional tools and implements, which the Customs authorities consider proper in view of the personal status of such travellers.

15 Articles sent home by the Imperial military forces, warships, or official missions abroad.

16 Personal effects and household articles in transportation on account of the change of residence, provided such effects and articles have already been used.

17 Exported articles which are reimported within five years unaltered in character and form from what they were at the time of exportation, excepting alcohol, alcoholic liquors, sugar, and those articles which had been exempted from import duty or granted a rebate under the provisions of Article VIII or Article IX.

18 Receptacles specified by Ordinance for containing exports and which are reimported, excepting such as had been exempted from import duty under the provisions of Article VIII.

19 Fish, shell-fish, mollusca, sea animals, sea weeds and other aquatic products caught or gathered by vessels which set out from Japan, and manufactures thereof of a simple process, provided they are imported by such vessels or vessels attached thereto.

20 Articles for ship's use delivered to warships and mercantile vessels bound for foreign countries, except those mentioned in Article X.

21 Wreckage and fittings of shipwrecked Japanese vessels.

22 Articles exported on vessels clearing from Japan but which are brought back owing to the wreckage of such vessels, except those articles which had been exempted from import duty or granted a rebate under the provisions of Article VIII or Article IX.

23 Animals for breeding and protective serum or vaccine against animal plague, imported by the State, Do, Fu, Ken or other public bodies, by industrial juridical persons designated by the Government, or by persons under permission of the Government.

24 Aircrafts, or motors or propellers for aircrafts imported with Government permission in accordance with the provisions of Ordinance.

ARTICLE VIII The following articles are exempted from import duty in case they are to be re-exported within one year from the date of their importation, but the deposit of security corresponding to the amount of duty may be required at the time of importation:—

1 Articles designated by Ordinance and which are imported to have work done upon them.

2 Receptacles of imported articles, designated by Ordinance.

2-b Articles to be used as receptacles of export goods and designated by Ordinance.

3 Articles imported for repair.

4 Articles imported for the purpose of scientific research.

5 Articles imported for trial.

6 Samples imported for the purpose of procuring orders.

6-b Articles imported as samples of workmanship.

7 Articles for use in public performances imported by travelling public entertainers visiting Japan.

8 Articles imported for exhibiting at an exposition competition or prize

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show, etc.

ARTICLE IX Import duties on materials to be used for manufacturing export articles designated by Ordinance, may be exempted or refunded, wholly or partly, according to the provisions of the Ordinance.

Import duties on materials to be used for manufacturing hatter's fur, cellulose pulp, precious stones formed for mechanical or industrial purposes, lead foil for packing tea, zinc sheet not exceeding 0.17 millimetre, or oil or oil-cake designated by Ordinance may be exempted or refunded wholly or partly, according to the provisions of Ordinance.

In case import duties are exempted according to the provisions of the foregoing two paragraphs, the deposit of security corresponding to the amount of duties may be required at the time of importation.

Any person who obtains or attempts to obtain by fraud or other illegal means the refundment mentioned in the first or second paragraph of this Article, shall be dealt with according to the provisions of Article LXXV of Customs Law.

ARTICLE X Iron or steel materials, equipments, parts of equipments, engines or parts of engines, which are to be used for shipbuilding or repair, and which are designated by Ordinance, may be exempted from import duties according to the provisions of Ordinance.

ARTICLE XI The importation of the articles mentioned below is prohibited:—

1 Opium and utensils for smoking opium, excepting those imported by the Government.
2 Counterfeit, altered or imitation coins, paper money, bank-notes and negotiable papers.
3 Books, pictures, carvings and other articles, liable to injure public security or morals.
4 Articles wich infringe rights in patents, utility-models, designs and trademarks, and copyrights.

Supplementary provision to Law No. 56 of 1939.

The date on which this Law shall come into force shall be determined for each respective regulation by Imperial Ordinance. (By Imperial Ordinance No. 456 of 1939, this Law came into force on July 10th, 1939.)

IMPORT TARIFF OF THE PRINCIPAL COMMODITIES[1]

Where the duty number is marked *, it means that the articles in question are subject to the provisions of the Luxury Tariff Law.

The extra column for "Specific Duty etc.," is due to the fact that on June, 16, 1932, a law was passed providing that, with certain exceptions, "Specific duties . . . . . shall for the time being be assessed at the rate of 135 per cent."; the law was amended in 1933, 1935, 1936 and 1937. The figures in this extra column are calculated on this basis.

Nos.	Articles	Units	General Tariff Rates of Duty ¥	Specific Duty by Law No. 4, 1932 ¥
	GROUP I			
	Plants and Animals			
	(living)			
1	Plants, twigs, stems, stalks and roots (for planting or grafting)		free	
2	Fungi for culture:			
	1. Saccharifying fungi, known as "Koji"	ad val.	20%	
	2. Other		free	
3	Horses	,,	5%	
4	Bulls, oxen and cows	,,	10%	
5	Sheep		free	
6	Goats		free	
7	Swine	,,	20%	
8	Poultry		free	

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Nos.	Articles	Units	General Tariff Rates of Duty ¥	Specific Duty by Law No. 4, 1932 ¥
9	Fish, shellfish and mollusca:			
	1. Fry; shellfish or mollusca, seed and breeding, and roe		free	
	2. Other	ad val.	20%	
10	Bees		free	
10-2	Silkworms' eggs		free	
11	Animals, not otherwise provided for	,,	20%	

GROUP II

Grains, Flours, Starches and Seeds

12	Rice and paddy[1]	100 kin	1.00	1.35
13	Barley	,,	0.60	0.81
14	Pearl barley	,,	7.10	9.58
15	Malt	,,	2.70	3.64
16	Wheat	,,	2.50	
17	Oats	,,	0.65	0.87
17-2	Millet, (Setaria italica or Setaria italica var. germanica, Panicum miliaceum and Panicum Crus galli var, Frumentaceum)	,,	0.50	0.67
18	Millet, "Kao-liang" (Andropogon vulgaris)	,,	1.00	
19	Indian corn	,,	1.70	
20	Buckwheat	,,	0.50	0.67
21	Beans and pease:			
	1. Soy beans	,,	0.70	0.94
	2. Red or white beans, small (Phaseolus subtrilobata)	,,	0.55	0.74
	6. Ground nuts:			
	A. Unshelled	,,	1.25	1.68
	B. Other	,,	1.80	2.48
22	Flours, meals or groats of grains, and starches:			
	1. Wheat flour	,,	4.30	
	2. Oatmeal	,,	9.55	12.89
	5. Corn starch	,,	2.30	3.10
23	Sesame seed		free	
25	Rapeseed and mustardseed	,,	0.85	1.14
26	Linseed		free	
27	Cotton seed		free	
29	Seeds of clover and other pasturage		free	

1 According to the provisions of Article IX of the Rice Control Law, the import duty on rice and paddy shall be 2 yen per 100 kin up to December 31st, 1939 (Amended by Imperial Ordinance No. 781 of 1938).

GROUP III

Beverages, Comestibles and Tobacco

*31	Vegetables, fruits and nuts:			
	1. Preserved with sugar, molasses, syrup or honey	100 kin including receptacles	12.70	17.14

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Nos.	Articles	Units	General Tariff Rates of Duty ¥	Specific Duty by Law No. 4, 1932 ¥
	2. Other:			
	A. Vegetables			
	A-1. preserved in tin	,,	7.90	10.66
	A-2. preserved in bottle	,,	7.60	10.26
	A-3. preserved in jar	,,	1.95	2.63
	A-4. Other	ad val.	30%	
	B. Other:			
	B-1. preserved in tin	100 kin including receptacles	7.25	9.78
	Convention:—			
	Fruits preserved in tin			
	B-2. preserved in bottle	,,	8.50	11.47
	B-3. preserved in jar	,,	3.20	4.32
	B-4. Other:			
	a. Fresh fruits	100 kin	4.00	5.40
	Convention:—			
	Citrons			
	b. Dried fruits	,,	6.90	9.31
	c. Nuts	,,	7.85	10.59
	d. Other.	ad val.	30%	
31-2	Cocoanuts	100 kin	2.10	2.88
32	Tea:			
	1. Black tea	,,	88.10	118.93
	2. Black dust tea	,,	29.50	39.82
	3. Pouchong tea	,,	6.00	8.10
	4. Other	,,	10.60	14.31
34	Coffee:			
	1. In the bean	,,	15.10	20.38
	2. Other.	,,	25.10	33.88
35	Chicory and other coffee substitutes	ad val.	35%	
36	Cocoa (not sugared):			
	1. In the bean	100 kin	6.00	8.10
	2. Other	100 kin including receptacles	26.00	35.10
37	Pepper:			
	1. In the seed	100 kin	7.30	9.85
	2. Other	100 kin including receptacles	24.60	33.21
38	Curry:			
	1. In powder	,,	25.20	34.02
	2. Other	ad val.	30%	
39	Mustard:			
	1. In powder	100 kin including receptacles	23.30	31.45
	2. Other	ad val.	30%	
40	Sugar:[1]			
	1. Under No. 11 Dutch standard	100 kin	2.50	3.37
	2. Under No. 22 Dutch standard	,,	3.95	
	3. Other	,,	5.30	
	Rock candy sugar, cube sugar, loaf sugar, and similar sugar	,,	7.40	
42	Molasses:[1]			
	1. Containing not more than 60% by weight of sugar calculated as cane sugar	,,	1.30	1.75
	2. Other	,,	2.50	3.37

1. On sugar, molasses and syrups taken delivery of from the factories or bonded districts for the purpose of being consumed in the Empire, consumption tax shall be imposed.

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Nos.	Articles	Units	General Tariff Rates of Duty ¥	Specific Duty by Law No. 4, 1932 ¥
*45	Confectioneries and cakes	100 kin including receptacles	32.00	43.20
46	Jams, fruit jellies and the like	,,	26.30	35.50
47	Biscuits (not sugared)	,,	20.40	27.54
48	Macaroni, vermicelli and the like	100 kin	8.80	11.88
*49	Fruit-juices and syrups:			
	1. Fruits-juices (sugared) and syrups:			
	A. In bottle or tin	100 kin including receptacles	15.30	20.65
	B. Other	100 kin	10.70	14.44
	2. Other	100 kin including receptacles	11.00	14.85
50	Sauces:			
	1. In cask	100 kin	11.80	15.93
	2. Other	100 kin including receptacles	10.80	14.58
51	Vinegar	100 litres	18.00	24.30
52	Meats, poultry and game:			
	Preserved in tin, bottle or jar	ad val.	25%	
52-2	Fish, shellfish and mollusca:	,,	10-20%	
	Sardines in oil	100 kin	28.20	38.07
	Other	ad val.	20%	
53	Butter, artificial butter and ghee	100 kin	50.00	
54	Cheese	,,	39.30	53.05
55	Condensed milk:			
	1. Dried	100 kin including receptacles	25.00	
	2. Other	,,	15.70	
56	Infant foods	,,	24.30	32.80
57	Meat extract	,,	86.80	117.18
*60	Mineral waters, soda water, and similar beverages, not containing sugar or alcohol	100 litres	16.00	21.60
*63	Beer, ale, porter and stout	,,	16.40	22.14
64	Wines, including port, sherry, vermouth, madeira, marsala, St. Raphael, etc.:			
	In bottle	,,	81.90	110.56
65	Champagne and other sparkling wines	,,	170.00	229.50
66-2	Salt		free	
68	Tobacco:			
	Cigars, cigarettes and cut tobacco	ad val.	355%	

GROUP IV

Skins, Hairs, Bones, Horns, Teeth, Tusks, Shells and Manufactures thereof

*70	Fur manufactures, not otherwise provided for	ad val.	50%
*72	Leather:		
	1. A. Lacquered, japanned or enamelled:		
	a. Plain and black, tannin tanned	,,	40%

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Nos.	Articles	Units	General Tariff Rates of Duty ¥	Specific Duty by Law No. 4, 1932 ¥
	b. Other	ad val.	20%	
	B. Dyed or coloured, excluding roller leather	100 kin	145.00	195.75
	C-1, a. Sole leather: Back, bend, butt, strip	,,	27.10	36.58
	2. Of chamois including imitation chamois leather	,,	74.40	100.44
*73	Leather manufactures, not otherwise provided for: Belts, belting and hoses, for machinery	,,	37.20	50.22
79	Bones, animal, excluding those for medicinal use		free	
86	Shell of mollusca		free	
87	Tortoise shells		free	
*91	Pearls	ad val.	5%	
92	Sponges	,,	20%	

GROUP V

Oils, Fats, Waxes, and Manufactures thereof

100	Ground nut oil	100 kin	4.60	6.21
101	Soy bean oil	,,	2.50	3.37
102	Cotton seed oil	,,	4.45	
106	Cod-liver oil	ad val.	20%	
108	Animal fats:			
	1. Lard	100 kin	9.00	12.15
	2. Beef tallow	,,	1.20	1.62
112	Mineral oils:			
	1. Manufactured from coal or oil shale		Free	
	2. Other			
	A. Crude oil and heavy oil (residual):			
	The specific gravity at 15° C.:			
	a. Exceeding 0.934	1 kilolitre	6.75	
	b. Exceeding 0.904	,,	10.30	
	c. Exceeding 0.860	,,	18.00	
	d. Other	,,	23.40	
	Note. — Those containing more than 40%			
	B. Other, including those containing animal and vegetable oils or fats, soap, alcohol etc.: The specific gravity at 15° C.:			
	B-1. Not exceeding 0.8017	,,	46.20	
	B-2. Not exceeding 0.8498	,,	41.00	
	B-3. Other	,,	71.30	
113	Vaseline:			
	1. Each weighing not more than 1 kilogramme including receptacles	100 kin	15.90	21.46

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Nos.	Articles	Units	General Tariff Rates of Duty ¥	Specific Duty by Law No. 4, 1932 ¥
	2. Other	100 kin	3.50	4.72
114	Paraffin wax:			
	1. In crude form, separated from shale oil		free	
	2. Other	,,		
	A. Having melting point up to 45° C.:		6.00	
	B. Other		12.00	16.20
*117	Soaps:			
	1. Perfumed	100 kin including inner packings	28.60	38.61
	2. Other	100 kin	5.70	7.69

GROUP VI

Drugs, Chemicals, Medicines, Compounds or Preparations thereof, and Explosives

143	Crude india-rubber, crude guttapercha and substitutes thereof		free	
144	Gum arabic, shellac, rosin, and other gums and gum resins, not otherwise provided for excluding those for medicinal use		free	
164	Caustic soda and caustic potash:			
	1. Refined	100 kin	12.80	17.28
	2. Other	,,	1.50	2.02
165	Soda ash and natural soda	,,	0.35	0.47
168	Nitrate of soda (Chili saltpetre):			
	1. Refined	ad val.	20%	
	2. Other		free	
174	Nitrate of potash (saltpetre)	100 kin	3.05	4.11
175	Chloride of and sulphate of potash:			
	1. Refined	ad val.	20%	
	2. Other		free	
176	Chlorate of potash	100 kin	4.20	
177	Bichromate of potash and bichromate of soda	,,	5.10	6.88
189	Sulphate of ammonium:			
	1. Refined	ad val.	20%	
	2. Other		free	
190	Carbonate of ammonium and bicarbonate of ammonium	100 kin	3.45	4.65
193	Acetate of calcium	,,	0.41	0.55
195	Formalin	,,	5.10	6.88
196	Wood spirit or methyl alcohol		free	
197	Alcohol	1 litre	1.20	1.62
197-2	Denatured alcohol	,,	1.20	1.62
198	Glycerin	100 kin	18.00	24.30
200	Rongalite, blankit, decrolin and similar reducing agents		23.70	31.99
202	Milk sugar		11.20	15.12
204	Naphthalin		free	

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Nos.	Articles	Units	General Tariff Rates of Duty ₹	Specific Duty by Law No. 4, 1932 ₹
208	Chemical products derived from coal-tar distillates (excluding carbolic acid, salicylic acid, bakelite, medicines and flavours other than benzaldehyde, nitrobenzol and nitrotoluol):			
	1. Aniline and aniline-salt	100 kin	14.50	19.57
	2. Beta-naphthol	„	18.70	25.24
	3. Oxynaphthoic acid and its derivatives	„	100.00	135.00
	4. Other	ad val.	35%	
209-2	Antipyrin	100 kin.	258.00	
209-3	Dimethylaminoantipyrine	„	487.00	
212	Hydrochlorate of quinine	„	135.00	182.25
212-2	Sulphate of quinine	„	60.00	81.00
217	Casein		free	
*222	Tooth powders, tooth washes, toilet powders, and other prepared perfumeries, not otherwise provided for	„	50%	
228	Gelatin capsules	100 kin including inner packings	90.20	121.77
228-2	Wafers	ad val.	30%	
229	Drugs, chemicals and medicines, not otherwise provided for	„	20%	
230	Compounds or preparations of drugs, chemicals and medicines, not otherwise provided for	„	30%	
231	Explosives:			
	1. Gunpowder	100 kin	29.50	39.82
	2. Dynamite	„	11.00	14.85
	3. Detonators	100 kin including inner packings	37.00	49.95
	4. Fuses	100 kin	37.40	50.49
	5. Other	ad val.	30%	
232	Cartridges, loaded with explosives:			
	1. With bullets or shots:			
	A. Of metal shells	100 kin including inner packings	48.80	65.88
	B. Other	„	27.10	36.58
	2. Other	ad val.	30%	
233	Projectiles, loaded with explosives	„	30%	

GROUP VII

Dyes, Pigments, Coatings, and Filling matters

236	Indigo, natural:			
	1. Dry	100 kin	33.70	45.49
	2. In liquid or paste	ad val.	20%	
240	Logwood extract	100 kin	1.85	2.49
242	Artificial indigo	„	40.00	54.00

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Nos.	Articles	Units	General Tariff Rates of Duty ¥	Specific Duty by Law No. 4, 1932 ¥
243	Synthetic colours, not otherwise provided for:			
	1. Basic colours	100 kin	155.00	209.25
	2. Direct cotton colours	„	107.00	144.45
	3. Acid colours	„	135.00	182.25
	4. Mordant colours and acid mordant colours	„	108.00	145.80
	5. Sulphide colours	„	78.00	105.30
	6. Vat colours	„	188.00	253.80
	7. Oil soluble colours	„	100.00	135.00
	8. Other	ad val.	35%	
249	White lead, red lead and litharge	100 kin	2.80	3.78
255	Carbon black	„	3.40	
256	Lacquer	„	6.80	9.18
257	Varnishes	„	19.40	26.19
258-2	Coal-tar		free	
259	Pitch and asphalt	„	0.40	
259-2	Manufactures of coal-tar, of pitch or of asphalt for construction or repair of road	„	0.40	
260	Shoe polishes	100 kin including receptacles	13.60	18.36
261	Pencils:			
	1. Not cased (slender strips of graphite or of colours)	ad val.	20%	
	2. Other, excluding those with metal sheaths:			
	A. Cased with wood or paper	1 gross	1.45	1.95
	B. Other	ad val.	25%	
262	Inks:			
	1. For copying or writing	100 kin including receptacles	8.35	11.27
	2. For printing:			
	A. In liquid or paste:			
	A-1. In barrel:			
	a. Black	100 kin	3.45	4.65
	b. Other	ad val.	25%	
	A-2. Other	100 kin including receptacles	21.50	29.02
	B. Solid	100 kin	111.00	149.85
	3. Other	ad val.	25%	
266	Paints:			
	1. Copper paints, international compositions, anticorrosive paints, and similar ship's bottom paints	100 kin	7.45	10.05

GROUP VIII

Yarns, Threads, Twines, Cordages, and Materials thereof

271	Cotton in the seed or ginned, including carded or combed cotton		free	
272	Cotton yarns (excluding special cotton yarns, otherwise pro-			

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Nos.	Articles	Units	General Tariff Rates of Duty ¥	Specific Duty by Law No. 4, 1932 ¥
	vided for):			
	1. Single or two fold:			
	A. Gray, including gassed yarns:			
	a. Not exceeding No. 24 English	100 kin	3.75	
	b. Not exceeding No. 42 English	"	4.15	
	c. Not exceeding No. 60 English	"	6.15	
	d. Not exceeding No. 80 English	"	7.15	
	e. Other	"	7.35	
	B. Bleached simply	Duty on gray yarn with an addition of 1 yen per 100 kin*		
	C. Other	Duty on gray yarn with an addition of 3 yen per 100 kin**		
	2. Other:			
	A. Gray, including gassed yarns	100 kin	39.20	
	B. Other	"	41.20	
272·2	Special cotton yarns:			
	1. Unusually twisted yarns, including voile yarns, crape yarns exceeding No. 42 English, etc.		free	
	2. Mule cop yarns, single		free	
	3. Yarns exceeding No. 100 English		free	
273	Cotton twines not exceeding 3 grammes per 10 metres, and cotton threads:			
	1. In skein, gray	100 kin	39.20	52.92
	2. Reeled on wooden spool	100 kin including spools	70.10	94.63
	3. Other	ad val.	30%	
274	Flax, China-graas, ramie, hemp, jute, and other vegetable fibres not otherwise provided for		free	
375	Linen yarns:			
	1. Single:			
	A. Gray	100 kin	10.75	14.51
	B. Other	"	11.40	15.39
	2. Other:			
	A. Gray	"	40.90	55.21
	B. Other	"	44.90	60.61
279	Hemp yarns	ad val.	10%	
280	Jute yarns	"	10%	
282	Sheep's wool, goat's hair and camel's hair:			
	1. Carded or combed	100 kin	14.50	19.57
	2. Other:		free	

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Nos.	Articles	Units	General Tariff Rates of Duty ¥	Specific Duty by Law No. 4, 1932 ¥
283	Woollen or worsted yarns:			
	1. Undyed or unprinted:			
	A. Yarns made by twisting woollen and worsted yarns together	,,	33.10	
	B. Yarns made by twisting those of different number together and loop yarns	,,	33.10	
	C. Other:			
	C-1. Worsted:			
	a. Not exceeding No. 32 metric	,,	27.70	
	b. Other	,,	32.40	
	C-2. Woollen	,,	22.50	
	2. Other	Duty on undyed or unprinted yarns with an addition of 2.50 yen per 100 kin		
284	Mixed yarns of cotton and wool:	100 kin	17.50	
	1. Undyed or unprinted	Duty on undyed or unprinted yarns with an addition of 3.00 yen per 100 kin		
	2. Other			
287	Raw silk, including thrown silk:			
	1. Wild silk		free	
	2. Other	ad val.	25%	
288	Spun silk yarns:			
	1. Of wild silk		free	
	2. Other	ad val.	30%	
289	Silk threads	,,	30%	
290	Artificial silk	100 kin	75.00	

GROUP IX

Tissues and Manufactures thereof

298	Tissues of cotton:			
	1. Velvets, plushes and other pile tissues, piles cut or uncut	100 kin	83.10	112.18
	2. Tissues woven with chenille threads	ad val.	20%	
	3. Flannels and other raised tissues	100 kin	29.50	39.82
	4. Crêpes	ad val.	20%	
	5. Gauze tissues	,,	20%	
	6. Tissues interwoven with laces	,,	20%	
*301	Tissues of wool, and mixed tissues of wool and cotton, of wool and silk, or of wool, cotton and silk:			
	1. Velvets, plushes and other pile tissues, with piles, cut or uncut:			

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Nos.	Articles	Units	General Tariff Rates of Duty ¥	Specific Duty by Law No. 4, 1932 ¥
	A. Partly of silk	100 kin	180.00	243.00
	B. Other	,,	50.00	67.50
	2. Other			
	A. Of wool			
	b. Weighing not more than 200 grammes per square metre	,,	97.50	131.62
	c. Weighing not more than 500 grammes per square metre	,,	90.00	121.50
	B. Of wool and cotton:			
	b. Weighing not more than 200 grammes per square metre	,,	52.50	70.87
	c. Weighing not more than 500 grammes per square metre	,,	60.40	81.54
*303	Silk tissues, and silk mixed tissues: 1-A Of silk	,,	520.00	702.00
*305	Stockinet and similar knitted tissues, raised or not:			
	1. Wholly or partly of silk	ad val.	45%	
307	Felts:			
	1. Of wool, or wool and cotton	100 kin	90.50	122.17
	2. Other	ad val.	25%	
*308	Embroidered tissues	,,	40%	
309	Bookbinders' cloth	100 kin	34.00	45.90
314	Leather cloth or oil cloth	,,	44.00	59.40
315	Oil cloth for floor, or linoleum	,,	11.40	15.39
318	Emery cloth, including glass cloth	,,	7.85	10.59
*319	Waterproof tissues coated or inserted with india rubber:			
	1. Wholly or partly of silk	ad val.	40%	
	2. Other	100 kin	58.20	78.57
323	Typewriter ribbons	ad val.	25%	
*324	Handkerchiefs, single:			
	1. Of cotton	100 doz.	48.70	65.74
	2. Of flax	,,	83.70	112.99
	3. Of flax and cotton	ad val.	25%	
	4. Wholly or partly of silk	,,	50%	
	5. Other	,,	25%	
325	Towels, single:			
	1. Of cotton	100 kin	78.10	105.43
	2. Other	ad val.	25%	
326	Blankets, single	100 kin	49.20	66.42
*327	Travelling rugs, single:			
	1. Wholly or partly of silk	,,	232.00	313.20
	2. Other	,,	139.00	187.65
332	Mosquito nets	ad val.	35%	
337	Woven belting for machinery and woven hoses:			
	1. Of cotton	100 kin	47.50	64.12
	2. Other	ad val.	20%	
339	Gunny bags	100 kin	2.55	3.44
341	Rags		free	

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Nos.	Articles	Units	General Tariff Rates of Duty ¥	Specific Duty by Law No. 4, 1932 ¥
	GROUP X			
	Clothing and Accessories thereof			
*344	Raincoats:			
	1. Wholly or partly of silk	ad val.	50%	
	2. Other	100 kin	312.00	421.20
*345	Shirts, fronts, collars and cuffs	„	134.00	180.90
*346	Undershirts and drawers:			
	1. Knitted:	„	166.00	224.10
	A. Of cotton	ad val.	25%	
	B. Of wool, or wool and cotton	„	50%	
	C. Wholly or partly of silk			
	D. Other	„	25%	
	2. Other:			
	A. Wholly or partly of silk	„	50%	
	B. Other	„	35%	
*347	Gloves:			
	1. Of leather	100 kin	450.00	607.50
	2. Of leather and other materials except silk	„	179.00	241.65
	3. Of cotton, of flax, of cotton and flax, of wool or of wool and cotton	„	226.00	305.10
	4. Wholly or partly of silk	„	949.00	1,281.15
	5. Of india rubber	ad val.	25%	
	6. Other	„	40%	
*348	Stockings and socks:			
	1. Of cotton, of wool or of wool and cotton	100 kin	232.00	313.20
	2. Of flax or of cotton and flax	„	138.00	186.30
	3. Wholly or partly of silk	ad val.	50%	
	4. Other	„	40%	
*349	Shawls, comforters and mufflers:			
	1. Mufflers:			
	A. Of silk	100 kin	853.00	1,151.55
	B. Partly of silk	„	530.00	715.50
	C. Other	ad val.	40%	
	2. Other:			
	A. Of cotton, of flax, of China grass, of wool or of wool and cotton	100 kin	159.00	214.65
	B. Of silk	„	750.00	1,012.50
	C. Partly of silk excluding those combined with furs or feathers	„	400.00	540.00
	D. Wholly or partly of furs or feathers	ad val.	50%	
	E. Other	„	40%	
*350	Neckties:			
	1. Wholly or partly of silk	1 kin	11.40	15.39
	2. Other	„	3.55	4.79
*354	Hats and hat bodies, caps, bonnets and hoods:			
	2. Other:			
	A-a. Silk hats and opera hats	1 doz.	28.80	38.88
	B-1. felt hats			
	a. Of sheep's wool	„	7.50	10.12

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Nos.	Articles	Units	General Tariff Rates of Duty	Specific Duty by Law No. 4, 1932
			¥	¥
	b. Other	1 doz.	15.80	21.33
*355	Boots, shoes, slippers, sandals, clogs, and the like:			
	1. Boots:			
	A. Of leather	100 kin	134.00	180.90
	B. Of india-rubber	,,	65.70	88.69
	C. Other	ad val.	40%	
	2. Shoes:			
	A. Of leather	100 kin	135.00	182.25
	B. Of canvas or duck:			
	a. With leather sole	,,	86.70	117.04
	b. Other	,,	57.80	78.03
	C. Wholly or partly of silk	ad val.	50%	
	D. Other	,,	40%	
	5. Slippers:			
	A. Of leather	,,	119.00	160.65
	B. Of tissues:			
	B-1. Wholly or partly of silk	,,	50%	
	B-2. Of felt:			
	a. With leather sole	100 kin	76.40	103.14
	b. Other	ad val.	40%	
	B-3. Other	,,	40%	
	C. Other	,,	40%	
357	Buttons, excluding those made of or combined with precious metals, metals coated with precious metals, precious stones, semi-precious stones, pearls, corals, elephant's ivory or tortoise shells:			
	1. Buttons for cuffs or shirts	,,	35%	
	2. Other:			
	A. Covered	100 kin including inner packings	137.00	184.95
	B. Of metal	,,	54.50	73.57
	C. Of porcelain or glass	ad val.	35%	
	D. Of ivory nut, including imitations	,,	35%	
	E. Of bone or horn	,,	35%	
	F. Other	,,	35%	
*359	Jewellery for personal adornment	ad val.	50%	

GROUP XI

Cellulose pulp, Papers, Paper manufactures, Books, and Pictures

361	Cellulose pulp:			
	1. Mechanical pulp	100 kin	0.22	
	2. Other	,,	0.27	
362	Printing paper:			
	1. Art paper	,,	6.60	8.91
	2. Other:			
	A. Coloured in the paste	,,	1.55	2.09
	B. Other:			

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Nos.	Articles	Units	General Tariff Rates of Duty ¥	Specific Duty by Law No. 4, 1932 ¥
	a. Weighing not more than 58 grammes per square metre	100 kin	free	
	b. Other	,,	2.20	
363	Writing paper	,,	4.55	6.14
364	Drawing paper	,,	7.50	10.12
365	Blotting paper	,,	4.90	6.61
367	Packing paper and match paper, excluding tissue paper	,,	2.40	
370	Pasteboard or cardboard	,,	1.75	2.36
372	Imitation Japanese paper and tissue paper	,,	3.25	4.38
*373	Imitation parchment, paraffin paper and wax paper			
	1. Covered with, or with application of metal foil or metal powder, embossed or printed	,,	3.85	5.19
	2. Other	,,	3.20	4.32
382	Note paper in box	100 kin including boxes	30.30	40.90
383	Envelopes:			
	1. In box, including those accompanying note paper	100 kin including boxes	31.60	42.66
	2. Other	ad val.	30%	
386	Baryta paper, albuminized paper and sensitized papers for photograph:			
	1. Baryta paper	100 kin including inner packings	8.55	11.54
	2. Albuminized paper	,,	85.60	115.56
	3. Bromide paper and platinum paper	,,	134.00	180.90
	4. Other	ad val.	40%	
387	Carbon paper	100 kin	27.30	36.85
*390	Playing cards	,,	113.00	152.55
391	Photographs	ad val.	50%	
393	Card calendars and block calendars	,,	50%	
*394	Picture post-cards	100 kin	52.40	70.74
*395	Christmas cards and the like	ad val.	50%	

GROUP XII

Minerals and Manufactures thereof

405-2	Carborundum, alundum and similar artificial mineral substance for grinding or polishing	100 kin	2.10	2.83
406	Grindstones or whetstones:			
	1. Artificial	,,	21.50	29.02
	2-B. Other	ad val.	10%	
*412	Precious stones:			

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Nos.	Articles	Units	General Tariff Rates of Duty ¥	Specific Duty by Law No. 4, 1932 ¥
	1. Formed, for mechanical or industrial purposes	ad val.	5%	
	2. Others	,,	10%	
*413	Semi-precious stones, and manufactures thereof not otherwise provided for:	,,	5–50%	
418	Asbestos, and manufactures thereof not otherwise provided for:			
	1. In lump, powder or fibre		free	
	2. Yarn	100 kin	15.00	
	3. Board:			
	A. Mixed with india-rubber	,,	15.00	
	B. Other	,,	4.05	5.46
	4. Other	,,	30.00	
429	Coal		free	
430	Cokes	10,000 kin	5.65	7.62
432	Portland cement, Roman cement, puzzolana cement, and similar hydraulic cements	100 kin	0.15	0.20
433	Manufactures of cement:			
	1. Board, for roofing or wall (including tiles)	ad val.	30%	
	2. Other			
	A. Unpolished, uncoated or uncoloured	,,	30%	
	B. Other	,,	35%	

GROUP XIII

Potteries, Glass and Glass Manufactures

436	Bricks, excluding cement bricks:			
	1. Fire bricks	100 kin	0.45	0.60
	2. Other:			
	A. Glazed or coloured	ad val.	20%	
	B. Other:			
	a. Perforated	,,	15%	
	b. Other	,,	15%	
437-2	Alundum tiles and the like	,,	20%	
443	Glass rods and glass tubes:			
	1. Of fused silica	,,	15%	
	2. Other	100 kin	18.00	24.30
444	Plate or sheet glass:	100 sq. metres	11.80–220.00	15.93–297.00
445	Plate glass having inlaid metal wire or net	,,	55.20	74.52
448	Spectacle glass, cast or cut	ad val.	30%	
449	Optical lenses or prisms, without frames or handles:			
	1. Unpolished	,,	20%	
	2. Other	,,	30%	
452	Dry plates for photograph:			
	1. Undeveloped	100 kin including inner packings	33.00	44.55
	2. Other	ad val.	30%	
*453	Spectacles and eyeglasses:		35–50%	
*454	Looking glasses or mirrors:		35–50%	

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Nos.	Articles	Units	General Tariff Rates of Duty ¥	Specific Duty by Law No. 4, 1932 ¥
	GROUP XIV			
	Ores and Metals			
458	Ores (including those calcined), matte, bottom and slag		free	
459	Platinum, iridium, osmium, palladium, rhodium, indium and ruthenium		free	
460	Gold:			
	1. Ingots, slabs, grains, plates, sheets and bands		free	
	2. Tubes and wire	ad val.	20%	
	3. Foils	„	25%	
	4. Waste or old, fit only for re-manufacturing		free	
461	Silver:			
	1. Ingots, slabs, plates, sheets and bands		free	
	2. Tubes and wire	„	20%	
	3. Foils	„	25%	
	4. Waste or old, fit only for re-manufacturing		free	
462	Iron (excluding special steel, otherwise provited for):			
	1. In lumps, ingots, blooms, billets and slabs:			
	A. Pig iron	100 kin	0.36	
	B. Spiegeleisen, ferro-manganese and other non-malleable iron alloys	ad val.	10%	
	C. Other:			
	C-1. Sheet bars, including tinplate bars	100 kin	0.50	0.67
	C-2. Other	ad val.	15%	
	2. Bars or rods, including those having such a shape, as T. angle, etc.	100 kin	1.10	1.48
	3. Rails (including fish-plates)	„	0.95	1.28
	4. Wire rods, in coils	„	1.30	
	5. Plates and sheets:			
	A. Not coated with metals:			
	A-1. Not exceeding 0.7 millimetre in thickness:			
	a. Silicon steel sheets, containing not less than 1% by weight of silicon	„	0.30	0.40
	b. Other	„	1.95	2.63
	A-2. Not exceeding 3 millimetres in thickness	„	1.40	1.89
	A-3. Other	100 kin	1.10	1.48
	B. Coated with base metals:			
	B-1. Tinned (tinned iron sheets and tinned steel sheets)	„	0.70	0.94
	B-2. Galvanized	„	2.85	3.84

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Nos.	Articles	Units	General Tariff Rates of Duty ¥	Specific Duty by Law No. 4, 1932 ¥
	B-3. Other	ad val.	20%	
	6. Wires, coated or not with base metals	,,	25%	
	11. Wire ropes and twisted wires, coated or not with base metals	100 kin	5.50	7.42
	13. Pipes and tubes, not otherwise provided for:			
	A. Not coated with metals;			
	A-1. Elbows and joints	ad val.	18%	
	A-2. Other:			
	a. Cast	100 kin	1.00	1.35
	b. Other:			
	b-1. Not exceeding 150 millimetres in inner diameter	ad val.	18%	
	b-2. Other	,,	15%	
	B. Coated with base metals	,,	20%	
	14. Waste or old, fit only for re-manufacturing		free	
462-2	Special steel:	,,	18%	
462-3	Pipes and tubes, of iron		free	
463	Aluminium and aluminium alloys:			
	1. Ingots, slabs and grains	100 kin	17.70	
	2. Bars or rods, plates and sheets	,,	38.30	
	3. Wires and tubes	ad val.	25%	
	4. Foils	100 kin including inner packings	55.80	
	5. Waste or old, fit only for re-manufacturing	100 kin	17.70	
463-2	Magnesium and magnesium alloy		49.50	
464	Copper	,,	7.00–21.20	
465	Lead:			
	Ingots and slabs	,,	0.40	
466	Tin:			
	Ingots and slabs	,,	3.75	
467	Zinc:			
	Ingots, slabs and grains	,,	3.00	
468	Nickel:			
	Ingots and grains	,,	free	
471	Brass and bronze:			
	Ingots rnd slabs		7.00	

GROUP XV

Metal Manufactures

477	Nails, wood screws, bolts, nuts, rivets, and the like, excluding those made of, or combined or coated with precious metals:			
	1. Iron nails:			
	Not coated with metals	100 kin	2.40	3.24
	3. Iron wood screws	,,	5.85	7.89
	4. Brass wood screws and bronze wood screws	,,	31.80	42.93

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Nos.	Articles	Units	General Tariff Rates of Duty ₹	Specific Duty by Law No. 4, 1932 ₹
	5. Iron bolts, iron nuts and iron washers	,,	3.70	4.99
	6. Iron rivets	,,	3.65	4.92
479	Metal nets or nettings	,,	5.85–74.90	7.89–101.11
482	Materials for railway construction, not otherwise provided for:			
	1. Tie-plates and sleepers	,,	2.15	2.90
	2. Other	ad val.	25%	
483	Posts and other materials for suspending electric lines, not otherwise provided for:			
	1. Posts and parts thereof	ad val.	18%	
	2. Other:			
	A. Of iron	100 kin	12.40	16.74
	B. Other	,,	29.20	39.42
484	Materials for construction of buildings, bridges, vessels, docks, etc., not otherwise provided for:			
	1. Solely of iron including those coated with base metals	,,	3.60	4.86
	2. Other	ad val.	25%	
485–2	Iron cylinders for filling compressed gases	100 kin	4.25	5.73
*491	Chains for watches, spectacles, eyeglasses or other personal adornment:			
	1. Of gold or platinum	,,	50%	
	2. Gilt	1 kin	18.00	24.30
	3. Other	ad val.	50%	
496	Mechanics' tools, agricultural implements and parts thereof, not otherwise provided for:	100 kin	4.75–44.30	6.41–59.80
497	Drills, bits, reamers and screw taps, not having handles or frames	ad val.	24%	
*499	Cutlery, not otherwise provided for:			
	1. Made of, or combined or coated with precious metals	,,	50%	
	2. Other:			
	A. Pocket knives:			
	a. With handles made of or combined with elephant's ivory, mother of pearl or tortoise shells, or enamelled	100 pieces	20.90	28.21
	b. Other	,,	15.10	20.38
	B. Table knives:			
	a. With handles made of or combined with elephant's ivory, mother of pearl or tortoise shells, or enamelled	,,	47.40	63.99
	b. Other	,,	15.20	20.52
	C. Razors:			
	a. With handles	,,	40.40	54.54
	b. Other:			

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Nos.	Articles	Units	General Tariff Rates of Duty ¥	Specific Duty by Law No. 4, 1932 ¥
	b-1. Safety-razor blades	,,	1.00	
	b-2. Other	ad val.	35%	
	D. Other	,,	35%	
*500	Table forks or spoons:			
	1. Made of, or combined or coated with precious metals	,,	50%	
	2. Other:			
	A. Forks	100 pieces	12.90	17.41
	B. Spoons	100 kin	158.00	213.30
505	Sewing or knitting needles, and pins, excluding those for personal adornment:			
	1. Hand-sewing needles	,,	191.00	257.85
	2. Sewing machine needles	,,	464.00	626.40
	3. Knitting machine needles	,,	249.00	336.15
	4. Other	ad val.	30%	
506	Pens:			
	1. Of gold	1 doz.	6.70	9.04
	2. Other	1 gross	0.25	0.33
515	Electric stoves, electric smoothing iron and similar electric heaters	ad val.	35%	
517	Bedsteads and parts thereof	100 kin	15.80	21.33
518	Safes and cash boxes	ad val.	35%	
522	Manufactures of copper, brass or bronze, not otherwise provided for:			
	1. Coated with base metals	,,	35%	
	2. Other	100 kin	127.00	171.45
524	Iron manufactures, not otherwise provided for:			
	1. Enamelled	,,	23.00	31.05
	2. Coated with base metals	ad val.	35%	
	3. Other:			
	A. Cast:			
	a. Each weighing not more than 5 kilogrammes	100 kin	19.60	26.46
	b. Each weighing not more than 50 kilogrammes	,,	10.20	13.77
	c. Other	,,	7.80	10.53
	B. Other:			
	a. Each weighing not more than 5 kilogrammes	,,	45.10	60.88
	b. Each weighing not more than 50 kilogrammes	,,	20.70	27.94
	c. Other	,,	14.00	18.90

GROUP XVI

Clocks, Watches, Scientific instruments, Fire arms, Vehicles, Vessels and Machinery

*526	Watches	1 piece	1.05–15.90	1.75–21.46
*527	Parts of watches:			
	1. Cases, including those having glasses	,,	0.40–15.00	0.54–20.25

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Nos.	Articles	Units	General Tariff Rates of Duty ¥	Specific Duty by Law No. 4, 1932 ¥
*533	Binoculars and monoculars	1 kin	3.00-15.00	4.05-20.25
534	Telescopes			
	1. Each weighing not more than 1 kilogramme	,,	3.10	4.18
	1. Other	ad val.	20%	
535	Microscopes and parts thereof		20%	
537	Balances, with weights or not:			
	1. Platform balances	,,	15%	
	2. Other	,,	20%	
541	Thermometers:			
	1. Clinical thermometers, in case or not:			
	A. With enclosed scale	1 kin including cases	2.30	3.10
	B. Other	,,	6.60	8.91
	2. Other	ad val.	20%	
542	Barometers:			
	1. Barographs	,,	20%	
	2. Aneroid barometers	100 kin	107.00	144.45
	3. Other	ad val.	20%	
550-3	Typewriters and parts thereof	100 kin	94.00	126.90
551	Philosophical instruments and parts thereof, not otherwise provided for	ad val.	20%	
552	Magic lanterns, cinematograph projectors and parts thereof	,,	40%	
*553	Photographic instruments:			
	1. For cinematographs	,,	40%	
	2. For microscopes or aircraft	,,	20%	
	3. Other	,,	50%	
*554	Parts of photographic instruments:			
	1. Lenses	,,	30%	
	2. Cameras:			
	A. For cinematographs	,,	40%	
	B. For microscopes or aircrafts	,,	20%	
	C. Other	,,	50%	
	3. Screens for half-tone process	,,	20%	
	4. Other	,,	50%	
*555	Phonographs, gramophones and other talking machines	,,	50%	
*556	Parts and accessories of phonographs, gramophones and other talking machines:			
	1. Discs or cylinders for music:			
	A. With music recorded thereon	100 kin	74.30	100.30
	B. Other	,,	57.40	77.49
	2. Other	ad val.	50%	
557	Musical instruments:			
	1. Pianos:			
	A. Grand	100 kin	86.70	117.04
	B. Other	,,	60.90	82.21
	2. Organs	,,	57.40	77.49
	3. Harmonicas	100 pieces	25.00	33.75
	4. Other	ad val.	40%	

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Nos.	Articles	Units	General Tariff Rates of Duty ¥	Specific Duty by Law No. 4, 1932 ¥
559	Telegraphic or telephonic instruments and parts thereof, not otherwise provided for:			
	1. Radio receiving sets and parts thereof	,,	40%	
	2. Other	,,	20%	
560	Fire-arms and parts thereof:			
	1. Rifles and sporting guns	ad val.	40%	
	2. Pistols or revolvers	1 piece	5.35	7.22
	3. Other	ad val.	40%	
561	Railway carriages and other vehicles, running on rails, not otherwise provided for	,,	30%	
563	Automobiles	,,	70%	
565	Cycles:			
	1. Motor-cycles:			
	A. With motive machinery	1 piece	93.60	126.36
	B. Other	,,	77.60	104.76
	2. Other	,,	25.80	34.83
567	Vehicles and parts thereof, not otherwise provided for	ad val.	35%	
568	Vessels:			
	1. Propelled by mechanical power or sails, excluding those whose capacity is not to be measured by tonnage:			
	A. Not exceeding 20 years of ship's age	1 gross ton	15.00	20.25
	B. Other	,,	20.00	27.00
	2. Other	ad val.	15%	
569	Steam boilers (mechanical stokers are subject to the rate under No. 571):			
	1. Of cast iron	100 kin	5.00	6.75
	2. Other	,,	8.00	10.80
571	Mechanical stokers	,,	6.10	8.23
571-2	Fuel economizers	,,	3.35	4.52
573	Locomotives and tenders, running on rails:			
	1. Locomotives:			
	A. Propelled by steam power	,,	12.00	16.20
	B. Other	,,	15.90	21.46
	2. Tenders	ad val.	20%	
574	Steam locomotives not running on rails and portable steam engines	100 kin	10.40	14.04
577	Internal combustion engines: For cycles	ad val.	35%	
579	Dynamos, electric motors, rotary converters, frequency changers, rotary phase converters and armatures	100 kin	15.80-42.40	21.33-57.24
579-2	Transformers	,,	7.00-26.00	9.45-35.10
588	Sewing machines:			
	1. Without stands, including tops of sewing machines	,,	16.30	22.00
	2. Other	,,	11.10	14.98
591	Pumps, not otherwise provided for:	,,	10.10-18.70	13.63-25.24

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Nos.	Articles	Units	General Tariff Rates of Duty ¥	Specific Duty by Law No. 4, 1932 ¥
596	Metal or wood working machinery, not otherwise provided for, including rolling machines, drawing machines, nail-making machines, moulding machines, flanging machines, rivetting machines, etc.	"	8.00-84.40	10.80-113.94
597	Spinning machines, preparatory machines for spinning or weaving, and yarn finishing or twisting machines, including ginning machines, scouring machines, bundling machines, etc.	"	6.90	9.31
598	Weaving looms:			
	1. Of metal	"	5.85	7.89
	2. Other	ad val.	15%	
599	Tissue finishing machines	100 kin	10.70	14.44
600	Knitting machines:			
	1. Each weighing not more than 500 kilogrammes	"	43.80	59.13
	2. Other	"	25.60	34.56
602	Paper making machines and preparatory machines for paper making	ad val.	20%	
603	Printing machines:			
	1. Each weighing not more than 250 kilogrammes	"	20%	
	2. Other	100 kin	16.50	22.27

GROUP XVII

Miscellaneous Articles

*612	Wood:			
	A-2. Tagayasan (Baryxylum rufum, Lour), red or rose wood, red sandal wood and ebony wood (excluding ebony wood with white streaks)	100 kin	0.50	0.67
	D. Mahogany	ad val.	5%	
	E. Oak	"	5%	
	F. Pine, fir, cedar, and other conifers:			
	F-2. Chamæcyparis (white cedar, yellow cedar, etc.)	1 cubic metre	5.40-9.85	7.29-13.29
	F-3. Thuja (red cedar, etc.) and Tsuga (hemlock, etc.)	"	3.30-6.25	4.45-8.43
	F-4. Abies (todomatsu, etc.), Picea (ezomatsu, spruce, etc.), Pinus (benimatsu, etc.), and Larix (karamatsu, etc.)	"	2.70-4.45	3.64-6.00
	F-5. Other (Douglas fir, etc.)	"	free-6.90	

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Nos.	Articles	Units	General Tariff Rates of Duty ¥	Specific Duty by Law No. 4, 1932 ¥
619	Carbon for electrical use, not otherwise provided for:			
	1. In powder or granule	100 kin	8.30	11.20
	2. Other:			
	A. Each weighing not more than 300 grammes	ad val.	20%	
	B. Other	100 kin	8.30	11.20
*624	Umbrella sticks, walking sticks, whips and their handles	ad val.	40-50%	
*625	Umbrellas and parasols:			
	1. Wholly or partly of silk	,,	50%	
	2. Of paper	100 pieces	12.20	16.47
	3. Other	ad val.	35%	
630	Waste or old india-rubber and gutta-percha, fit only for re-manufacturing		free	
632	Celluloid and manufactures thereof, not otherwise provided for:			
	1. In lumps, bands, bars, or rods, plates, sheets, tubes, etc.	100 kin	56.00	75.60
	2. Combs	100 kin including inner packings	355.00	479.25
	3. Other	ad val.	35%	
632-2	Waste or old celluloid, fit only for re-manufacturing	100 kin	56.00	
*634	Brushes and brooms:	ad val.	35-50%	
635	Lamps, lanterns and parts thereof	,,	20-40%	
*636	Films for photographs:			
	1. Sensitized	1 kin including inner packings	1.00	1.35
	2. Developed	,,	8.25	11.13
	3. Other	ad val.	40%	
*640	Articles for billiards, tennis, cricket, chess and other games, and accessories thereof:			
	1. Articles for tennis, base-ball, football and other out-door exercises and accessories thereof	,,	25%	
	2. Other	,,	50%	
*641	Toys	,,	50%	
643	Fodder		free	
644	Wheat bran		free	
646	Manures, including oil cakes, unestable dried fish, bone dust, dried blood, guano, superphosphate of lime, calcium cyanamide, etc.		free	
*647	Articles, not otherwise provided for:			
	1. Raw	,,	10%	
	2. Other		35-50%	

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LIST OF CLUBS, SOCIETIES, ASSOCIATIONS, ETC.

POLITICAL AND MILITARY

DAI ASIA KYOKAI (The Great Asia Association) General Sekkon Matsui and others are directors. The society works for the unification of Asiatic countries. Issues "Dai Asia Shugi" (Great Asianism). Address: Osaka Building, Uchisaiwaicho, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

GIYU ZAIDAN KAIBOGIKAI (The Coastal Defence Volunteers' Association). Established in 1922; Otojiro Ito, president; membership 9,359. The object of the association is to study matters in connection with the coastal defence of Japan. Issues "Kaibo" (Coastal Defence). Address: Shisei Kaikan, Hibiya Park, Tokyo.

KAIGUN KYOKAI (The Navy League of Japan). Established in 1917; Chuichi Ariyoshi, M. H. P. president; membership 202,287. The Association is trying to spread a knowledge of the navy of Japan. Issues "Umi no Nippon" (Japan in the Seas). Address: Yusen Building, Marunouchi, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

KAIKOSHA (Military Club). Established in 1877; General Hisaichi Terauchi, president. The purpose is to keep friendly relations among army officers as well as to cultivate the spirit of patriotism. Address: Iidamachi, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

KOKUMIN BOKU KYOKAI (The National Aerial Defence Association). Kumataro Uyama, president. Address: 775, Sendagaya 4-chomé, Tokyo.

OSAKA TOSHI KYOKAI (The Association for the Study of Municipal Problems of Osaka). Established in 1925: Takéo Kagami, president; membership 3,000. The aim is to study every problem pertaining to cities. Address: Osaka City Hall, Nakanoshima, Kitaku, Osaka.

SUIKOSHA (The Naval Club). Established in 1876; Admiral Mitsumasa Yonai, president; membership 14,800. The purpose of the club is to study marine affairs and keep mutual friendship among members. Issues "Suikosha Kiji" (Naval Club Reports). Address: 13, Sakaécho, Shiba, Tokyo.

TEIKOKU ZAIGO GUNJINKAI (The Ex-service Men Association). Established in 1910; General Ikutaro Inouye, president; membership 3,000,000. The purpose is to keep up the spirit of the Japanese soldiery. Address: 5, Kudan 1-chomé, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

TOKYO SHISEI CHOSAKAI (The Tokyo Institute for Municipal Research). Baron Yoshiro Sakatani, president. Issues "Toshi Mondai" (City Problems). Address: 2, Hibiya Park, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

TOSHI KENKYUKAI (The Institute for the Study of Municipal Problems). Established in 1917; Nobumasa Suétsugu, president; membership about 5,000. Issues "Toshi Kōron" (City Review). Address: The Department of Home Affairs, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

YOYOKAI Established in 1923; Saburo Momotaké, director. Social friendship among naval officers is the aim of the society. Address: Care of Usagawa, 22, Kasumicho, Azabu, Tokyo.

YUSHUKAI Established in 1913: Admiral Isamu Takeshita, president. The purpose of the Society is to study various problems of the Japanese navy. Issues "Yushu". Address: Care of the Suikosha, Sakaécho, Shiba, Tokyo.

ZENKOKU CHOSONCHO KAI (The All-Japan Town and Village Masters' Society). Established in 1921; Tsutomu Okazaki, president; membership 11,044. The aim of the society is to study every problem concerning town and village administration. Issues "Jichi Kōron" (Autonomy Review). Address: 35 Nishikubo-Tomoécho, Shiba, Tokyo.

INTERNATIONAL AND DIPLOMATIC

BERUGI KYOKAI (La Société Belgo-Japonaise). Established in 1912; Baron Sumizo Otera, president; membership 200. The purpose is to keep friendship between Japan and Belgium. Address: 60 Nagatacho 2-chomé, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

KAIGAI IJU KUMIAI RENGOKAI (The Federation of Emigration Associations). Established in 1927; Hachisaburo Hirao, president; membership 59 local associations. The aim is to serve as a means of connection among member associations, giving aids to promote their aspiration. Issues reports. Address: 4-gochi-Shiba Park, Shiba, Tokyo.

KAIGAI KYOKAI CHUOKAI (The Central Board of Overseas Associations). Established in 1923; Gosuké Imai, president; membership 27 local associations. The object is to encourage emigration. Address: The Sanshi Kaikan, Yurakucho, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

KANSAI NICHI-FUTSU KAIKAN (L'Institut Franco-Japonaise du Kansai). H. E. the Ambassador of France, president,

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Address: 6 Izumidono-cho, Yoshida, Kyoto.

KEIO KAIGAI IJI KENKYUKAI (Keio Institute for the Investigation of Overseas Medical Affairs). Established in 1920; Mikinosuké Miyajima, president; membership 368. For the study of medical conditions abroad, and promotion of international friendship through medical science. Issues reports. Address: Nishi Shinanomachi, Yotsuya, Tokyo.

KINTO BOEKI KYOKAI (The Near-East Trade Association). Established in 1927; Heibei Mori, president; membership 85. The society aims at the development of trade between Japan and Turkey. Address: The Osaka Chamber of Commerce and Industry, Dōjima, Kitaku, Osaka.

KOBE NICHIBEI KYOKAI (The Japan-America Society of Kobé). Established in 1921; Shinji Tazaki, director; membership about 200. The aim is to bring the Japanese and the Americans into closer relations. Address: 1 Akasakadori, 8-chomé, Nadaku, Kobé.

KOBE NICHI-HAKU KYOKAI (Associaçaõ Nippon-Brazileira de Kobé). Established in 1926; Ennosuké Sekiya, president; membership 495. The Association serves to promote friendship between the two countries and acts as go-between in the matter of mutual understanding. Issues "Brazil." Address: Kaigan-dori 1-chomé, Kobé.

KOKUSAI BUNKA SHINKOKAI (The Society for International Cultural Relations). Established in 1934; Prince Fumimaro Konoyé, president; membership 153. The aim is to introduce Japanese and Oriental culture to foreign countries. Issues periodicals and reports. Address: Meiji-Seimeikan, Marunouchi, Tokyo.

KOKUSAI HANKYO RENMEI (The International Anti-communist League) Established in 1937; Baron Bannan Ida, director; membership about 50,000. Publication, "Hankyo Jōho" (Anti-communist reports). Address: Fujiya Building, Kotohira-cho, Shiba, Tokyo.

MANSHU BUNKA KYOKAI (The Manchurian Culture Society). Established in 1920; Kingo Kaisé, president; membership 1,400. The purpose is to promote friendly relations between the peoples of Japan, Manchoukuo and China, and to introduce the Manchurian and Mongolian culture to the Japanese. Publishes "Mammo" (Manchuria and Mongolia) and others. Address: 91 Kiimachi, Dairen.

NANYO-KYOKAI (The South Sea Association). Established in 1915; Prince Fumimaro Konoyé, president; membership 1,300. The Society makes a study of the South Sea Islands and gives information about it. Issues "Nanyo" (South Sea) and "Bulletin of the South Sea". Address: 6 Marunouchi 3-chomé, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

NICHI-BEI KYOKAI (The America-Japan Society). Established in 1917; Prince Iyesato Tokugawa, president; membership 763. The Society aims at the promotion of friendly relations between the peoples of Japan and of the United States of America. Issues "America-Japan Society Bulletin". Address: Imperial Hotel, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

NICHI-BOKU KYOKAI (La Sociedad Mexico Japonesa). Established in 1924; Admiral Keizaburo Moriyama, president; Takemaro Kobayashi, director general; membership 280. The Society aims at the promotion of friendly relations between the peoples of Japan and Mexico. Issues reports. Address: 80 Yochomachi, Ushigomé, Tokyo.

NICHI-DOKU BUNKA KYOKAI (Das Japan-Deutsche Kultur-Institut). Established in 1927; Marquis Toshitaké Okubo, president; membership 100. Address: The Shisei Kaikan, Hibiya Park, Tokyo.

NICHI-DOKU KYOKAI (Der Deutsch-Japanische Verein). Established in 1921; Dr. Aihiko Sata, president; membership 510. The Association aims at contributing towards promotion of culture and industries in both countries. Address: 3 Hamadori, Dojima, Kitaku, Osaka.

NICHI-EI KYOKAI (The Japan-British Society). Established in 1923; H. E. the British Ambassador, president; membership 342. Address: 2 Ginza 7-chomé, Kyobashi, Tokyo.

NICHI-FUTSU KAIKAN (La Maison Franco-Japonaise). Established in 1924; Baron Reijiro Wakatsuki, president; membership 495. The Institute aims at the development of the Japanese and the French cultures. Issues "Nichi-Futsu Bunka" and other reports. Address: 3 Surugadai 2-chomé, Kanda, Tokyo.

NICHI-FUTSU KYOKAI (La Société Franco-Japonaise). Established in 1886; Viscount Sukekuni Soga, president; membership 890. Address: 3 Surugadai 2-chomé, Kanda, Tokyo.

NICHI-GO KYOKAI (The Australia-Japan Society). Established in 1928; Baron Yoshiro Sakatani, president; membership 130. The object is the promotion of the friendly relations and welfare of the two countries. Issues reports. Address: The Nippon Kogyo Club, Marunouchi, Tokyo.

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NICHI-I BUNKA KYOKAI (The Japano-Italian Culture Association). Established in 1931; membership 382. The aim is the exchange of Japanese and Italian cultures. Address: 29 Fujimicho 1-chomé, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

NICHI-IN KYOKAI (The Indo-Japanese Association). Established in 1903; Marquis Nobutsuné Okuma, president; membership about 1,000. The object is to promote the friendship between Japan and British India, Straits Settlements, Dutch East Indies, Siam, French Indo-China and the Philippines. Issues reports. Address: 2 Uchisaiwaicho 2-chomé, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

NICHI-RO KYOKAI (The Japan Soviet Society). Established in 1906; president, vacant; membership 316. The object is to promote friendship and learning of the two countries. Issues reports. Address: 7 Uchisaiwaicho 2-chomé, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

NICHI-RO TSUSHINSHA (The Japan-Soviet Trading Agency). Established in 1915; Moriji Uyeda, director. Daily publication, "Nichiro Tsushin" (Japano-Russian Correspondence). Address: Nijuichi-go Kan of Mitsubishi, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

NIKKA GAKKAI (The Japan-China Educational Association). Established in 1918; Marquis Moritatsu Hosokawa, president. The purpose is to help the Chinese students in their studies in Japan. Issues "Nikka Gappo" (Sino-Japanese magazine). Address: 7 Nishi-kanda 2-chomé, Kanda, Tokyo.

NIKKA KYOKAI (The Japan-Canada Society). Established in 1930; Baron Yoshiro Sakatani, president; membership 100. The Society aims at the promotion of friendly relations between the peoples of Japan and Canada. Issues reports. Address: The Nippon Kogyo Club, Marunouchi, Tokyo.

NIPPON IMIN KYOKAI (The Japan Emigration Society). Established in 1914; President, vacant; membership 700. The object is to make general researches about matters concerning emigration and gives such informations as may be needed by people. Address: 30 Maruyamacho, Koishikawa, Tokyo.

NIPPON KOKUSAI KYOKAI (The International Association of Japan). Established in 1920; Viscount Kikujiro Ishii, president; membership 13,971. Issues "Kokusai Chishiki Oyobi Hyoron" (International Knowledge and Review), "Sekai to Warera" (World and We) and "International Gleanings from Japan". Address: 12 Marunouchi 2-chomé, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

NIPPON LATIN-AMERICAN ASSOCIATION (La Société Japonaise en Amérique Latine). Established in 1910; Prince Sanetaka Ichijo, president; membership 275. The purpose is to study the conditions of the North, Central, and South American countries. Address: 2, Nakadori 3-chomé, Marunouchi, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

NIPPON SEINEN GAIKŌ KYOKAI (The Japanese Young Men's Institute of Foreign Affairs). Established in 1938; Katsu Hara, director; membership 1,500. Gives lectures in important cities. Publishes "Sekai Shukan" (World in Weekly). Address: Banchō-no-Iyé, 4 Rokuban-chō 3-chomé, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

NIPPON-SWEDEN KYOKAI (The Japan-Sweden Society). Established in 1929; Ginjiro Fujiwara, president; membership 222. Address: The Nippon Kogyo Club, Marunouchi, Tokyo.

NISSO BUNKA KYOKAI (The Japano-Soviet Culture Association). Mantaro Hasegawa, director. Address: Sanma Building, Ginza 3-chomé, Kyobashi, Tokyo.

NISSO TSŪSHIN SHA (The Japan-Soviet Corresponding Agency). Established in 1926; Yoshiharu Kondō, president. The object is to supply daily news from the Soviet Union to Japanese Newspapers as well as to introduce the vivid conditions in Soviet to the Japanese. Publications, "Nisso Tsūshin" (Japanese-Soviet Daily Correspondence) and "Gekkan Roshia" (Russia in monthly Edition). Address: The Marunouchi Building, Marunouchi, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

OSAKA HAN TAIHEIYO CLUB (The Osaka Pan-Pacific Club). Established in 1927; the Governor of Osaka-fu, president; membership 100. The purpose is to cultivate international friendships among the countries around the Pacific.

SHAMU KYOKAI (The Siam Society). Established in 1927; Prince Fumimaro Konoyé, president; membership 200. Publishes reports. Address: 1 Sannencho, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

TOKYO HAN TAIHEIYO CLUB (The Pan-Pacific Club of Tokyo). Established in 1923; Viscount Tadashiro Inouyé, president; membership 300. Promotion of friendship and goodwill among Pacific nations. Address: The House of Peers, Nagatacho, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

TOYO KYOKAI (The Oriental Society). Established in 1898. Rentaro Mizuno, president; membership about 3,000. Address: The Osaka Building, Uchisaiwaicho 2-chomé, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

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LEGAL

AIKOKU HOSO RENMEI (The Patriotic Lawyers' Association). Established in 1932; Tomoyoshi Tsunoda, director. Address: The Taisho Building, 6 Yurakucho 1-chomé, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

HOSOKAI (The Association of Legal Circles). Established in 1891; Torajiro Ikeda, president; membership 13,451. The purpose is to make study of laws in general and to improve the judicial procedure. Issues a journal. Address: 1 Kasumigaseki 1-chomé, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

JIYU HOSO DAN (The Free-Legal Circles). Established in 1921; Kesaya Yamazaki, director; membership 50. The purpose is to safeguard the rights of lower class peoples by dint of their cooperative actions. Address: 19 Shinsakurada, Shiba, Tokyo.

NIPPON BENGOSHI KYOKAI (The Japan Lawyers' Association). Established in 1897; 50 directors in charge of presidency; membership 2,500. The object is to facilitate cooperative work of lawyers. Publication, "Hoso Koron" (Legal Review). Address: 1 Kasumigaseki 1-chomé, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

TEIKOKU BENGOSHIKAI (The Imperial Lawyers' Association). Established in 1925; Dr. Somei Uzawa, director; membership 1,000. Address: Nishi-Hibiya, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

TOKYO BENGOSHI KAI (The Tokyo Lawyers' Association). Koitsu Sakuma, director. Address: 6 Yurakucho 1-chomé, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

COMMERCIAL, INDUSTRIAL, AND AGRICULTURAL

BOEKI SHOREI KAI (The Trade Promotion Society). Established in 1927; Baron Takashi Masuda, president. Address: 1 Honcho 2-chomé, Nihonbashi, Tokyo.

CHUO CHIKUSAN KAI (The Central Association of Animal Industry of Japan). Established in 1918; Shigemasa Sunada, director; membership 14,600. The object is to encourage the livestock breeding in all Japan. Issues "Chikusan" (Live-stock Breeding). Address: Sankaido, 1 Tameiké, Akasaka, Tokyo.

DAINIPPON BEIKOKU KAI (The Japan Rice Association). Established in 1907; Baron Yoshiro Sakatani, president; membership 10,000. Issues "Beikoku" (Rice). Address: 30 Sagacho 1-chomé, Fukagawa, Tokyo.

DAINIPPON BOSEKI RENGOKAI (The Japan Cotton Spinners' Association) Established in 1882; Otokichi Shōji, president; membership 80 companies. Publishes reports. Address: Mengyo-kaikan, Bingomachi 3-chomé, Higashiku, Osaka.

DAINIPPON EIGA KYOKAI (The Japan Cinematographic Association). Established in 1935; Baron Tatsuo Yamamoto, president. The purpose is to develop the cinema production industry in Japan. Issues "Nippon Eiga" (Japanese Cinema). Address: The Toyo Building, Uchisaiwaicho 1-chomé, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

DAINIPPON ORIMONO KYOKAI (The Japan Textile Association). Established in 1885; Count Kentaro Kaneko, president; mebership 1,500. The Association aims at the progress of dyeing and textile industry. Issues "Senshoku Jiho" (Journal of the Japan Textile Association). Address: The Chiyoda-Shoken Building, 2 Kyobashi 1-chomé, Kyobashi, Tokyo.

DAINIPPON RENGO KASAI HOKEN KYOKAI (The Joint Fire Insurance Association of Japan). Seiichi Shinjo, director; membership 70 companies. Address: 6 Marunouchi 1-chomé, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

DAINIPPON SANRIN KAI (The Japan Forestry Association). Established in 1882; Shingoro Sato, president; membership 4,500. The object is to improve forestry enterprises in Japan. Publishes "San Rin" (Forestry). Address: Sankaido, Tameiké, Akasaka, Tokyo.

DAINIPPON SANSHI KAI (The Japan Sericultural Association). Established in 1892; Count Yorinaga Matsudaira, president; membership 301,000. The object is to improve silk industry in Japan. Issues "Sanshi Kaiho" (Silk World Review). Address: 7 Yurakucho 1-chomé, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

DAINIPPON SUISAN KAI (The Japan Marine Products Association). Established in 1882; Yonematsu Mitsui, president; membership 5,000. Publishes "Suisan Kai" (Marine World). Address: Sankaido, Tameiké, Akasaka, Tokyo.

DAINIPPON YOGYO KYOKAI (The Japanese Ceramic Association). Established in 1891; Seitaro Yamada, director; membership 2,000. The object is to improve ceramic industry in Japan. Publishes a journal. Address: 5 Nishi Ginza 4-chomé, Kyobashi, Tokyo.

DENKI FUKYU KAI (The Electrical Development Association). Established in 1924; Count Keigo Kiyoura, president; membership 7,000. The purpose is to spread electric knowledge among the people. Publications, "Denki Chishiki" (Electric Knowledge). Address: 3 Yurakucho 1-chomé, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

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DENKI KYOKAI (The Japan Electric Association). Established in 1921; Jiro Masuda, president; membership 3,017. The Association aims at the progress of electrical enterprises in Japan. Publishes a magazine. Address: 3 Yurakucho 1-chomé, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

FUMIN KYOKAI Established in 1927; Shingoro Takaishi, president. The object is to improve agricultural methods and encourage farming. Publishes "Fumin" (People's Welfare). Address: 964 Hagoromo, Takashi, in the suburbs of Osaka City.

JIYU TSUSHO KYOKAI (The Free-Trade Association). Tetsujiro Shidachi, director. The purpose is to advocate free trade. Address: 7 Nishi Ginza, Kyobashi, Tokyo.

KAGAKU KOGYO KYOKAI (The Chemical Industry Association). Established in 1917; Morio Nakamatsu, president; membership 780. Publishes a magazine, "Kagaku Kogyo" (Chemical Industry). Address: 2 Marunouchi, Tokyo.

KANTO SANGYO DANTAI RENGO-KAI (The National Confederation of Industrial Association of Japan). Established in 1931; Ginjiro Fujiwara, president; membership 39 associations. Address: Nippon Kogyo Club, Marunouchi, Tokyo.

KASAI HOKEN CLUB (The Fire Insurance Club). Established in 1930; Takashi Isaka, director; membership 750. Address: The Kaijyo Building, Marunouchi 1-chomé, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

KOWAN KYOKAI (The Port Problems Research Association). Established in 1922; Rentaro Mizuno, director; membership 5,000. Address: Care of Naimusho-Doboku-Kyoku, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

KOZAN KONWAKAI (The Minerals Traders' Club). Ryuzo Tanaka, director. Address: Nippon Kogyo Club, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

NANYO BOEKI SHINKOKAI (The Society for the Promotion of South Seas' Trade). Established in 1927; Kamekichi Yamazaki, director; membership 35. Address: The Tokyo Shokoshoreikan, Marunouchi, Tokyo.

NIKKA JITSUGYO KYOKAI (The Japan-Chinese Businessmen's Association). Established in 1920; Kenji Kodama, president; membership 200. Address: 3 Marunouchi 7-chomé, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

NIPPON BOEKI KYOKAI (The Foreign Trade Association of Japan). Established in 1885; Baron Ichizaemon Morimura, president; membership 515. Publication, "Boeki" (Foreign Trade). Address: 3 Nishi-Ginza 7-chomé, Kyobashi, Tokyo.

NIPPON CHUO SANSHIKAI (The Japan Central Sericultural Society). Established in 1932; Count Yorinaga Matsudaira, president; membership 8 organizations. Address: 7 Yurakucho 1-chomé, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

NIPPON DORYOKO KYOKAI (The Japan Metrological Society). Established in 1911; Eitaro Okamoto, president; membership 15,000. The purpose is to unify weights and measures available in Japan. Issues "Keiryokai" (Weights and Measures). Address: 17 Nishikubo-Meisencho, Shiba, Tokyo .

NIPPON JINKEN RENGOKAI (The Japan Rayon Industry Association). Established in 1927; Asahiko Karashima, president; Address: The Daini Nomura Building, Bingocho 2-chomé, Higashiku, Osaka.

NIPPON KANZUME KYOKAI (The Canned Foods Association of Japan). Established in 1927; Yonematsu Mitsui, president; membership 1,300. The purpose is to improve the canned foods industry in Japan. Issues reports. Address: The Marunouchi Building, Marunouchi, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

NIPPON KEIZAI RENMEIKAI (The Japan Economic Federation). Established in 1922; Baron Seinosuké Go, president. For the study of economic problems and exchange of economic knowledge. Issues "Keizai Renmei" (Economic Federation). Address: Kogyo Club, Marunouchi, Tokyo.

NIPPON KENCHIKU KYOKAI (The Japan Architecture Association). Established in 1917; Dr. Yasushi Kataoka, president; membership 1,985. Issues "Kenchiku to Shakai" (Architecture and Society). Address: The Asahi Building, Nakanoshima, Kitaku, Osaka.

NIPPON KOGYO KAI (The Mining Institute of Japan). Established in 1885; Kiyoshi Imai, president; membership 3,300. Publishes "Journal of the Mining Institute of Japan". Address: 7 Nishi-Ginza 8-chomé, Kyobashi, Tokyo.

NIPPON KOZAN KYOKAI (The Japan Mineral Industry Association). Established in 1927; Chokuyo Murase, president; membership 500. Issues reports. Address: Kobikicho 7-chomé, Kyobashi, Tokyo.

NIPPON MENGYO CLUB (The Japanese Cotton Producers' Club). Established in 1928; Otokichi Shōji, president; membership 1,855. For the progress of cotton industry in Japan. Issues a monthly report. Address: 8 Bugomachi 3-chomé, Higashi-ku, Osaka.

NIPPON MENKA DOGYO KAI (The Japan Cotton Merchants' Union). Established in 1898; Saburo Nango, president; membership 106. Issues reports.

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Address: Mengyokaikan, Bungomachi, Higashiku, Osaka.

NIPPON MEN-ORIMONO KOGYO KUMIAI (The Nippon Union of Cotton Textile Manufacturers' Association). Established in 1928; President, vacant; membership 136 organizations. The Association aims at (1) inspection and regulation of cotton textile (2) improvement of quality and expansion of market. Issues "Men Koren" (Union of Cotton Textile Manufacturers' Association). Address: 10 Kyobashi 1-chomé, Kyobashi, Tokyo.

NIPPON SANGYO KYOKAI (The Japan Industrial Association). Established in 1921; Count Sanji Kuroki, president; membership 600. The purpose is to inquire into various industrial subjects. Publication, "Sangyo" (Industry). Address: 1 Uchisaiwaicho 1-chomé, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

NIPPON SEISHI RENGOKAI (The Association of Japanese Paper Mills). Established in 1880; President, vacant; membership 56 organizations. The object is the investigation and promotion of paper manufacturing industry in Japan. Publishes a magazine. Address: 10 Marunouchi 2-chomé, Tokyo.

NIPPON SENSHU KYOKAI (The Nippon Ship-Owner's Association). Established in 1894; Shozo Murata, president; membership 142. Issues a monthly report. Address: 32 Akashimachi, Kobéku, Kobé.

NIPPON SHIKKO KAI (The Japan Lacquer Ware Industry Association). Established in 1890; Naohiko Masaki, president; membership 800. Issues "Urushi to Kogei" (Lacquer and Industrial Arts). Address: Kajicho 2-chomé, Kanda, Tokyo.

NIPPON SOKO KYOKAI (The Japan Warehousing Association). Established in 1932. Sinzo Mitsuhashi, president; membership, 182 companies. The object is the development of warehousing enterprises in Japan. Publishes a monthly report. Address: The Mitsubishi Soko Building, 1 Edobashi 1-chomé, Nihonbashi, Tokyo.

NIPPON TEKKO KYOKAI (The Iron and Steel Institute of Japan). Established in 1915. Daikichi Saito, president; membership 3,200. The object is make a scientific study of iron and steel as well as of working-up techniques of manufacturing. Issues reports. Address: 10 Marunouchi 2-chomé, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

NIPPON TŌGYO RENGOKAI (The Japan Sugar Producers' Association). Established in 1909; Aiichiro Fujiyama, president; membership 11 organizations. For the promotion of common interest of the members. Address: The Kogyo Club, 2 Marunouchi 1-chomé, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

NIPPON YOMO KOGYOKAI (The Japan Wool Industry Association). Established in 1920; Seibei Kawanishi, director; membership 58 companies. Address: The Marunouchi Building, Marunouchi, Tokyo.

NOJI DENKA KYOKAI (The Association for the Electrification of Agriculture). Established in 1923; Tozaburo Tsukita, president; membership 1,000. Issues "Noji Denka" (Electrification of Agriculture). Address: 3 Yurakucho 1-chomé, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

OSAKA BOEKI KYOKAI (The Osaka Foreign Trade Association). Established in 1914. Yakichi Ataka, president; membership 63 companies. For the progress of the foreign trade of Osaka. Address: the Osaka Chamber of Commerce and Industry, Dōjima-Hamadōri 2-chomé, Kitaku, Osaka.

OSAKA JITSUGYO KUMIAI RENGOKAI (The Federation of the Osaka Commercial Societies). Heibei Mori, director. Address: Jitsugyokaikan, Higashiku, Osaka.

OSAKA KASHO SHOKAI (The Chinese Merchants' Association of Osaka). Masuzo Cho, director. Address: 211 Nibancho, Honda, Nishiku, Osaka.

OSAKA KOGYO KAI (The Osaka Industrial Society). Established in 1914; Yasushi Kataoka, director; membership 800. For the inspection of several industrial problems and for the progress of industry in Japan. Publishes monthly "Kōgyo" (Industry). Address: The Daidō Building, Tosabori 1-chomé, Nishiku, Osaka.

OSAKA SANGYO CHOSAKAI (The Osaka Industrial Research Society). Eiji Yasui, director. Address: The Osaka Prefectural Office, Osaka.

OSAKA YUSHUTSU KYOKAI (The Exporters' Association of Osaka). Muneji Sakama, president, membership 58. For the progress of Japan's foreign trade. Address: Osaka Municipal Office, Kitaku, Osaka.

RORYO SUISAN KUMIAI (The Russian Waters Fishery Association). Established in 1908; Sukehidé Kabayama, president; membership 26. Address: The Marunouchi Building, Marunouchi, Tokyo.

SANGYO CHOSA KYOKAI (The Industrial Research Society). Established in 1930; Usaburo Yanagitani, president; membership 26 organizations. The Association aims to investigate the business condition and management. Ad-

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dress: The Kaijo Building, Marunouchi, Tokyo.

SANGYO FUKURI KYOKAI (The Industrial Welfare Association). Established in 1929; membership 900. Publishes "Sangyo Fukuri" (Industrial Welfare). Address: The Social Bureau, Department of Home Affairs, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

SANGYO KUMIAI CHUŌ KINKO (The Central Bank of Co-operative Societies). Established in 1923; Tadaatsu Ishiguro, director; membership 13,414. To make loans and receive deposits of co-operative societies and fishermen's societies. Publishes "Kumiai Kinyu" (Finance of Co-operative Societies). Address: 9 Yurakucho 1-chomé, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

SEIMEI HOKEN KAISHA KYOKAI (The Life Insurance Companies Association). Established in 1908; Tatsu Naruse, chairman of directors; membership 30 companies. For the progress of Life Insurance in Japan. Publishes a report. Address: 4 Marunouchi 3-chomé, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

SEKITAN KOGYO RENGOKAI (The Coal Mine Owner's Association). Established in 1921; Kenjiro Matsumoto, president; membership 61. Issues "Sekitan Jiho" (Coal Miner's Times). Address: care of the Nihon Kogyo Club, Marunouchi 1-chomé, Tokyo.

TEIKOKU BAHITSU KYOKAI (The Imperial Horse-breeding Association). Established in 1926; Count Yorinaga Matsudaira, president; membership 353. Address: The Toyo Building, Uchiyamashitacho, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

TEIKOKU GAS KYOKAI (The Imperial Gas-Work Society). Established in 1912; Sadamatsu Ozoné, president; membership 800. For the progress of gas work in Japan. Publishes a report. Address: 2 Marunouchi 2-chomé, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

TEIKOKU JIDOSHA KYOKAI (The Imperial Automobile Association). Established in 1931; Baron Yoshiro Sakatani, president; membership 100. For the progress of the automobile enterprise in Japan. Address: The Yusen Building, Marunouchi, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

TEIKOKU KAIJI KYOKAI (The Imperial Marine Affairs Association). Established in 1936; Hanpei Fujishima, director. Issues a ship directory. Address: The Kaijo Building, Marunouchi, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

TEIKOKU NOKAI (The Imperial Agricultural Association). Established in 1910; Count Tadamasa Sakai, president; membership 47 agricultural organizations. The object is to encourage agricultural pursuits. Issues a report. Address: 1 Marunouchi 3-chomé, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

TEIKOKU SHINRINKAI (The Imperial Forestry Association). Established in 1919; Dr. Seiroku Honda, president; membership 134. Address: 1 Tameiké, Akasaka, Tokyo.

TEIKOKU SUISAN KAI (The Imperial Aquatic Institute). Established in 1922; Viscount Masuzo Nomura, president; membership 42 organizations. Issues "Teisui" (Imperial Fishery). Address: The Sankaido, Tameiké, Akasaka, Tokyo.

TEIKOKU TETSUDO KYOKAI (The Imperial Railway Association). Established in 1898; Viscount Tadashiro Inouyé, president; membership 2,600. For the improvement of the land transportation of Japan. Publishes "Han Kōtsū" (Transportation). Address: 4 Marunouchi 3-chomé, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

TETSUDO DOSHIKAI (The Railway Men's Association). Established in 1913; Kaichiro Nezu, president; membership 200 companies. For the improvement of railways in Japan. Issues reports. Address: 4 Marunouchi 3-chomé, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

TOA KEIZAI CHOSA KYOKU (The East-Asiatic Economic Investigation Bureau). Established in 1929. Yoshiaki Hatta, president. For the economic investigation of East Asia. Issues "Tōa" (East Asia) and "Manchurian Year Book". Address: The Toyo Building, 1 Uchisaiwaicho, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

TOKO KAI (The Light House Keepers' Association). Established in 1924; Teiichi Yamané, president; membership 533. Publishes "Toko" (Light). Address: Care of the Bureau of Light House, 64 Kita Nakadori 6-chomé, Nakaku, Yokohama.

TOKYO-FU SHOTENKAI RENMEI (The League of Tokyo Merchants). Established in 1931; Seikan Watari, president; membership 500 organizations. For the improvement of retailers' business. Address: Care of the Bureau of Commerce and Industry, Tokyo Prefectural Office, Tokyo.

TOKYO GINKO CLUB (The Tokyo Bankers' Club). Established in 1899; Junshiro Mandai, director; membership 570. The purpose is to exchange banking knowledge among members. Address: 8 Marunouchi, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

TOKYO JITSUGYO KUMIAI RENGOKAI (The Federation of Tokyo Businessmen's Societies). Seki Hoshino, director. Address: 2 Honcho 1-chomé, Nihonbashi, Tokyo.

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TOKYO KOJO KONWAKAI (The Friendly Association of Factories in Tokyo). Established in 1920; the Governor of Tokyo-Fu, president; membership 200. Address: Care of the Bureau of Commerce and Industry of the Tokyo Prefectural Office.

TOKYO KOJO KYOKAI (The Tokyo Factory Association). Established in 1930; The Superintendent General of the Metropolitan Police is in charge of presidency. Membership 14,000. The object is to improve factory administration. Publication, "Kōjō Jiho" (Factory Times). Address: care of the Bureau of Factories of the Metropolitan Police Office, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

YOKOHAMA BOEKI KYOKAI (The Foreign Trade Association of Yokohama). Established in 1905; Nobuhiro Joko, president; membership 205 houses. The object is to promote foreign trade. Publishes monthly "Kōeki" (Trade). Address: 1 Kaigandori 1-chomé, Nakaku, Yokohama.

ZENKOKU BEIKOKU HAMBAI KOBAI KUMIAI RENGOKAI (The All-Japan Federation of Sale and Purchase Association of Rice). Established in 1931; Yoshio Udo, president; membership 51 organizations. Issues a daily paper. Address: Care of the Central Board of the Federation of Industrial Associations, 21 Agebacho, Ushigomé, Tokyo.

ZENKOKU CHOCHIKU GINKO KYOKAI (The Savings Banks' Association of Japan). Established in 1931; Viscount Keizo Shibusawa, executive director; membership 72 banks. For the promotion of friendship among the members. Publishes reports. Address: 8 Marunouchi 1-chomé, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

ZENKOKU INSATSUGYO KUMIAI RENGOKAI (The All-Japan Federation of Printers' Associations). Established in 1921; Tanesaburo Kubota, president; membership 4,600. For the progress of printing technic and for the control of printing business. Publishes "Insatsu Sekai" (Printing World) and others. Address: 4 Jinbocho 2-chomé, Kanda, Tokyo.

ZENKOKU KEIZAI CHOSAKIKAN RENGOKAI (The Associations of the Japanese Economic Research Bureau). Established in 1920; Koji Takamura, chief secretary; membership 152 organizations. To perfect the economic investigation with a strict co-operation of members. Publishes monthly reports. Address: The Toyo Building, Uchisaiwaicho, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

ZENKOKU YOSANGYO KUMIAI RENGOKAI (The National Sericultural Society). Established in 1932; Baron Masatané Inada, president; membership 10,000 local guilds. Issues a journal "Sansi no Hikari" (The Light of Raw Silk). For the progress of sericulture of Japan. Address: 1 Yurakucho, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

ZOSEN KYOKAI (The Society of Naval Architects of Japan). Established in 1897; Dr. Yuzuru Hiraga, director; membership 2,307. The object is to make researches of shipbuilding and technical arts thereof. Issues a monthly report and other periodicals. Address: 8 Marunouchi 3-chomé, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

MORAL AND EDUCATIONAL

BUNGEIKA KYOKAI (Literary Men's Association). Established in 1926. Kan Kikuchi, president; membership 347. The purpose is to promote friendship among members and protect their rights. Issues a report. Address: 2 Tamuracho 5-chomé, Shiba, Tokyo.

DAINIPPON KISHO GAKKAI (The Meteorogical Society of Japan). Established in 1882; Dr. Takematsu Okada, president; membership 630. Publishes "Kishō Shūshi" (Weather Report). For the study of meteorology. Address: the Chuo-Kishodai, Otemachi 1-chomé, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

DAINIPPON KOKUSHI KAI (The Japan Historical Association). Established in 1931; Iichiro (Soho) Tokutomi, president; membership 650. The purpose of the Association is to study Japanese history and guide the thoughts of the nation. Address: The Aoyama Kaikan, Aoyama, Akasaka, Tokyo.

DAINIPPON KYOFUKAI (The Japan Temperance Society). The Society aims at the guidance and enlightenment of people in their thoughts and life. Issues "Kyofu" (Moral Reform). Hisakichi Yamazaki, president; membership 1,000. Address: 31 Kikugawa 1-chomé, Honjo, Tokyo.

DAINIPPON RENGO SEINENDAN (The Japanese Young Men's Association). Established in 1924; Masayasu Kōsaka, director; membership 2,625,201. To promote the administration of local associations. Issues "Nippon Seinen Shimbun" (Japanese Young Men's News), "Seinen" (Young Men) and others. Address: Kasumigaoka, Yotsuya, Tokyo.

DAINIPPON SEINEN KŌKŪDAN (The Young Aviators' Association of Japan). Established in 1937; General Ikutaro Inoué, president; membership about 520. For the instruction of the young people in aeronautical knowledge and flying technic, and for the general understanding of the art of flight. Publishes "Seinen Kōkū" (Young Flyers).

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Address: Hikō-kan, 3 Tamuracho 1-chomé, Shiba, Tokyo.

DAITO BUNKA KYOKAI (The Greater Oriental Culture Association). Established in 1923; Yorinaga Matsudaira, president; membership about 30. The purpose is to advance the Oriental culture and publishes monthly "Daito Bunka" (Greater Oriental Culture). Address: 7 Fujimicho 1-chomé, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

DENKI GAKKAI (The Institute of Electrical Engineers of Japan). Established in 1888; Sadaji Momota, president; membership 9,203. For the progress of electrical science and industry. Issues a magazine. Address: 3 Yurakucho 1-chomé, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

DENKI TSUSHIN GAKKAI (The Institute of Electrical Communicating Engineers of Japan). Established in 1917; Dr. Takeshi Kajii, president; membership 6,492. Issues a magazine. Address: The Kaijo Building, Marunouchi, Tokyo.

DOBOKU GAKKAI (The Civil-Engineering Society). Established in 1914; Kenzo Tatsuma, president; membership 7,800. For the progress of civil-engineering. Issues "Doboku Gakkai." Address: 6 Marunouchi 3-chomé, Tokyo.

EISEI KOGYO KYOKAI (The Sanitary Industry Association). Established in 1927; Ihei Sugimura, president; membership 1,126. The purpose of the Association is to make researches of foodstuffs. Issues "Eisei Kogyo" (Sanitary Industry). Address: Kenchiku Kaikan, 1 Ginza 3-chomé, Tokyo.

GAKUSHI KAI (The Allumini Association of the Imperial University). Baron Yoshiro Sakatani, president. Address: 1 Nishikicho, Kanda, Tokyo.

GAN KENKYUKAI (The Japanese Foundation for Cancer Research). Established in 1908; Dr. Mataro Nagayo, president; membership 1,200. The Association makes a study of cancer and issues a magazine "Gan" (Cancer). Address: 2615 Nishisugamo 2-chomé, Toshima, Tokyo.

HOGAKU KYOKAI (The Legal Research Society). Established in 1888. Dr. Kotaro Tanaka, president. Issues a magazine. Address: the Imperial University, Hongo, Tokyo.

HOKEN GAKKAI (The Insurance Association). Established in 1906; Dr. Kiyosuke Awazu, president; membership 450. The object is to study of the theory and practice of insurance and publish "Hoken Gaku" (Insurance). Address: Care of the Life Insurance Companies Association, 3 Marunouchi 4-chomé, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

ISHIN SHIRYO HENSANKAI (The Editorial Office of the Restoration Period Materials). Established in 1911. Count Kentaro Kaneko, president; membership 30. Address: The Department of Education, Sannencho, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

KAGAKU CHISHIKI FUKYUKAI (The Association for the Propagation of Scientific Knowledge). Established in 1921; Dr. Jinkichi Inouyé, president. The Association issues "Kagaku Chishiki" (Scientific Knowledge). Address: 11 Nishikicho 1-chomé, Kanda, Tokyo.

KAHEI GAKKAI (Seminary for Research on Fire Arms). Dr. Shozo Arisaka, president. Address: Zoheigaku Kyoshitsu, the Imperial University, Hongō, Tokyo.

KEIDAI KEIZAI GAKKAI (The Economics Institute of the Kyoto Imperial University). Established in 1919; President, vacant; membership about 4,000. Issues "Keizai Ronshu" (Economic Review). Address: the Kyoto Imperial University, Kujoyama, Kyoto.

KENCHIKU GAKKAI (The Institute of Japanese Architects). Established in 1886; Rikichi Sano, president; membership 9,088. Issues a magazine, "Kenchiku Zasshi" (Architecture). Address: 1 Ginza Nishi 3-chomé, Kyobashi, Tokyo.

KOGYO KAGAKUKAI (The Society of Chemical Industry, Japan). Founded in 1898; Naoto Kameyama, president; membership 6,572. Publishes "Journal of the Society of Chemical Industry, Japan (Main & Suppl. Bind.). Address: The Yurakukan, Marunouchi, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

KOKKA GAKKAI (The Association of Political and Social Science). Established in 1887; Hikomatsu Kamikawa, active president; membership about 1,500. Issues "Kokka Gakkai Zasshi" (Journal of the Association of Political and Social Science). Address: Seminary-room of the Faculty of Law, the Tokyo Imperial University, Hongo, Tokyo.

KOKUGO KYOKAI (The Japanese Language Research Society). Established in 1930; Prince Fumimaro Konoyé, president; membership about 1,800. For the protection and improvement of the Japanese Language. Issues "Kokugo Undō" (For Our Language). Address: The Dōmei Kaikan, 2 Nishi Kanda 1-chomé, Kanda, Tokyo.

KOKURITSUKOYEN KYOKAI (The National Park Association). Established in 1927; Marquis Moritatsu Hosokawa, president; membership 20 organizations. For the improvement of National Parks. Issues "Kokuritsu Koyen" (National Parks). Address: Care of the Bureau

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of Public Health, the Department of Home Affairs, Tokyo.

KOKUSAIHO GAKKAI (The Association of International Law). Established in 1880; Membership 185. Publishes a magazine. Address: the Seminary-room of the Faculty of Law, the Tokyo Imperial University, Hongo, Tokyo.

KOKUSHI KAIKO KAI (The National History Retrospection Society). Established in 1928; Marquis Nobutsuné Okuma, president; membership 220. Issues "Kokushi Kaiko Kai Kiyo" (Reports of National History Restrospection). Address: Care of Marquis Okuma, Aoyama Minamicho 6-chomé, Akasaka, Tokyo.

KOSEIKAI (The Industrial Policy Association). Established in 1918; Yoshiaki Hatta, president; membership 2,000. For the progress of industry. Issues "Kōgyo Kokusaku" (Industrial Policy). Address: Yurakukan, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

KOTEN KOKYUSHO (The Institute for the Japanese Classic Literature). Established in 1882; Marquis Yukitada Sasaki, president; membership 1,300. Issues an organ paper. Address: 9 Wakagicho, Shibuya, Tokyo.

MEIJI SEITOKU KINEN GAKKAI (The Meiji Japan Society). Established in 1912; Count Hirotaro Hayashi, president; membership about 800. For the promotion of the Japanese national spirit in the country and for the introduction of its intrinsic value to other countries. Issues a report. Address: 11 Haruyamacho, Koishikawa, Tokyo.

MITSUBISHI KEIZAI KENKYUSHO (The Mitsubishi Economic Research Bureau). Established in 1932; Sōbun Yamamuro, chairman of directors. Issues "Monthly Circular" (in English). Address: 8 Marunouchi 3-chomé, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

NAKAYAMA BUNKA KENKYUSHO (The Nakayama Cultural Research Institute). Dr. Yū Fujikawa, president. Address: The Toyo Building, Uchiyamashitacho, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

NAWA KONCHU KENKYUSHO (The Nawa Entomological Laboratory). Established in 1896; Umekichi Nawa, president; membership 6. To study the life of insects. Issues "Konchū Sekai" (Insect World). Address: Omiyamachi 2-chomé, Gifu prefecture.

NENRYO KYOKAI (The Fuel Society of Japan). Established in 1922; Baron Toshiatsu Sakamoto, president; membership 3,000. The Association aims at the progress of fuel-power industries in Japan. Issues "Nenryo Kyokai," association paper. Address: care of the Imperial Fuel Research Institute, Kawaguchimachi, Saitama prefecture.

NIPPON BUNKA CHUO RENMEI (The Central Federation of Nippon Culture). Established in 1937; Prince Tadashigé Shimadzu, president. The purpose is promotion of the synthetic development of Japanese national culture and enhancement of its intrinsic value in and out of the country. Publications, "Cultural Nippon" (in European languages) and "Bunka Nippon" (Cultural Nippon, in Japanese). Address: The New Osaka Building, Uchisaiwaicho, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

NIPPON BYORI GAKKAI (The Japan Pathological Society). Masaichi Fukushi, president. Address: the Tokyo Imperial University, Tokyo.

NIPPON CHIKUSAN GAKKAI (The Zootechnical Science Society of Japan). Established in 1924; Ryoji Iwazumi, president; membership about 400. Publishes "The Japanese Journal of Zootechnical Science. Address: the Seminary-room of Agriculture, the Tokyo Imperial University, Tokyo.

NIPPON CHIRI GAKKAI (The Association of Japanese Geographers). Established in 1921; Dr. Takeo Katô, president; membership about 260. Publishes monthly "The Geographical Review of Japan". Address: the Seminary-room of Geography, the Tokyo Imperial University, Tokyo.

NIPPON DORYOKU KYOKAI (The Japan Power Association). Established in 1927; Keizaburo Hashimoto, president; membership 120 organizations & 100 individuals. Issues "Doryoku" (Motive Power). Address: The Yurakukan, 3 Marunouchi, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

NIPPON EISEIKAI (The Japan Sanitation Society). Established in 1931; Marquis Kōichi Baba, president; membership about 9,700. To spread the knowledge of sanitary living among the people. Publishes "Kōshū Eisei" (Public Sanitation). Address: 6 Otemachi 1-chomé, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

NIPPON ESPERANTO GAKKAI (Japana Esperanto-Instituto). Established in 1919; Wasaburo Oishi, president; membership 1,300. To spread Esperanto among the Japanese and to introduce the Japanese culture abroad, in the world language. Issues a magazine "La Revuo Orienta". Address: 13 Motomachi 1-chomé, Hongo, Tokyo.

NIPPON GAKUJITSU KYOKAI (The Japanese Association for the Advancement of Science). Established in 1925; Marquis Moritatsu Hosokawa, president; membership 2,400. The Association aims at the advancement of every branch of sciences in Japan. Issues reports. Address: Care of the Faculty of Medicine.

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the Tokyo Imperial University, Hongo, Tokyo.

NIPPON GAKUSEI KOKU RENMEI (The Japan Students' Association of Aeronautics). Established in 1930; Naomichi Kataoka, president; membership 1,000. For the instruction of students in aeronautical knowledge and flying technic. Address: The Tokyo Asahi Shimbun, Tokyo.

NIPPON HAKUBUTSUKAN KYOKAI (The Japanese Association of Museums). Established in 1928; Naohiko Masaki, director; membership 200. For the promotion of museum works. Issues a monthly magazine "The Museum Studies" (in Japanese). Address: the Department of Education, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

NIPPON INSATSU GAKKAI (The Japanese Society of Printing Technology). Established in 1928 in Tokyo; Dr. Michiya Yano, president; membership 650. The institution has as its object study of printing technique, support the interest of printing industry by lectures and publications. Issues a report. Address: care of The Tokyo Higher Industrial Art School, Nishi Shibaura, Shiba, Tokyo.

NIPPON ISHIKAI (The Japan Medical Association). Dr. Taichi Kitajima, president. Address: 5 Surugadai 2-chomé, Kanda, Tokyo.

NIPPON JIDO GAKKAI (The Japan Puericulture Association). Established in 1907; Dr. Yu Fujikawa, chief secretary; membership 500. To study the life of children. Publishes "Jido Kenkyu" (Study on Children). Address: 25 Muramatsucho, Nihonbashi, Tokyo.

NIPPON KAGAKU KAI (The Chemical Society of Japan). Established in 1921; Shigeru Komatsu, president; membership about 1,700. For the progress of chemical works. Publishes "Bulletin of the Chemical Society of Japan" (in English) and others. Address: Faculty of Science, the Tokyo Imperial University, Hongo, Tokyo.

NIPPON KAGAKU KENKYUKAI (The Japan Chemistry Association). Established in 1926; Dr. Rikô Majima, director; membership 1,370. Issues "Nippon Kagaku Sōran" (Complete Abstracts of Japanese Chemical Literatures). Address: 10 Komagafukuro-uwachō, Sendai.

NIPPON KAZAN GAKKAI (The Japan Volcanological Society). Established in 1931; Dr. Takuji Ogawa, president; membership 450. Issues "Kazan" (volcano). Address: The seminary room of geology of the faculty of science, the Tokyo Imperial University, Hongo, Tokyo.

NIPPON KEKKAKUBYO GAKKAI (The Japanese Association for Tuberculosis). Established in 1923; Shungo Ōzato, president; membership 1,400. Issues a periodical "Kekkaku" (Tuberculosis). Address: The Tokyo Municipal Sanatorium, Egota 3-chomé, Nakano, Tokyo.

NIPPON KIKAI GAKKAI (The Society of Mechanical Engineers, Japan). Established in 1897; Dr. Nobuta Matsunawa, president; membership 9,776. For the progress of mechanical science and art. Issues "Kikai Gakkai" (Mechanics) and "Journal of the Society of Mechanical Engineers, Japan". (in English). Address: The Marunouchi Building, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

NIPPON KOGAKU KAI (The Engineering Society of Japan). Established in 1879; Kuniichi Tawara, president; membership 15 associations. Publishes "Kōgaku to Kōgyo" (Engineering and Industry). Address: Nippon Kogyo Club, 2 Marunouchi 1-chomé, Tokyo.

NIPPON KOTSU KYOKAI (The Japanese Traffic Association). Established in 1929; Baron Yoshiro Sakatani, president; membership 400 companies. The object is to provide means for the connection of traffic organs in Japan. Publishes Association reports. Address: The Yusen Building, Marunouchi, Tokyo.

NIPPON MINZOKU EISEI GAKKAI (The Japan Race-Hygienics Society). Dr. Sen Nagai, president. Address: Medical Department, the Tokyo Imperial University, Hongo, Tokyo.

NIPPON MINZOKU GAKKAI (The Japanese Society of Ethnology). Established in 1934; Dr. Kurakichi Shiratori, president; membership 426. Issues "Minzokugaku Kenkyu" (the Japanese Journal of Ethnology). Address: 132 Shimo-Hoya, Hoya-mura, Tokyo prefecture.

NIPPON NOGEI KAGAKUKAI (The Agricultural Chemical Society of Japan). Established in 1924; Dr. Umetaro Suzuki, president; membership 2,300. For the progress of agricultural chemistry. Publishes "Nippon Nogeikagaku Kaishi" (Journal of the Agricultural Chemical Society of Japan). Address: the Faculty of Agriculture, the Tokyo Imperial University, Hongo, Tokyo.

NIPPON RAJIO ASSOCIATION (The Japanese Radio Association). Established in 1925; Eitaro Yokoyama, president; membership 3,000. The purpose of the Association is to spread a knowledge of electric wave and that of the application of it. Its organ is "Rajio no

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Nippon" (Japanese Radio). Address: Care of Denkikyokai, 3 Yurakucho 1-chomé, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

NIPPON RODO KAGAKU KENKYUSHO (The Japan Institute for Science of Labour). Established in 1937; Dr. Yoshihito Teruoka, director; membership 168. To conduct research in the science of labour with a view to develope the national industry. Publishes "Rodo Kagaku Kenkyu" (Study of the Science of Labour). Address: Aoyama Kitamachi 5-chomé, Akasaka, Tokyo.

NIPPON ROMAJIKAI (The Japan Roman Letters Society). Established in 1921; Dr. Aikitsu Tanakadaté, president; membership 5,000. Publishes a periodical "Romaji Sekai" (Roman Letters World). Address: Seikatsukan, 1 Surugadai 1-chomé, Kanda, Tokyo.

NIPPON SAKUMOTSU GAKKAI (The Crop Science Society of Japan). Established in 1927; Suketeru Kikkawa, president; membership 980. For the progress of the crop science. Publishes a report. Address: Faculty of Agriculture, the Tokyo Imperial University, Hongo, Tokyo.

NIPPON SHAKAIGAKU KAI (The Japan Sociological Society). Established in 1913; Dr. Teizo Toda, director; membership 720. Study of sociology. Publishes a annual report "Shakaigaku" (Sociology). Address: the Seminary-room of sociology, Faculty of literature, the Tokyo Imperial University, Hongo, Tokyo.

NIPPON SHASHIN GAKKAI (The Society of Scientific Photography of Japan). Established in 1926; Lieutenant-General Hitoshi Omura, president; membership 320. The Society has its object study of the theory and practice of photography. Issues a magazine. Address: care of The Tokyo Higher Industrial Art School, Shibaura 2-chomé, Shiba, Tokyo.

NIPPON SUGAKU BUTSURI GAKKAI (The Physico-Mathematical Society of Japan). Established in 1877; Takuji Yoshiyé, president; membership 1,560. Study of the physico-mathematic. Issues "Proceedings of the Physico-Mathematical Society of Japan". Address: The Faculty of Science, the Tokyo Imperial University, Hongo, Tokyo.

NIPPON TOSHOKAN KYOKAI (The Japan Library Association). Established in 1892; Kiichi Matsumoto, president; membership 1,763. Publishes "Toshokan" (Library). Address: the Department of Education, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

NIPPON YAKUZAISHIKAI (The Japan Pharmacologists' Society). Kametaro Kawai, president; membership 17,546. For the progress of medicine and sanitation. Issues an annual report. Address: The Kojunsha Building, 4 Ginza 6-chomé, Kyobashi, Tokyo.

NIPPON ZOEN GAKKAI (The Japanese Institute of Landscape Architects). Established in 1925; Dr. Tsuyoshi Tamura, president; membership 250. Issues "Zoen Zasshi" (Magazine of Garden Building). Address: The Faculty of Agriculture, the Tokyo Imperial University, Hongo, Tokyo.

NOGYO DOBOKU GAKKAI (The Agricultural Engineering Society). Teiji Tanaka, president. Address: The Faculty of Agriculture, the Tokyo Imperial University, Hongo, Tokyo.

NOGYOKEIZAI GAKKAI (The Agricultural Economics Society). Established in 1924; Tadaatsu Ishiguro, president; membership about 800. Publishes "Nogyokeizai Kenkyu" (Study of the Agricultural Economy). Address: The Faculty of Agriculture, the Tokyo Imperial University, Hongo, Tokyo.

NOJI DENKA GAKKAI (The Agricultural Electrification Society). Dr. Viscount Masatoshi Okochi, president. Address: The Denki Club, Yurakucho, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

RIKAGAKU KENKYUSHO (The Institute of Physical and Chemical Research). Established in 1917; Dr. Viscount Masatoshi Okochi, president; membership 1,634. To make scientific researches in physics and chemistry and their commercial and industrial purpose. Publishes monthly "Scientific Papers of the Institute of Physical and Chemical Research" (in European languages). Address: 31 Komagomé-Kamifujimayecho, Hongo, Tokyo.

SHAKAI KEIZAI KENKYUSHO (The Social and Economic Problems Institute). Dr. Iwasaburo Takano, president. Address: The Tameiké Building, Akasaka, Tokyo.

SHIGAKKAI (The Historical Research Institute). Established in 1889; Dr. Sanji Mikami, president; membership 1,300. Publishes a magazine. Address: the Office of Historical Materials, the Tokyo Imperial University, Hongo, Tokyo.

SHOMEI GAKKAI (The Illuminating Engineering Society). Established in 1916; Yoshijiro Ishikawa, president; membership 1,500. Study of the illuminating engineering. Publishes "Shomei Gakkai" a periodical. Address: 3 Yurakucho 1-chomé, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

TEIKOKU KYOIKU KAI (The Japanese Educational Association). Established in 1883; Hidejiro Nagata, president; membership 1,629 (89 organizations). To make contributions for the

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educational and cultural progress of Japan as the central organ for the educational societies in the Empire. Publishes "Teikoku Kyōiku" (Education in the Empire). Address: 9 Hitotsubashi 2-chomé, Kanda, Tokyo.

TEIYU RINRI KAI (The Society for the Study of Ethics). Established in 1897; Genyoku Kuwaki and Masanori Oshima, directors, membership 53. Publishes "Teiyu Rinrikai Kōenshū" (Lectures of Teiyu Ethical Society). Address: 389 Totsuka 3-chomé, Yodobashi, Tokyo.

TETSUGAKU KAI (The Philosophy Research Society). Established in 1884; Dr. Tetsujiro Inouyé, president; membership 700. Address: Care of the Faculty of Literature, the Tokyo Imperial University, Hongo, Tokyo.

TOA DOBUNKAI Established in 1899; Prince Fumimaro Konoye, president; membership 4,000. The purpose is to promote mutual friendship and culture between Japan and China. Publishes "China" and "Toa Shūho" (East Asia, Weekly). Address: Kasumigaseki, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

TOKYO TOKEI KYOKAI (The Tokyo Statistics Association). Established in 1878; Baron Yoshiro Sakatani, president; membership 411. For the progress and spread of statistics. Publishes an organ magazine "Tōkei Shūshi" (Statistical Report). Address: 3 Nishi Ginza, Kyobashi, Tokyo.

ZŌEN KENKYU KAI (The Japanese Society of Landscape Architecture). Established in 1915; Dr. Tsuyoshi Tamura, president; membership 450. For the progress of gardening science and its arts. Publishes "Zōen Kenkyu" (Study of Gardening). Address: Seminary-room of the Landscape Architecture of the faculty of Agriculture, the Tokyo Imperial University, Hongo, Tokyo.

POLITICAL AND SOCIAL MOVEMENT

DAI NIPPON SEIGIDAN (The League for the Political Justice of Japan). Eizo Sakai, director. Address: Minamicho, Takanawa, Shiba, Tokyo.

DAI NIPPON SEISANTO Established in 1931; Ekizo Yoshida, president; membership 150,000. The purpose of the party is to build an economically strong foundation for the nation. Address: The Shoko Building, 1 Uchisaiwaicho, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

DAI NIPPON SHONENDAN RENMEI (The Imperial Headquarters of Boy Scouts of Japan). Established in 1922; Admiral Isamu Takeshita, president; membership about 110,000 (1,350 organizations). To instruct the youth in the knowledge of society. Issues "Shonendan Kenkyu" (Study of Boy Scouts). Address: The Department of Education, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

KANTO SHOHI KUMIAI RENMEI (The Federation of Eastern Japan Consumers' Trade Unions). Nisaburo Tozawa, director. Address: Oshimamachi, Joto, Tokyo.

KENKOKU KAI Established in 1925; Bin Akao, president; membership 30,000. The purpose of the organization is to work for the exaltation of Japanese nationality. Issues "Nippon Seishin" (Japanese Spirit). Address: 75 Mikawajima, Arakawa, Tokyo.

KOKURYU KAI (The Amour Society). Established in 1901; Yoshihisa Kuzuu, director. To make study on diplomatic policy, with special reference to the problems in the Far East. Publishes books on diplomatic problems. Address: 2 Nagatacho, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

KOKUSUI TAISHU TO (The Nationalistic Democratic Party). Established in 1931; Ryoichi Sasagawa, president; membership 132,506. To promote the idea of national defence and to exterminate the Communist Party. Issues a daily news paper "Osaka Konnichi Shimbun" and a monthly magazine "Kokubo" (National Defence). Address: 66 Komagomé-Hōraicho, Hongo, Tokyo.

NIPPON KOKUMIN KINSHU DOMEI (The National Temperance League of Japan). Established in 1898; Ryotaro Hayashi, director; membership 380,000 (3,667 organizations). Issues "Abstinent Japan" and others. Address: 2 Nishikanda 1-chomé, Kanda, Tokyo.

NIPPON SHOHI KUMIAI DOMEI (The Japan Consumers' Union). Nisaburo Totsu, director. Address: 2 Oshimamachi, Joto, Tokyo.

NIPPON SUIHEISHA Established in 1922; Umekichi Minami, director. The organization works for the social emancipation of "Eta people" and the general improvement of their status. Address: Takano Kitamachi, Kamikyoku, Kyoto.

ZENKOKU SUIHEI SHA (The Federation of the Suiheisha). Jiichiro Matsumoto, director. Address: 22 Sakaecho 4-chomé, Naniwaku, Osaka.

TRADE UNIONS

DAINIPPON NOMIN KUMIAI (The Japan Farmers' Union). Established in 1922; Motojiro Sugiyama, director; membership about 100,000. For the progress of rural districts. Address: 7 Nishikubo Sakuragawa-cho, Shiba, Tokyo.

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KAIGUN RODO KUMIAI RENMEI (The League of the Naval Workers' Unions). Established in 1924; Sukeichi Hayashi, director; membership 7 unions with 39,810 members. Address: 15 Hondori 12, Kuré.

KAIIN KYOKAI (The Seamen's Union). Established in 1896; Kichitaro Miyamoto, president; membership 16,000. Address: 8 Shimo Yamatedori, Kobéku, Kobé.

KŌAI KAI Established in 1922; Kumazo Ishii, director; membership 3,500. To promote the friendship of members. Publishes "Nippon Sangyo Rodo" (Industrial Labour of Japan). Address: Care of The Uraga Dock Company, Uragamachi, Kanagawa prefecture.

NIPPON KAIIN KUMIAI (The Japanese Seamen's Union). Established in 1921; Osayoshi Horiuchi, director; membership 115,000. To improve the seamen's labour conditions. Publishes "Kaiin" (Seamen). Address: Kaigandori, Kobé.

NIPPON KOTSU RODO SORENMEI (The League of the Japan Transportation Workers' Unions). Established in 1926; Kiichi Murakoshi, director; membership 6 unions with 30,000 members. To improve the common interests of members. Publishes a newspaper "Nippon Kōtsū Rōdō Shimbun" (Japan's Traffic Labour). Address: 8 Tsukiji 3-chomé, Kyobashi, Tokyo.

NIPPON KOWAN JUGYOIN KUMIAI (The Federation of the Japan Port Workers' Unions). Established in 1933; Ken Okazaki, president; membership 20,000. To improve the interests of port workers. Issues "Kōjyū" (Port Worker). Address: 66 Kita Nakadori 6-chomé, Nakaku, Yokohama.

NIPPON RODO KUMIAI KAIGI (Japan Trade Union Council). Established in 1932; Komakichi Matsuoka, president; membership 10 unions and 296,682 members. Address: Kaigandori, Kobé.

NIPPON RODO KUMIAI SORENGO (N. R. S.) (The Japan General Federation of Trade Unions). Established in 1926; Kyuzo Takayama, president; membership 25,203. For the progress of industry of our country and for the welfare of labourers. Publishes "Sangyo To Rodo" (Industry and Labour). Address: Shikokumachi, Mita, Shiba, Tokyo.

NIPPON RODO SORENMEI (The General Confederation of Labour of Japan). Established in 1930; Shinichi Yagi, director; membership 7,000. To improve labour conditions. Publishes a newspaper "Nippon Rodo Shimbun" (Labour of Japan). Address: 73 Aioicho, Kitaku, Osaka.

NIPPON SANGYO RODO CLUB (Japan Industrial Labour Club). Established in 1933; Kumazo Ishii, director; membership 18 unions with 20,282 members. Address: Shintsukuda-nahimachi, Kyobashi, Tokyo.

SHIN NIPPON KAIIN KUMIAI (The New Japan Seamen's (lower) Society). Established in 1935; Sotaro Monji, director; membership 4,700. Address: Sakaemachi, Kobé.

ZEN NIPPON RODO SODOMEI (The All-Japan Trade Union Federation). Established in 1912; Komakichi Matsuoka, director; membership 85,308. Publishes "Rōdō" (Labour) and others. Address: Mita Shikokumachi, Shiba, Tokyo.

SOCIAL WORK

ASAHI SHIMBUN SHAKAIJIGYODAN (The Social Work Department of the "Asahi" Newspaper Office). Established in 1928; Seiichi Ueno, director. To promote social works. Address: 3 Nakanoshima, Kitaku, Osaka.

CHUO SHAKAI JIGYO KYOKAI (The National Social Works Association). Established in 1908; Count Keigo Kiyoura, president; membership 750. The purpose is to unify all social work institutions in Japan. Issues "Shakai Jigyo" (Social works). Address: Care of the Bureau of Social Affairs, the Department of Home Affairs, Tokyo.

CHUO YUWA JIGYO KYOKAI Established in 1925; Baron Kiichiro Hiranuma, president. The purpose is to work for the harmonization of different classes of people, giving lectures from time to time. Issues "Yuwa Jigyo" (Harmonization Works) and others. Address: The Dōjunkaikan, 3 Kasumigaseki 3-chomé, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

DOJUN KAI (The Dōjunkwai Foundation). Established in 1924; Marquis Kōichi Kido, president. The purpose is to build and rent houses and so on. Issues "Dojun Kai". Address: 3 Kasumigaseki 3-chomé, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

FUKUDEN-KAI Established in 1876; H.I.H. Princess Fushimi, honorary president. Count Hideo Yamada, director; membership 1,700. The society has an end in view to protect children and runs a kindergarten to carry out its purpose. Issues "Fuku Den" (Benevolence). Address: 1 Miyashirocho, Shibuya, Tokyo.

HAKU JUJIKAI (The White-Cross Society). Established in 1911; Nobu Watanabé, president; membership about 1,300. The society aims at the extermination of tuberculosis. Publishes "Ryoyo Chishiki" (Sanitary Knowledge). Ad-

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dress: 1 Ogawamachi 2-chomé, Kanda, Tokyo.

HOMEN IIN RENMEI (The League of the District Committee). Established in 1932; Count Keigo Kiyoura, president; membership 40,000. The purpose is to keep connection among the District Committees for social relief works. Address: 2 Uchisaiwaicho 2-chomé, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

HOSEI KAI (The Central Ex-prisoner's Aid Association of Japan). Established in 1913; Kisaburo Suzuki, president; membership 889 local organizations. The purpose of the society is to aid, propect and culture exprisoners. Issues "Hogo Jiho" (Protection Times). Address: 7 Sanbancho, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

JIDO AIGO KAI (The Association for the Love and Protection of Children). Established in 1926; Hisatada Hirose, president. The purpose is to bring up and protect the children of weak constitution. Address: 3 Kasumigaseki 3-chomé, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

KAKUSEI KAI (The Purity Society). Established in 1911; Isoo Abé, president; membership 10,000. The object is to encourage moral and social movements, aiming at the prohibition. Issues a journal "Kakusei" (Purification). Address: 41 Otsuka Nakamachi, Koishikawa, Tokyo.

KEI FUKU KAI Established in 1924; H.I.H. Prince Kanin, honorary president. Count Keigo Kiyoura, president. The purpose of the organization is to give aid to private social work enterprises. Address: 2 Uchisaiwaicho 2-chomé, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

KYUSEIGUN (The Salvation Army). Established in 1895; Masuzo Uemura, commander. Issues "Toki no Koé" (The War Cry). Address: 17 Jimbocho 2-chomé, Kanda, Tokyo.

NIPPON KAIIN EKISAI KAI (The Japan Seamen's Aid Association). Established in 1880; Rentaro Mizuno, director; membership 185,000. The purpose of the Association is to give aid to seamen and protect them. Issues "Umi no Sekai" (World of Seas). Address: 51 Akashimachi, Kyobashi, Tokyo.

NIPPON KEKKAKU YOBO KYOKAI (The Anti-Tuberculosis Association of Japan). Established in 1913; Prince Kuniyuki Tokugawa, president; membership 156. Issues "Jinsei Kofuku" (Human Happiness). Address: 5 Otemachi 1-chomé, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

NIPPON SEKIJUJI SHA (The Red Cross Society of Japan). Established in 1877; Prince Iyesato Tokugawa, president; membership 3,067,190. The work of the Society is relief work, prevention of diseases, etc. Issues "Haku Ai" (Universal Love). Address: 5 Shiba Park, Shiba, Tokyo.

OSAKA MAINICHI SHIMBUN SHAKAIJIGYO DAN (The Social Work Department of the Mainichi News Paper Office). Established in 1910; Nobutaro Okumura, director. For the promotion of social works. Publishes "Nōson Shakaijigyo" (Social Works in Farm Villages) and others. Address: 2 Dojimauyé, Kitaku, Osaka.

RAIBYO YOBO KYOKAI (The Association for the prevention of Leprosy). Established in 1931; Count Keigo Kiyoura, president; membership about 25,000. The purpose of the Association is to prevent and eradicate leprosy. Publishes an annual report. Address: Care of the Bureau of Disease Prevention, the Department of Health and Social Affairs, Tokyo.

SAISEI KAI (The Imperial-Gift Charity Association). Established 1911; Prince Iyesato Tokugawa, president; membership about 80,000. The purpose of the organization is to treat patients gratis. Issues, "Sai Sei" (Saving Lives). Address: 1 Akabanecho, Shiba, Tokyo.

SAN IKU KAI Established in 1918; Itsuo Fujita, director. The purpose of the organization is to give assistance to mothers in the matter of bringing up children. Issues "San Iku," a journal. Address: 19 Taiheimachi 3-chomé, Honjo, Tokyo.

SHOHEIIN (The Hospital for the wounded soldiers). Takeshi Harada, president; membership 100. Address: 373 Fusai, Okubomura, Ashikara-Shimogori, Kanagawa prefecture.

TEIKOKU SUINAN KYUSAI KAI (The Imperial Sea-Disaster Relief Society). Established in 1889; Count Yorinaga Matsudaira, president; membership 185,367. Issues a monthly magazine "Umi" (sea). Address: 1 Sagacho 1-chomé, Fukagawa, Tokyo.

YOKU FU KAI Established in 1925; Marquis Kōichi Kido, president. The work of the organization is to succour aged people who have no body to depend on. Issues reports. Address: 848 Kami-Takaido 3-chomé, Suginami, Tokyo.

RELIGIOUS

NIPPON KIRISUTOKYO REMMEI (The National Christian Council of Japan). Established in 1923; Yoshimuné Abé, president. To promote friendship among the christian societies in the Empire. Issues "National Christian Council Bulletin". Address: 6 Nishikicho 1-chomé, Kanda, Tokyo.

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NIPPON KIRISUTOKYO SEINEN KAI DOMEI (The National Committee of Y.M.C.A. of Japan). Established in 1903; Dr. Tadaoki Yamamoto, president. To propagate Christianity among Japanese students. Publishes "Kaitakusha" (Pioneer). Address: 2 Nishi Kanda 1-chomé, Kanda, Tokyo.

NIPPON NICHIYOGAKKO KYOKAI (The National Sunday School Association of Japan). Established in 1907; Dr. Tadaoki Yamamoto, director; membership 987 schools. Publishes "Nichiyo Gakko" (Sunday School). Address: Nishikicho 1-chomé, Kanda, Tokyo.

ZENKOKU SHINSHOKU KAI (The All-Japan Shinto Union). Established in 1898; Rentaro Mizuno, president; membership 15,768. For the prosperity of Shinto shrines and for the elevation of Shinto priesthood. Publishes "Kōkoku Jiho" (Mikadoism). Address: 11 Wakagicho, Shibuya, Tokyo.

ZEN NIPPON BUKKYO SEINENKAI REMMEI (The League of Buddhist Y. M. A. of Japan). Established in 1931; Ryōchu Shioiri, director; membership 25,000. Publishes "Seinen Butto" (Young Buddhist). Address: 3 Hitotsubashidori 2-chomé, Kanda, Tokyo.

FINE ARTS

KOKUMIN BIJUTSU KYOKAI (The National Art Association). Established in 1913; membership 109. The object of the Association is to study and promote every style of fine arts. Address: Care of The "Marble," Meiji Seimeikan, Marunouchi, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

NIKA KAI Established in 1914; Tokusaburo Masamuné, director; membership 23. The object is to promote the production of new style fine arts. Address: 17 Banshumachi, Yotsuya, Tokyo.

NIPPON BIJUTSU IN (The Institute of Japanese Art). Established in 1898; Taikan Yokoyama, president; membership 225. The purpose is to study Japanese fine arts and hold general exhibitions for the works prepared by those interested. Issues reports occasionally. Address: Kami-misaki-minamicho, Yanaka, Shitaya, Tokyo.

NIPPON BIJUTSU KYOKAI (The Japanese Institute of Fine Arts). Established in 1878; Count Kentaro Kaneko, president; membership 1,251. The object is to study fine arts and hold art exhibitions for the works prepared by members. Issues reports quarterly. Address: Ueno Park, Tokyo.

NIPPON JIYU GADAN (The Free Painting Society of Japan). Established in 1919; secretaries in charge by turn; membership 6. To study Japanese fine arts and to hold general exhibitions for the works prepared by members. Address: Care of Mr. Hirota, Demizu, Karasumarudori, Kyoto.

NIPPON KOGEI BIJUTSU KAI (The Japan Applied Arts Association). Established in 1926; Nobuo Tsuda, president; membership 200. The purpose of the Association is to aid the advancement of applied arts in Japan. Issues reports. Address: 1 Yanaka Majimacho, Shitaya, Tokyo.

NIPPON SOGAKA KYOKAI (The Japan Illustrators' Association). Established in 1928; Seiko Unno, president; membership 73. Issues reports. Address: 180 Kogaicho, Azabu, Tokyo.

NIPPON SUISAIGA KAI (The Water-Colour Painting Society of Japan). Established in 1913; secretaries in charge; membership 120. For the progress of water colour painting in Japan. Address: Care of Mr. Motizuki, 72 Komagome Shinmeicho, Hongo, Tokyo.

NIPPON UKIYOE KYOKAI (The Japan Ukiyoé Association). Established in 1922; Marquis Yorisada Tokugawa, president; membership 300. Issues "Ukiyoé No Kenkyu" (Study of Ukiyoé) Address: Care of Ochiai, 9 Fujimicho 5-chomé, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

SHUNYO KAI Established in 1922; Genichiro Adachi, president; membership 38. Issues reports. Address: Care of Mr. Adachi, 422 Denenchofu, Omori, Tokyo.

SUIKO KAI Established in 1924; secretaries in charge; membership 8. The purpose is to study and protect old art works. Issues "Ezuroku" (Reprints). Address: Care of Mr. Matsuda, Osaki Chojamaru, Shinagawa, Tokyo.

TAIHEIYO GA KAI (The Pacific Art Society). Established in 1902; Toraji Ishikawa and Hideta Nagatochi, secretaries; membership 92. The object is to study the Occidental art sculpture. Address: 1 Yanaka Mashimacho, Shitaya, Tokyo.

TEIKOKU GEIJUTSU IN (The Imperial Art Academy). Established in 1937; Tōru Shimizu, president; membership 72; Object, make study of important matters concerning fine arts, music and literature and answer to the questions put before them by the Education Minister on those subjects. Address: The Ministry of Education, Marunouchi, Tokyo.

TODAI HOGA KAI Established in 1925; Somei Yuki, president; membership 255. This organization exists for the study of Japanese art. Address: Care of Mr. Kano, 68 Kanasugi Hamamachi, Shiba, Tokyo.

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MUSIC

BUKKYO ONGAKU KYOKAI (The Buddhistic Music Association). Established in 1928; Marquis Tsuneyasu Nakamikado, president; membership Buddhist Associations. For the protection and promotion of Buddhist music in Japan. Publishes a magazine "Bukkyo Ongaku" (Buddhist Music). Address: Care of the Bureau of Religion, the Department of Home Affairs, Tokyo.

DAINIPPON SAKKYOKUKA KYOKAI (The Japan Composers' Association). Rentaro Mizuno, president. Address: Care of Mr. Komatsu, 435 Asagaya 3-chomé, Suginami, Tokyo.

DOSEI KAI (The "Dosei-Kai" Music Society). Established in 1896; Kaju Norisugi, president; membership 2,033. Issues reports. Address: Care of Tokyo Academy of Music, Ueno Park, Shitaya, Tokyo.

HOSHO KAI (The Hosho Association). Established in 1911; Count Yoritoshi Matsudaira, president; membership 1,400. The purpose of the Association is to encourage the Hosho School of "No." Address: 1 Motomachi, Hongo, Tokyo.

IFU KAI Established in 1917; Keishō Imai, president; membership about 200. The purpose is to study and propagate "koto" music. Address: care of Mr. Imai, 225 Motomuracho, Azabu, Tokyo.

KAIGUN GUNGAKU TAI (The Japanese Navy Band). Established in 1908; Seigo Naito, head; membership 70. Address: Minami-Odawaracho, Kyobashi, Tokyo.

KANZE KAI Established in 1899; Sakon Kanzé, president; membership about 1,000. The purpose of this organization is to study the Kanzé school "No" music. Issues a journal "Kanzé". Address: 10 Shin-Ogawacho 2-chomé, Ushigomé, Tokyo.

KISARAGI SHA (The Kisaragi Society). Established in 1910; Ikko Motoori, head; membership 60. The purpose is to study music in general. Address: The Tsutsumi Building, Shimbashi, Tokyo.

KIYOMOTO KAI Established in 1914; Enju Tayu, head. The object is to study "Kiyomoto-bushi". Address: 48 Takanawa, Shiba, Tokyo.

NAGAUTA FUYOKAI Established in 1912; Sakichi Kineya, head; membership 300. The purpose is to study the music of this school. Address: 9 Hirakawacho, 4-chomé, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

NIPPON KOKYO ONGAKU KYOKAI (The Japan Symphony Association). Established in 1920; Kosaku Yamada, leader; membership 50. The purpose is to promote and propagate symphony. Issues "Kokyogaku" (Symphony). Address: 29 Gobancho, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

NIPPON KYOIKU ONGAKU KYOKAI (The Educational Music Association of Japan). Established in 1927; Kaju Norisugi, president; membership 4,500. The purpose is to promote educational music. Issues "Kyoiku Ongaku" (Educational Music). Address: care of the Tokyo Academy of Music, Ueno Park, Shitaya, Tokyo.

TOIN KAI Established in 1917; Lead by Shizué Fujikagé; membership 100. The purpose of the Society is to establish a new school of "Buyo" (Japanese dance) and to promote this school. Issues twice a year a pamphlet "Tōin". Address: 6 Kasumicho, Azabu, Tokyo.

TOKIWAZU KENKYU KAI (The "Tokiwazu" Performance Association). Matsuo Tayu, president. The purpose is to give recitals. Address: 1013 Nishigahara, Takinogawa, Tokyo.

TOKYO MANDOLIN CLUB Establishin 1914; Shingi Miyata, head; membership 40. The purpose is to study mandolin and guitar. Issues a pamphlet "Tokyo Mandolin". Address: 8 Tansumachi, Azabu, Tokyo.

TOKYO ORATORIO KYOKAI (The Tokyo Oratorio Society). Established in 1925; membership 60. The purpose is to promote and propagate religious music. Address: Care of the Sunday School Association, 1 Mitoshirocho 7-chomé, Kanda, Tokyo.

TOYAMA GAKKO GUNGAKUTAI (The Military Band of the Toyama School). Established in 1896; Kuniichi Okada, 2nd class music officer, leadc membership 120. Address: Toyamacho, Ushigomé, Tokyo.

UTAZAWA KAI Established in 1914; Shibakin Utazawa, president; membership about 200. The Association aims at the practice and study of "Utazawa". Address: 5 Kobikicho 7-chomé, Kyobashi, Tokyo.

YOKYOKU KENKYU KAI (The "Yokyoku" Study Association). Established in 1916; Shin-ami Nakamura, president; membership 720. The object is to study and propagate the Kanzé School "Utai". Issues "Yokyoku Shimpo" (Yokyoku News). Address: 24 Daibancho, Yotsuya, Tokyo.

ZEN NIPPON HARMONICA RENMEI (All-Japan Harmonica League). Established 1927; Taiko Mano, head; membership 50,000. The purpose is to study harmonica music. Issues "Harmonica News". Address: 853 Nippori 8-chomé, Arakawa, Tokyo.

SOCIAL FRIENDSHIP

DENKI CLUB (The Electric Enter-

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prisers' Club). Established in 1922; Keijiro Inouyé, director; membership 1,200. For the progress of electric enterprises in our country. Address: 3 Yurakucho 1-chomé, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

FUKUOKA ROTARY CLUB Shuichi Yamaguchi, president; membership 42. Address: Ginko Shukaisho, Fukuoka.

KAZOKU KAIKAN (The Peers' Hall). Established in 1874; Prince Nobusuké Takatsukasa, president; membership 1,318. To promote cultural works among peers. Address: 4 Kasumigaseki 3-chomé, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

KOBE ROTARY CLUB Kinzo Kosugi president; membership 68. The aim is to improve civic service and to advance international good-will. Address: Oriental Hotel, Kaigandori, Kobé.

KOJUNSHA (Kojunsha Club). Established in 1879; Dr. Kiroku Hayashi, president; membership 1,836. For the exchange of knowledge among members and for the promotion of social works. Publishes a monthly report "Kōjun Geppo". Address: 4 Ginza 6-chomé Kyobashi, Tokyo.

KYOTO ROTARY CLUB Risaburo Torikai, president; membership 87. Address: Kyoto Hotel, Kawaramachi, Kyoto.

MARUNOUCHI CLUB Established in 1926; Senichiro Horié, president; membership 320. A social organization. Address: The Marunouchi Building, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

NAGOYA ROTARY CLUB Teiichi Takamatsu, president; membership 93. Address: The Nagoya Shoko Kaigisho, Nakaku, Nagoya.

NIHON (NIPPON) CLUB Established in 1898; Prince Iyesato Tokugawa, president; membership 960. For the exchange of knowledge among members. Address: 12 Marunouchi, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

NIPPON KOGYO CLUB (The Industrial Club of Japan). Established in 1917; Shintaro Ohashi, president; membership 1,030. Issues reports. Address: Care of the Nihon Club, 2 Marunouchi 1-chomé, Tokyo.

OSAKA CLUB Established in 1915; Membership 730. A social club of Osaka gentry. Address: 5 Imabashi, Higashiku, Osaka.

OSAKA ROTARY CLUB Kujuro Fujiwara, president; membership 106. Address: 11 Imabashi 5-chomé, Higashiku, Osaka.

TAIWAN CLUB Established in 1910; Eizo Ishitsuka, president; membership 483. A social club of Taiwan gentry. Address: The Showa Building, Marunouchi, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

TOKYO CLUB Established in 1885; H.I.H. Prince Kanin, honorary president. Baron de Bassompierre and Baron Gonsuké Hayashi, vice-presidents; membership about 500. To promote friendship between Japanese and foreigners. Address: Kasumigaseki 3-chomé, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

TOKYO ROTARY CLUB Heizaemon Hibia, president; membership 208. Address: The Marunouchi Building, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

YOKOHAMA ROTARY CLUB Ichiro Onishi, president; membership 59. Address: 1 Hayashicho, Kanagawaku, Yokohama.

SPORTS AND ATHLETICS

DAI NIPPON BUTOKU KAI Established in 1909; General Senjyuro Hayashi, president; membership 3,035,676. The purpose of this organization is to study and encourage martial arts. Issues a journal "Butoku" (Military Virtue). Address: Okazaki Park, Kyoto.

DAI NIPPON SUMO KYOKAI (The Wrestling Association of Japan). Established in 1925; Masanori Hirosé, chief director; membership 1,000. Issues "Kaku-do" (Art of Wrestling). Address: 25 Motomachi, Honjo, Tokyo.

DAI NIPPON TAIIKU KYOKAI (The Japan Amateur Athletic Association). Established in 1911; M.H.P. Hiroshi Shimomura, president; membership about 550. The object is to encourage and guide athletics and physical culture. Issues a journal "Taiiku Nippon" (Athletic Japan). Address: Tōnichikan, 11 Yurakucho 1-chomé, Kōjimachi, Tokyo.

KODO KAN Established in 1882; Takeshi Takarabé, acting president; membership 113,839. The purpose is to train body and mind by means of Jujutsu. Issues "Judo" and one more magazine. Address: 1 Koishikawamachi, Koishikawa, Tokyo.

MEIJI JINGU TAIIKU KAI (The Meiji Jingu Physical Culture Association). Established in 1924; Ryokitsu Arima, president; membership, all the organizations of physical culture. The object is to hold general athletic meeting in honour of the Meiji Shrine. Address: Care of the Education Department, Tokyo.

NIPPON JOBA KYOKAI (The Japan Horse-Riding Association). Established in 1922; Count Yorinaga Matsudaira, president; membership 123 organizations and 50 individuals. Issues "Jōba Gahō" (Horseman Graphic). Address: Yonei Building, 3 Ginza 2-chomé, Kyobashi, Tokyo.

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NIPPON RUGBY ASSOCIATION Established in 1927; Kikan Takagi, president; membership 305. Issues a journal. Address: The Kogyo Building, 5 Ginza, Kyobashi, Tokyo.

NIPPON SANGAKU KAI (The Japanese Alpine Club). Established in 1906; Ritaro Koguré, president; membership about 880. Issues "Sangaku" (Mountains) and other reports. Address: The Fujiya Building, Kotohiracho 1-chomé, Shiba, Tokyo.

NIPPON SUIJOKYOGI REMMEI (N. S. R.) (The Japan Aquatic Sporting League). Established in 1924; Dr. Izutaro Suehiro, president; Issues a report "Suiei" (Swimming). Address: The Marunouchi Building, Marunouchi, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

NIPPON TEIKYU KYOKAI (The Japan Lawn Tennis Association). Established in 1922; Eikichi Katsuta, president; membership local organizations. Issues reports. Address: The Ando Shippo Building, 4 Ginza 5-chomé, Kyobashi, Tokyo.

TEIKOKU BAHITSU KYOKAI (The Imperial Horse-Race Association). Established in 1926; Count Yorinaga Matsudaira, president; membership 320 organizations and 156 individuals. Address: The Totaku Building, 2 Uchisaiwaicho 1-chomé, Kōjimachi, Tokyo.

ZEN NIPPON AMATEUR KENTO REMMEI (The All Japan Amateur Pugilists' League). Established in 1924; Lieut. Bun General Jiro Horiuchi, president; membership 5 organizations. Address: The Nippon Building, Uchisaiwaicho, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

ZEN NIPPON RIKUJO KYOGI REMMEI (Zennihon N.R.R.) (The All Japan Athletic League). Established in 1925; Ryozo Hiranuma, president; membership about 50,000. Issues a monthly "Rikujō Nihon" (Japan's Track and Field). Address: The 6th Building, Nakadori, Marunouchi, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

ZEN NIPPON SKII REMMEI (The National ski Association of Japan). Established in 1925; Saburo Kojima, president; membership 50,499. Issues Ski Year Book. Address: 308 Komagomé Shinmeicho, Hongo, Tokyo.

ZEN NIPPON TAISO REMMEI (The Amateur Gymnastic Federation of Japan). Established in 1930; Ryozo Hiranuma, president; membership 2,500. The purpose is to encourage physical exercises and unify physical culture associations in Japan. Issues "Taiso" (Physical Exercises). Address: Care of the Kokumin Taiikukan, the Department of Health and Social Affairs, Tokyo.

WOMEN

AIKOKU FUJIN KAI (The Patriotic Women's Association). Established in 1901; Hisako Motono, president; membership 2,700,000. The purpose is to succour the bereaved families of disabled soldiers. Issues "Aikoku Fujin" (Patriotic Women). Address: 5 Kudan 1-chomé, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

CHUO FUJIN KAI (The Central Women's Association). Established in 1928; Kanenaga Mashiko, president; membership 5,000. The purpose is to keep connections among various women's associations in Japan. Issues "Eikyu" (Permanence). Address: 1957, Nagasaki Minamimachi, Toshima, Tokyo.

DAI NIPPON RENGO FUJINKAI (The Federation of Women's Associations of Japan). Established in 1930; Nobuko Sanjonishi, president; membership 20,000,000. The purpose is to promote home education. Issues "Katei" (Home). Address: 12 Shiba Park, Shiba, Tokyo.

FUJIN SETTLEMENT (The Women's Settlement). Established in 1931; Mumeo Oku, president. The purpose of the Settlement is to protect children and improve living conditions. Issues reports. Address: 1 Kikugawacho, Honjo, Tokyo.

FUSEN KAKUTOKU DOMEI (The Women's Suffrage League of Japan). Established in 1924; Fusaé Ichikawa, president; membership 1,596. Issues "Fusen" (Woman Suffrage). Address: 5 Owaricho, Yotsuya, Tokyo.

KIRISUTOKYO JOSHI SEINENKAI NIPPON DOMEI (The League of Y.W.C.A. of Japan). Established in 1895; Matsuko Tsuji, president; membership 7,000. Issues "Joshi Seinen Kai" (Y.W.C.A.). Address: 13 Nishikicho 1-chomé, Kanda, Tokyo.

NIPPON JOI KAI (The Medical-Women's Association of Japan). Established in 1902; Dr. Yayoi Yoshioka, president; membership 3,400. Issues reports. Address: 3 Hongo 2-chomé, Hongo, Tokyo.

NIPPON KIRISUTOKYO FUJIN KYOFU KAI (The Japan Woman's Christian Temperance Union). Established in 1886; Utako Hayashi, president; membership 9,708. The purpose is to promote abstinence, moral and religious education. Issues "Fujin Shimpo" (Women's News). Address: 360 Hyakuninmachi 3-chomé, Yodobashi, Tokyo.

NIPPON SEKIJUJI SHA TOKUSHI KANGOFU KAI (The Japanese Red-Cross Volunteer Nurses Association). Established in 1887; Eiko Nabeshima, president; membership 22,400. Issues "Haku Ai" (Universal Love). Address: Shiba Park, Shiba, Tokyo.

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RIKUKAIGUN SHOKO FUJINKAI (The Association of Military and Naval Officers' Wives). Established in 1906; Momoko Kuroki, president; membership 20,000. The purpose is the discipline of woman's virtues. Issues "Misao" (Chastity). Address: 11 Wakamatsucho, Ushigomé, Tokyo.

SENTO HIRUTA YOKO HOME (St. Hilda's Home). Established in 1891; in care of Sister Superior. The purpose is to help the children of the poor and encourage home industry. Address: 358 Shirokané Sankocho, Shiba, Tokyo.

TRAVELLING, SIGHT-SEEING, AMUSEMENT, ETC.

JAPAN TOURIST BUREAU (Nippon Ryoko Kyokai). Established in 1912; Kenjiro Kiyasu, president; membership 166. The purpose is to provide various facilities for foreign travellers. Issues "Tourist", a monthly in English. Address: The Tokyo Station Building, Marunouchi, Tokyo.

KOKUSAI KANKO KYOKAI (The Japan Travel Publicity Association). Established in 1931; Chikuhei Nakashima, president; membership 103. The purpose is to invite foreign tourists and propagate abroad fine scenery. Address: Care of the Department of Railways, Marunouchi, Tokyo.

NIPPON HŌSŌ KYOKAI (The Broadcasting Corporation of Japan). Established in 1926; Fumimaro Konoé, honorary president. Shichiro Komori, president; membership 5,495. Publications, "Hōsō" (Broadcasting), Radio Year Book in Japanese. Address: 2 2-chomé, Uchisaiwaicho, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

NIPPON INU HOZON KAI (N.I.H.) (The Association for the Preservation of Japanese Dogs). Established in 1928; Sukenari Yokoyama, president; membership 1,050. The object is to make researches of Japanese dogs. Issues "Nippon Inu" (Japanese Dogs). Address: 1,321 Setagaya 2-chomé, Setagaya, Tokyo.

NIPPON KIIN (The Japan "Go" Association). Established in 1924; Count Nobuaki Makino, president. The purpose is to promote interest in "Go" playing. Issues "Kido" (the way of "Go"). Address: 1 Nagatacho 2-chomé, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

NIPPON ONSEN KYOKAI (The Hot Spring Association). Established in 1929; Prince Sanetaka Ichijo, president; membership 1,460. The purpose is to invite foreign tourists. Issues "Onsen" (Hot Spring). Address: Care of the Japan Tourist Bureau, Marunouchi 1-chomé, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

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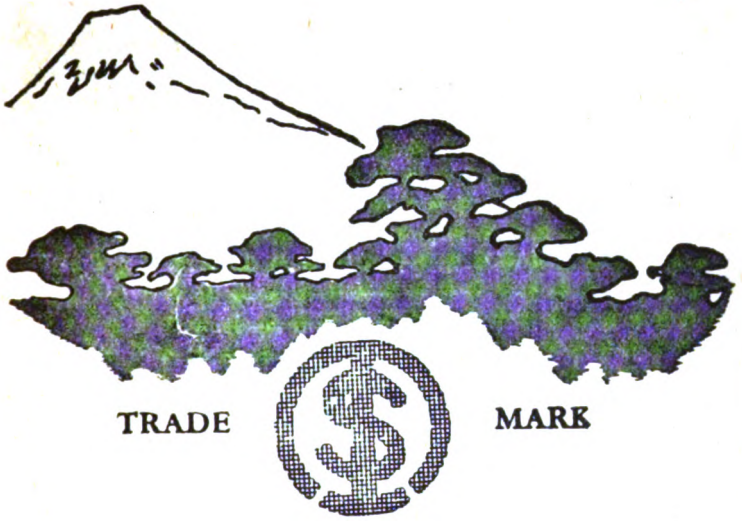

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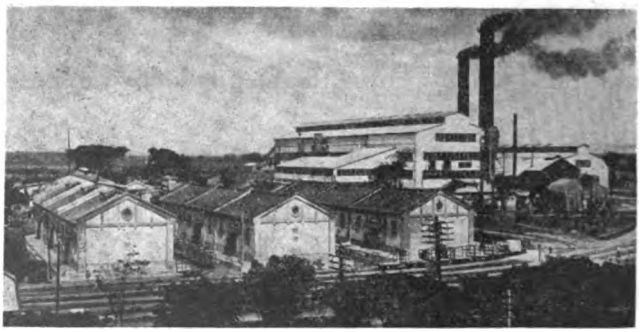

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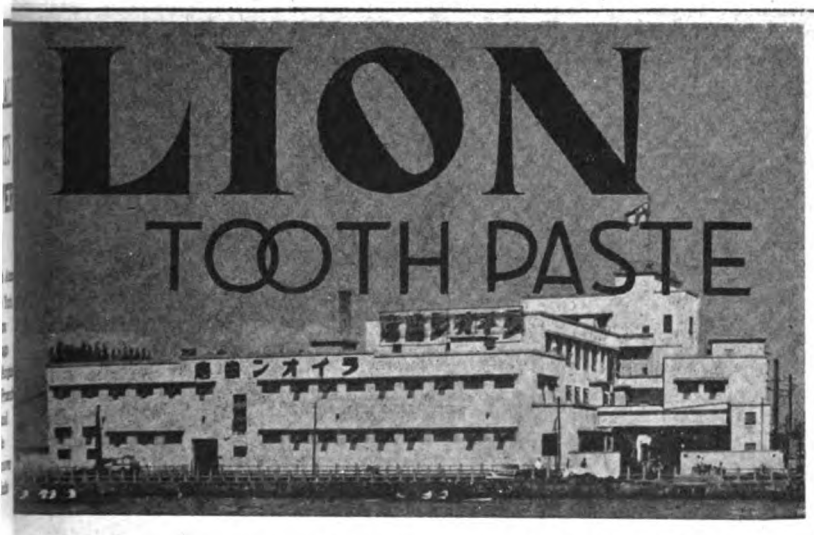

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Capital ¥53,800,000

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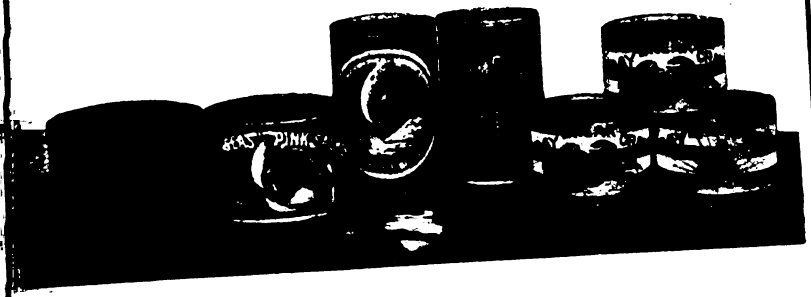

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DE
LA NOUVELLE CALÉDONIE
(The New Caledonia Mining Co., Ltd.)

MINING & SHIPPING

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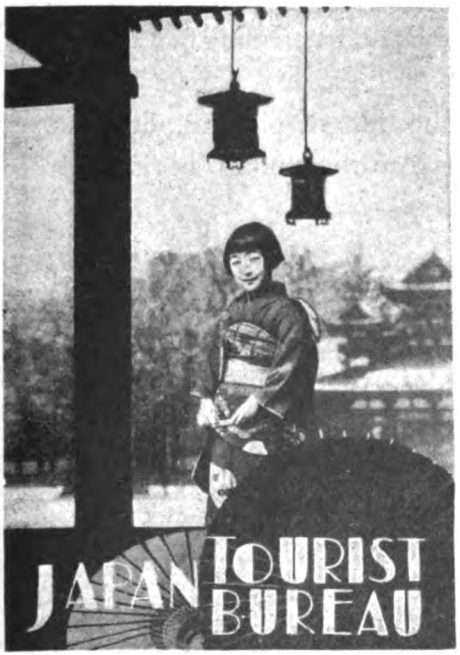

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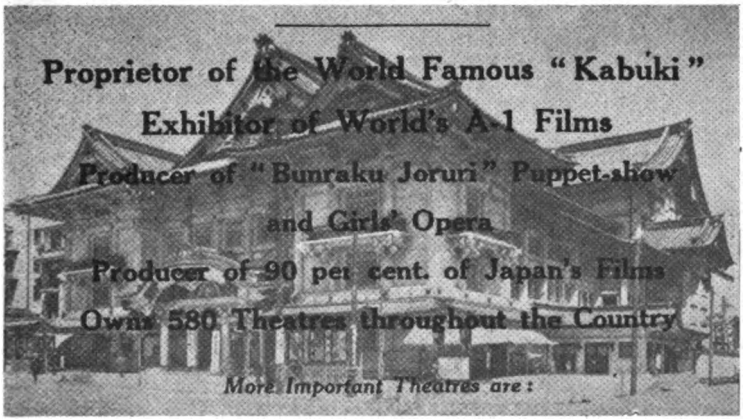
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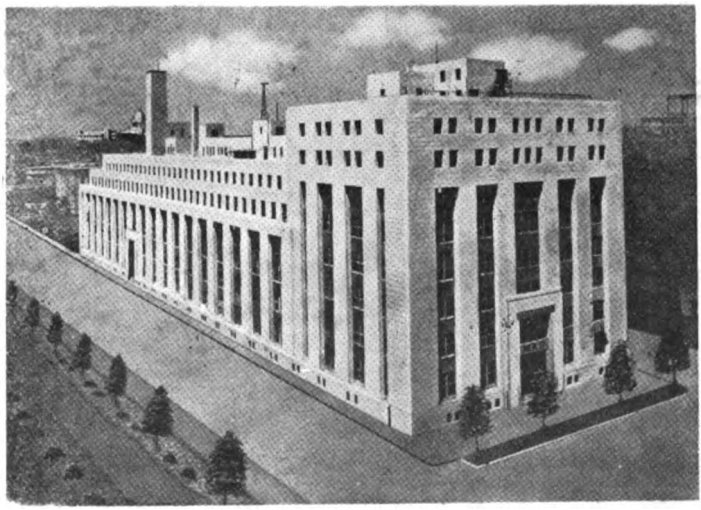

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